ReStorying Education

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Critical Perspectives in Public Education

Thor Gibbins; Ed Beck; and Kjersti VanSlyke-Briggs

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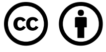

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ReStorying Education in the United States

Critical Perspectives in Public Education

Thor Gibbins

> "A pedagogy...must be forged *with,* not *for,* the oppressed (whether individuals or peoples) in the incessant struggle to regain their humanity. This pedagogy makes oppression and its causes objects of reflection by the oppressed, and from that reflection will come their necessary engagement in the struggle for their liberation. And in the struggle this pedagogy will be made and remade." (Paulo Friere, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed,* p. 48)

INTRODUCTION

Over the past century and a half, there have been many textbooks used to provide pre-service educators a foundation on the import of education, curriculum, and educational policy. This serves as a starting point for their future careers as teachers and teacher leaders. This textbook intends to comport these goals for students beginning to study education, content, and pedagogy. However, unlike many of this book's predecessors and contemporaries, our intention in writing this book is to apply critical perspectives on systemic political and economic structures undergirding public education in the United States. For this project, we take a critical approach to how teachers, students, places, and even languages have been emplaced within this larger educational system that continues to replicate inequalities and, at times, oppression.

Literacy scholar and teacher, Paulo Friere saw pedagogy and the teaching of reading and writing in particular as a means for liberation. This type of pedagogy requires teachers to place themselves amidst and in solidarity with their students in resisting and reforming the systemic injustices brought on to the people with little or no economic, social, or political capital. This book, while still providing the foundational concepts for beginning pre-service educators, intends to position pre-service teachers and teacher educators to critique what Friere (2018) named as the *banking model of education* that

has pervaded our educational system since its formal inception in the 19th century. In order to evaluate and critically examine the banking model, we employ the process of *restorying* as the primary pedagogical approach for this textbook.

Restorying, as a pedagogical approach, emerges from the social constructivist paradigm that embed learning *in situ* with real and relevant contexts, utilizes social negotiation and discussion as an essential part of learning, emphasizes multiple perspectives and modes of representation, encourages self-ownership of learning, and invites self-reflection on how one constructs knowledge (Slabon, Richards, & Dennen, 2014). Restorying involves iterations of writing, rewriting, and discussing "personal, student-generated, domain-relevant stories to promote conceptual application, critical thinking, and ill-structured problem solving skills" (p. 505). For each chapter of this textbook, Each chapter's authors apply restorying to rewrite the underlying narratives, concepts, and ill-structured problems that form our understandings of public education from the past to the present. Each chapter includes a pre-reading activity to help readers activate background knowledge from their own lived experiences, critical essential questions to help sustain inquiry on the topics and concepts throughout the reading process, during reading activities to help guide comprehension, and an end of chapter activity, to consolidate understanding. All the activities in each chapter employ restorying as the primary pedagogical approach to encourage students to rewrite their own internalized narratives, beliefs, and attitudes on teaching, learning, and the purposes of public education.

In addition to applying restorying as the primary method to represent the foundations of public education, The editors have organized this book thematically into two sections. The first section, *Teaching and Learning*, focuses on our conceptual understandings of teachers and students, the curriculum that guides teaching and learning, the purposes of assessment of student learning, and the political, social, and economic educational policies. The second section, *Multiple Perspectives in Education*, offers disparate perspectives on education that involve alternate perspectives on linguistic diversity within communities and schools; racial and ethnic disparities that create a school to prison pipeline; teachers as agents and activists for reform; and global perspectives of education outside the United States that may offer teachers a guide to future possibilities in how we shape education in the United States. While some of these topics and chapters may appear to be outliers from traditional textbooks on education, these chapters restory pedagogy, educational theory, curriculum, and educational policy within these nuanced topics to situate and apply readers' conceptual understandings embedded within real and lived world of teachers, students, caregivers, and communities. This textbook is unique in being an Open Educational Resource (OER) available– and affordable– for all who wish to use some or all of these chapters in their education programs.

Lastly, I invite all of us–teacher educators and future educators–to forge solidarity with one another and become active in creating democratic schools where the principal stakeholders become the primary decision makers in schools in regard to curriculum and hiring educational leaders. We need to advocate for democratic practices in schools–elementary, middle school, high school, undergraduate and graduate teacher

education programs–as opposed to the corporate for-profit models. Currently, most of the critical decisions involving education policy and curriculum are done behind closed doors decided by the few who hold positions of power. If we are truly to shift education for a sustainable future, we must challenge undemocratic decisions and push for more democratic processes that value the professionalism of educators who are on the frontlines with students working to solve the myriad problems of the world on fire.

Let this book be a way forward in restorying public education that is equitable, sustainable, socially and economically just.

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The Cultural Narratives of Teachers

Thor Gibbins and Elyssa Stoddard

Before We Read

Before reading, spend some time thinking and writing on some metaphors about teachers, teaching, and students that you have overheard or may have used, e.g., "teachers are gardeners" or "teachers are sculptors." What are the implications of these metaphors on what teaching means and what agency do students have in these metaphors? Have you seen any movies or television shows about teaching and teachers that you can point to as examples of these metaphors? Explain possible reasons writers, media producers, and distributors might benefit from creating these narratives about teaching, teachers, and students.

Critical Question For Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: How has the media framed teachers in the United States to construct cultural narratives and beliefs about teachers and the teaching of youth? And how have these narratives shaped how we, as educators, see ourselves as teachers and our students in our current or future classrooms?

HOW MEDIA CONSTRUCTS CULTURAL NARRATIVES

Whatever our reasons for becoming an educator, it has been molded and shaped by cultural narratives of teaching and teachers. These narratives spring from the spectacles emerging from popular culture's attempts at making sense of the events of social change. Film, television, and literature create spectacles for us to consume and internalize. Literary theorist and philosopher Roland Barthes (1957) likened the spectacle of professional wrestling as a cultural metaphor for how his society made sense of the changing times in post-World War II France. Barthes, in his analysis of popular

culture and professional wrestling, outlined a method of scholarship that can trace narratives created by these cultural spectacles to the underlying ideologies enveloping a particular society. The purpose of this chapter utilizes Barthes' critical analyses to trace narratives about teaching and teachers within the advent of modern film and television. In doing our critical analyses, we connect these narratives to landmark events that influenced public education throughout most of the last century as well as the first part of this one.

MEET A SCHOLAR

Roland Barthes (1915-1980) was a French philosopher who wrote seminal works in the fields of literary criticism and semiotics. Barthes was an influential writer within structuralist and post-structuralist literary theories. Structuralism asserts that our experience of the world entails a visible level of surface phenomena and an invisible level (Tyson, 2015). The invisible level contains structures and systems of meaning that help us make sense of our world. Barthes proposed there are underlying structures which produce meaning. "Texts" emerge from these structures which allow spectators, viewers, readers, etc to experience catharsis, or emotional release, whenever they experience reading a book, watching a movie, or watching a sporting event. For theorists like Barthes, the world can be read as a text and it is the underlying cultural structures that shape our interpretation of the world.

Critical Discussion Activities:

1. Teen and coming-of-age movies have been popular cultural texts since James Dean starred in Rebel Without a Cause (1955). Select a popular teen movie from your generation and outline the character tropes within the movie. How does this movie portray youth? Do these caricatures connect to other social narratives about teens and youth cultures?
2. Choose a cultural artifact, e.g., commercial, television show, music video, etc, that targets teens and young adults. What type of assumptions do these media make about teens and youth cultures? For example, do they infanticize teens and/or do they create positive or negative stereotypes of youth? What are the implications of these narratives on social perceptions of youth?

While most narratives of teaching and teachers in the United States may not spring forth from the top ropes of professional wrestling programs like World Wrestling Entertainment (WWE), popular film and television can create spectacles that shape our cultural understandings of teaching and teachers. For example, action movies create stories that clearly outline who are the "good guys" and who are "bad." As children , we take the narratives of popular culture and enact them as we play. As we continue consuming these same stories, we begin to internalize these stories, which **frame** how we see the world. The frame is hidden as we perceive the world much like a lens of a camera that can focus on specific details while blurring out either the background or foreground. Media in its various forms, e.g., literature, film, and television often frames teachers and youth in ways that create stereotypes for us to internalize and shape our perceptions of teachers and youth. These mediated caricatures surrounding education lead, then, to archetypes of teachers and youth that may become problematic. In a sense, these archetypes may reinforce ideas about teachers and young people that may hinder the goals of a high quality education for all members of our country.

Frame
The way a communicator constructs and communicates a message in order to highlight, obscure, or hide some aspects of the message over others.

Like the "good guy," the "bad guy," and other **tropes** found in action movies, the spectacle of storytelling surrounding educational narratives creates easily castable roles for teachers: the wise sage/saint, the white savior/martyr, the outsider/disruptor, the loveable buffoon, and the villain. We, as educators, have all internalized these tropes at times and may have even performed the scripts in these teacher stories early on in our careers as educators. Our purpose of unveiling the spectacle of education is to critique the underlying sociological purposes of maintaining these caricatures of teaching that do not have any real connection to the lived experiences of teachers and students.

Tropes
A figurative use of a word, expression, or convention that is nonliteral and connects to more abstract concepts or ideas. Metaphors and similes are types of tropes.

Table 1.1 Teacher Tropes Popularized in Literature, Film, and Television

Teacher Trope	Example(s)
Wise Sage/Saint	Boy Meets World, Harry Potter, Mr. Holland's Opus,
Loveable Buffoon	School of Rock, 10 Things I Hate About You, Mr. Vargas in Fast Times at Ridgemont High
Outsider/Disruptor	Kindergarten Cop, Sister Act, School of Rock
White Savior or Martyr	Dangerous Minds, Freedom Writers,
Villain	The Breakfast Club, Ferris Buehler's Day Off, Bad Teacher, Mr. Hand in Fast Times at Ridgemont High

In this chapter, we apply critical examinations of how popular media frames these narratives. Moreover, we outline other more problematic narratives of education and how these narratives can be used by those in power to create systems of oppression and social replication. These cultural narratives tend to lie beneath the surface of the explicit goals educational stakeholders and politicians state in the public record. Thus, we will attempt to reveal these latent, or hidden, narratives that help create a **hidden curriculum** (Anyon, 1980). Chapter two will go into more detail about the import and consequences of a hidden curriculum. However, in order to reveal the hidden curriculum and its effects on education, this chapter takes a closer look at the cultural narratives constructed by the media that underlies popular culture: literature, film, and television. This chapter examines cultural narratives that maintain **hegemony**, or oppression,; challenge hegemony; and subvert, or transgress, hegemony related to teachers and youth in the United States.

Hidden curriculum
Unwritten lessons, values, prejudice, or perspectives on students and learning created in the formal curriculum.

Hegemony
The systematic maintenance of oppression of a group or groups of people over another for the purposes of exerting dominance–ideologically, socially, politically, or economically.

Throughout this chapter, we encourage all educators (pre-service education students, teacher educators, educational leaders) to critically evaluate our own biases and prejudgments about public education and the role of teachers in either maintaining hegemonic narratives or challenging or perhaps subverting them.

POPULAR CULTURE GOES TO SCHOOL: THE SHIFTING CULTURAL NARRATIVES OF PUBLIC EDUCATION, TEACHERS, AND STUDENTS IN FILM AND TELEVISION

Teachers in Films Set in 1930-1950s

Teachers and schools were not the primary protagonists or setting in the early years of cinema. However, Goodbye, Mr. Chips (1939) is one of the earliest films depicting a teacher as its primary protagonist. The primary theme for the film dealt with a teacher's dedication to teaching and the lives of his students. While set in England, Goodbye, Mr. Chips (1939) introduces the teacher/saint (Table 1.1) about teaching and teachers that can be easily traced to more contemporary movies like Dead Poets Society (1989) and Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone (2001). In the film, a wise retired teacher Mr. Chipping, or Mr. Chips, reminisces about his life spent as a teacher at a private boarding

school for boys. Mr. Chips has dedicated his life as a teacher. The film highlights his transformation from a bumbling beginning educator to a wise veteran teacher who inspires the best in the young men he leads at this school where he also resides much like priests' devotion to the church and their congregation. In a sense, Goodbye, Mr. Chips equates becoming a teacher to joining the priesthood. While there is a love interest and a short segway into Mr. Chips' life away from teaching, the film instills an unspoken creed for teachers that one must adhere and devote one's whole self to teaching at the expense of one's other interests and social life to the point of taking a de facto vow of celibacy. It may appear as hyperbole at first glance, however, the rules for teachers from 1872 (Webster Museum, 2023) seem to outline the teacher as saint archetype that Mr. Chips embodies:

1. Teachers each day will fill lamps, clean chimneys
2. Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and a scuttle of coal for the day's session
3. Make your pens carefully. You may whittle nibs to the individual taste of the pupils.
4. Men teachers may take one evening each week for courting purposes, or two evenings a week if they go to church regularly.
5. After ten hours in school, the teachers may spend the remaining time reading the Bible or other good books.
6. Women teachers who marry or engage in unseemly conduct will be dismissed.
7. Every teacher should lay aside from his pay a goodly sum of his earnings for his benefit during his declining years so that he will not become a burden on society.
8. Any teacher who smokes, uses liquor in any form, frequents pool or public halls, or gets shaved in a barber shop will give good reason to suspect his worth, intention, integrity and honesty.
9. The teacher who performs his labor faithfully and without fault for five years will be given an increase of 25 cents per week in his pay, providing the Board of Education approves. (https://www.webstermuseum.org/blog/rules-for-teachers/)

Public policy on teaching was already signaling the expectations and missionary-like dogma sixty years prior to how film and television began to frame teachers. This teacher narrative continues to pervade media's depictions of teachers, however, unlike the saintly Mr. Chips, some of the more modern twists the teacher as saint into teacher as martyr, e.g., Mr. Keating in Dead Poets Society (1989).

Dead Poets Society's romanticization of Mr. Keating as a saint/martyr teaching in an idyllic elite boarding school set in 1959 rural Vermont mimics the pastoral musings of the saintly Mr. Chips' teaching at an elite boarding school in England some thirty years

earlier. The teacher as saint or martyr trope romanticizes teachers with the media tending to frame teachers within idyllic private elite schools and settings. Unlike Mr. Chips, however, Mr. Keating's more liberal aspects of connecting students' lived experiences to the transcendentalism and romanticism spurred on by poets like Walt Whitman and Robert Frost runs afoul of the more reactionary nature of the private boarding school. When tragedy occurs, Mr. Keating must sacrifice his career for the "greater good" of the students' future roles of becoming members of the elite social class. Mona Lisa Smile (2003), also set in the 1950s, follows this similar teacher arc with a female teacher, Ms. Watson, transgresses societal expectations of young women at a private, elite liberal arts college. Ms. Watson, like Mr. Keating, must sacrifice her own career as a consequence for leading rebellion against the cultural expectations and roles of women at this time. Films about the 1950s seem to be the romantic starting point where narratives about teachers sprinkle nostalgia for the era while framing teachers as saints who must martyr themselves within the history of progress. This media framing of teachers, however, will shift abruptly during the Civil Rights Era beginning in the late 1950s through to the late 1970s.

From Saints to Saviors: Narratives about Teachers in Response to the Civil Rights Era, 1950s to 1970s.

Interestingly, there are many mediated narratives that idealize education in the 1950s era. At this time, public policy and systemic redlining in urban and suburban areas segregated schools by social class, race and ethnicity. Higher education was limited or inaccessible for many women, people of color, and working-class men. It is ironic that the media tends to romanticize an era of extreme inequity in education. In 1954, Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka ruled that racial segregation of public schools was unconstitutional–separate was not equal. The plight of urban, mostly Black and Brown working class people and the schools tasked with educating them now would begin to be depicted in film and television. Unlike the idealized wise teacher who takes vow of poverty for the greater good and to be sacrificed at the altar of progressivism, the media narratives of teachers begin to shift from saint/martyr to the white savior trope. In this framing, the white outsider comes to a chaotic urban school to save the "unwashed" masses inhabiting urban areas. This tale is the same, tired tale of the colonial narratives inherent in the Westerns and "cowboy" movies that framed our conceptions of Western Expansionism. This type of narrative, as seen in the classic westerns of this era, requires a white settler, usually fallen from grace, to tame the "wilderness" and the people, typically depicted as savages, who live in these "wild" lands. If we transpose the settler colonialism myths behind Western Expansionism and Manifest Destiny with impoverished urban centers populated with mostly working class people of color and the teacher as the white savior (settler), the stories become strikingly similar.

Chapters four and six will delve deeper into the legacy of Brown v. Board of Education, however, the impact of this monumental decision shaped how the media framed narratives on schools and teachers. The Supreme Court's decision has enormous consequences on the schools in communities of color as the era of school integration

began. Many teachers of color lost their jobs as the schools in their communities shuttered as policy makers bussed their students to schools in predominantly white areas. These narratives of displacement and loss of community were lost in the romanticism surrounding the 1950s with films like Dead Poets Society and Mona Lisa Smile from the 1980s to the early 2000s. Meanwhile, in the 1950s film and television began in earnest to mythologize the white savior trope in popular culture.

The Blackboard Jungle (1955) stands in contrast to the idealized version of the white suburbia portrayed in popular television shows like Leave it to Beaver (1957-1963) and Father Knows Best (1954-1960). Consider the opening preamble to The Blackboard Jungle:

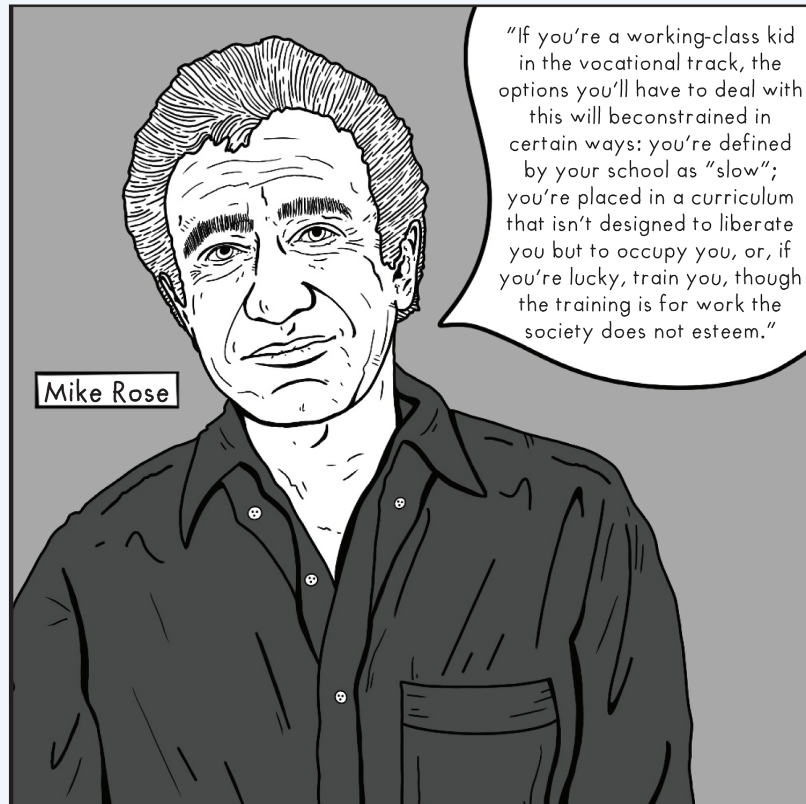
We, in the United States, are fortunate to have a school system that is a tribute to our communities and to our faith in American youth. Today we are concerned with juvenile delinquency–and its effects. We are especially concerned when this delinquency boils over into our schools. The scenes and incidents depicted here are fictional. However, we believe awareness is a first step toward a remedy for any problem.

Suddenly, in the wake of the landmark decision in Brown v. Board of Education, the media created a spectacle on juvenile delinquency in schools. However, this spectacle could not coexist with the idyllic concept of America developing in the growing suburbs where the public policy of redlining continued to segregate people of color out of the "white picket fence" American Dream. Films and other media like The Blackboard Jungle that create stories about scary juveniles in these dangerous urban areas exacerbated white flight out of urban cities like Detroit, Cleveland, Chicago, and Oakland. The subtext of films like The Blackboard Jungle were more about alleviating white guilt as more affluent, White people abandoned these cities than the manufactured problem of juvenile delinquency. Cities experiencing white flight were now left without adequate revenue streams to fund schools via property taxes. It is easy to explain away racism and classism if there is a perceived, or manufactured threat we must flee from. After all, the media "are effective and powerful ideological institutions that carry out a system-supportive propaganda function…without overt coercion" (Herman & Chomsky, 1988, p. 306). At this time, the media helped manufacture a fear of urban areas and urban youth that can be easily seen in more modern media of our current time.

While most media portrayed urban schools as places overrun by "dangerous" youth, Welcome Back, Kotter (1975-1979), a sit-com set in a public high school in Brooklyn did begin to challenge and subvert mainstream narratives about urban schools, teachers, and youth. In Welcome Back, Kotter, a new teacher, Gabe Kotter, returns to his former school to teach kids tracked into remedial classes. The group of kids in the remedial program are known as the Sweathogs. Mr. Kotter was previously a Sweathog when he was a student at that same high school. Unlike other portrayals of new teachers in urban schools who are typically white, war veterans like Mr. Dadier in the The Blackboard Jungle, Mr. Kotter has grown up and is a member of this community. On the first day of class, his new students, the Sweathogs, welcome him into the classroom with a mural painted on the wall showcasing Mr. Kotter's membership as a former Sweathog and return to their community. The Sweathogs, like their teacher Mr. Kotter, triumph over the deficit perspectives of the administration, teachers, and students of the school.

Welcome Back, Kotter is a welcome reprieve that challenges stereotypes and deficit perspectives of teachers and students.

MEET A SCHOLAR



Mike Rose (1944-2021) was a scholar and critic of literacy education and student tracking. As a high school student, Mike Rose was placed on a vocational track due to a combination of a mix up of test scores and his working-class background. One of his high school English teachers advocated for Mike and was moved to the honors or college prep track where he excelled and went on to pursue a career in higher education. As a distinguished teacher educator at UCLA, Rose would go on to become a vocal critic of tracking especially among students from working class backgrounds. Mike Rose would go on to write his seminal autoethnography Lives on the Boundary (1989). In this book, Mike Rose would challenge deficit perspectives and normative definitions of intelligence. He encouraged high expectations and an emphasis on critical thinking for all students rather than remedial curriculum typical of students tracked into vocational education.

Critical Discussion Questions:

1. Have you ever experienced being tracked into specific courses based on standardized testing? If so, how did that make you feel?
2. What are the implications of tracking on students in terms of higher educational opportunities? Is this equitable?
3. What might teachers do to challenge ability tracking to provide more equitable education for students in their classrooms?

From the Quirky to the Profane: Teachers in Film and Television in the 1980s and 1990s

The challenging narrative of Welcome Back, Kotter would erode, however, in the wake of an economic and ideological shift that began during the show's span on television. In 1983, the National Commision on Excellence spearheaded by the Reagan administration published A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. This report would dramatically shift federal educational policy towards market-based neoliberalism that still undergirds much of federal education policy. Chapter four will discuss in detail how educational policy shifted from a liberal economic ideology to neoliberalism and its effects on education. One result of the Nation at Risk report is that public discourse began shifting the blame for inequities in education from the material conditions of society like poverty. As the blame shifted from the material, film and television depicted teachers and schools also moved to align with the cultural narratives of teachers proposed by A Nation at Risk report. The report unabashedly framed teachers and their lack of preparation as the primary reason for the "failing" schools. Good teachers, the wise sage of the past generation's narratives, were now either quirky diamonds in the rough or objects of justified ridicule.

Where Welcome Back, Kotter challenged our perceptions on teachers, students, and the social conditions influencing education, television shows like Head of the Class (1986-1991) flipped the script on the premise of a gifted teacher returning home to reconnect and support students tracked into remediation and failure. Charlie Moore a substitute teacher who has "taught in the toughest high schools in New York City" (Season 1, Episode 1) happens to land a full-time job teaching a group of overachievers in an Individualized Honors Program (IHP).Up to this point, the IHP class worked independently without the need of formal instruction. The substitute teacher, it seems, was there to "just babysit and nothing more," according to the principal. Instead of a teacher returning to his community and school, a quirky substitute teacher helps socially awkward high-achievers navigate the social norms and expectations of teenagers like asking someone to the dance. Mr. Moore is successful due to his idiosyncrasies rather than professional competencies–he is "just a substitute," however. The teacher, therefore, must rise above the profane educational system that has failed the youth according to A Nation at Risk. The American ideal of rugged individualism has now infected the discourse on what it means to be a successful teacher. The same students can be seen between when juxtaposing Mr. Kotter's Sweathogs and Mr. Moore's IHP students. Head of the Class erases the systemic and material conditions that tracked the Sweathogs into remediation, since it is clear these kids just did not apply themselves to rise out of poverty like the IHP kids. The teacher, then, is irrelevant to society as a whole. Teachers and students must apply themselves individually irregardless of the material conditions of poverty and educational consequences brought on them by food and housing insecurity. If teachers and their students cannot rise above the mediocrity of their peers like Mr. Moore and the IHP students, then teachers and students alike may set themselves up to become objects or ridicule and scorn.

Amy Heckerling's iconoclastic teen movie Fast Times at Ridgemont (1982) quintessentially captures the shifting ridicule and scorn for teachers and students who

fail to apply themselves socially or educationally. While the primary focus of the film is on a hodgepodge of teens navigating the teenage wilderness where parents and caring adults are remarkably absent, two teachers, Mr. Vargas and Mr. Hand, offer tertiary guidance as the students attempt to survive another year at Ridgemont High. Mr. Vargas the zany Biology teacher offers a comic refrain where asks students to "have a heart" as he just switched from regular coffee to Sanka–a decaffeinated instant coffee powder; or, neglects to catch the entire class cheating on a test because he is too focused on solving a rubik's cube. Unlike the eccentric Mr. Vargas, Mr. Hand serves as the stern, no-nonsense foil to one of his American History students, Jeff Spicoli–a continuously stoned buffoon, who daydreams of surfing and catching a "tasty buzz." Mr. Hand derides his students for failing testing by dropping exams of his failing students like soiled linen in the hamper. He also makes Jeff Spicoli as an object of ridicule multiple times including a scene where Spicoli enthusiastically orders a pizza to the class so he can have some food and learn about Cuba. Mr. Hand and Spicoli are redeemed on the night of the last dance of the school year. Mr. Hand shows up to Spicolis house, interrupting Spicoli's plans to go to the dance with his friends. Mr. Hands decided to lecture on all the major topics of his American History class to pay back Spicoli for all the time Spicoli wasted in his class. The two end the spontaneous remediation session amicably with Mr. Hand passing Spicoli in American History.

The absurdity of teaching and teachers in Fast Times at Ridgemont High reflects the premise of A Nation at Risk: Our educational system is failing because of the unmotivated work ethic of the teachers and students. Therefore, in order to save our failing public, policymakers must shift from the traditional liberal education outlined by early educational leaders like Horace Mann in the 19th century or the principles of progressive education developed by Dewey in the early 20th century. While hyperbole in the film, the buffoonish teacher becomes an apocryphal story told by every politician who wants to shift blame for inadequately funding high-needs schools. These policy makers seek to mythologize narratives about absurd teachers who haphazardly socially promote lazy students instead of remediation or removal. Most teachers, then , must become the stern managers tasked with overseeing the mediocre, unmotivated students to ensure financially justifying the institution to taxpayers. However, if a teacher is a brave and idiosyncratic teacher who can challenge students despite the institutional failings of public education as asserted by A Nation at Risk, then that teacher transcends to become the idealized teacher–a return to the teacher as saint/martyr. One film from the 1980s that acutely depicts this phenomenon is Stand and Deliver (1988).

Stand and Deliver (1988) is a biographical account of Mr. Escalante's inspiring story on how he challenged the institutional and societal expectations of his predominantly Hispanic remedial math student. Mr. Escalante diligently challenged the deficit perspectives of his students and worked tirelessly with his students to pass the Advanced Placement by the end of their senior year. Mr. Escalante's work is admirable and his story continues to inspire teachers to this day. His story, however, again frames teaching as a saintly calling. Teachers must internalize these narratives where they must sacrifice their identities outside of teaching in order to be successful teaching, especially if their students lack the material and social resources needed to be more successful.

After all, Mr. Escalante devoted much of his free time to remediating his students in the summer over the course of several years. The cultural narratives inspired by Mr. Escalante's success tacitly demands the successful teacher to make up for the lack of material and social support which should be provided by the school system at large. Every year, the tales of teachers buying their students notebooks, pencils, and other supplies is ubiquitous to the point that it is a cultural expectation inherent in teaching. This echoes the expectations of teachers in the 19th century common schools we highlighted earlier in the chapter. This is just the neoliberal transformation of the teacher as saint/martyr.

White Saviors and Martyrs: Mediating Teachers at the Turn of the 21st Century

A key principle of neoliberalism is that limited oversight from the state leads to better economic outcomes. Neoliberalism assumes limited oversight and the fundamentals of the marketplace allows space for competition where those with the best "product" will (theoretically) succeed while the inferior products will fail. In film, we see this in stories of individual teachers who turn a failing classroom or school into a success. This success happens, in most cases, without the support of the school system, or perhaps in spite of it. For example, Dangerous Minds (1995) tells the story of LouAnne Johnson (played by Michelle Pfeiffer), a former marine, during her first year teaching English at an urban high school in California. Her class is primarily made up of low-income students of color, many of whom are in gangs.

The students are initially difficult, taunting Johnson and showing no interest in doing what she asks. However, Johnson finds early success by teaching students karate and offering them extrinsic rewards like candy and field trips. Next, she finds success in teaching them poetry by connecting the work of Dylan Thomas to the lyrics of Bob Dylan. While connecting poetry to her students' lived experiences can be considered an innovative way to increase student engagement, Johnson explicitly disregards her school's adopted curricula, often acting in opposition to school administrators and colleagues. The message viewers can take away from this is clear: an individual teacher was successful because she took the initiative to create and try out-of-the-box strategies while the oversight her school attempted to provide would have prevented her success. In other words, innovative individual teachers can be successful if they work against an educational system that is ineffective.

It's important to note that while Dangerous Minds is based on a true story which Johnson wrote about in My posse don't do homework, the film portrays her relationship with school administration as more confrontational than it really was. For example, in the movie Johnson argues with the school principal about a book she is required to teach, claiming it is too easy for students; in reality, this book was not required by the school but rather one that Johnson introduced and was later removed after her students chose more complex texts (Lowe, 2001). While we do not know the filmmakers' intention with this change, portraying Johnson's relationship with school administration as confrontational does support an individual versus the system narrative.

A similar message, which scholars have described as the "superteacher" (Farhi,

1999) or "hero" (Lowe, 2001) message can be seen in other popular films such as Sister Act 2 (1993) and Kindergarten Cop (1990): an individual teacher is able to make significant positive changes by implementing their own ideas that are often at odds with the school system they are working in. However, there are other important messages within films such as these.

First, these remarkable teachers have no formal teacher training and instead are successful by using their knowledge and skills from previous jobs (e.g., the music teacher in Sister Act 2 was previously a lounge singer, the teacher in Kindergarten Cop is an undercover police officer). These teachers are therefore examples of the outsider/disrupter trope, reinforcing the message that anyone can be a successful teacher (and perhaps oversight of who becomes a teacher, namely state requirements of teacher training, are unnecessary).

Second, urban schools and communities are portrayed as run-down and gang-ridden with parents and students who do not value education; whereas, suburban schools and communities are safe and prosperous with parents and students who value education. Further, as in Dangerous Minds and other films like The Substitute I (1996) and The Substitute II: School's Out (1998) hearkens back to the white savior of The Blackboard Jungle. In these films the remarkable teacher who finds success in urban schools is white, sending the message that urban schools need a "white hero" (Lowe, 2001) or "white teacher savior" (Cann, 2015) to save them. In doing so, these films exemplify the white savior trope, reinforcing the dominance of Whiteness and position people of color as lacking or deficient. Moreover, the ability of one white teacher to "save" their students or school ignores the very real institutional racism that has led urban schools to be under-funded and under-resourced for decades (Cann, 2015).

The sunny portrayal of suburban communities and schools is also evident in many TV shows from the 1990s, including Boy Meets World (1993-2000), Saved by the Bell (1989-1993), and even The Magic School Bus (1994-1998). Students in each of these shows (generally) attend school regularly and show respect for adults. Issues such as drugs, crime, and family challenges do occur, however they are limited to a specific individual or brief incident (e.g., Shawn in Boy Meets World is the "rebel" character or Jessie in Saved By the Bell struggling with a caffeine pill addiction in one episode) which is a sharp contrast to gangs and violence being portrayed as deep-rooted issues for entire urban school communities.

Regarding teachers, we can see both some similarities and differences in how they are portrayed in TV shows compared to the previously discussed films. For example, while the teachers in these shows all have formal teacher education, they can also be considered heroes due to the profound impact they have on students' lives. This heroism requires teachers to do more than be innovative in their teaching or push back against the system – they often need to act in ways that are unrealistic or impossible. In The Magic School Bus, Ms. Frizzle uses magic(!) to teach her students, at one point shrinking them to microscopic sizes so they can explore the inside of the human body (Jacobs, 1994). In Boy Meets World, the main teacher, Mr. Feeny lives next door to the show's main character, Cory; he often offers guidance and life advice when they see each other in their neighboring yards and has a personal relationship with Cory's parents. Another teacher,

Mr. Turner, allows a student to live with him when his parents can no longer provide for him. Here, we see aspects of the martyr trope in that teachers can have a profound impact on students if they go above and beyond the classroom responsibilities expected of them by the educational system. Teachers must be willing to blur the boundaries between their professional and personal lives (or the boundaries between reality and magic) to support students no matter where or when. Furthermore, we see aspects of the wise sage/saint trope, as these teachers are experts in their content knowledge, put the needs of their students first, and always seem to be able to "save the day."

In both TV and film, we see individual teachers, rather than the broader school system and community, as responsible for students' learning and well-being. More importantly, we see the message that to be a teacher is to be a martyr because you must be willing to sacrifice your personal boundaries, resources, and passions to always put your students first both in and outside of the classroom. To be clear, this martyr image of teachers is also true in the urban school films discussed earlier, as the challenges the white savior teacher persevered through included spending their own money on supplies, working with students outside of class time, and blurring the lines between their professional and personal lives. However, we could assume this was necessary because of the substantial challenges that urban schools present. But seeing that this is the case for teachers regardless if they are in a tough urban school or a prosperous suburban school shows that all teachers are expected to be martyrs.

The white savior/martyr image of individual teachers persisted throughout the 1990s and continued throughout the 2000s. For example, scholars have discussed how Freedom Writers (2007) echoes the white savior messages of Dangerous Minds (Cann, 2015). However, the 2000s also mark a shift in the seriousness with which teachers are portrayed. While individual teachers can make a difference in students' lives, these teachers are often lovable buffoons, who act unprofessionally and have messy, silly or chaotic personal lives.

Buffoonery in the Digital Media Age: Teacher Narratives in the 21st Century

While there were always narratives that had buffoonish teachers through most of the era of film and television, these teachers were usually ancillary, side-characters juxtaposed to the serious saint/martyr teacher. Consider the film School of Rock (2003), where a struggling musician, Dewey Finn, becomes a substitute teacher by impersonating his roommate who happens to be a teacher because Dewey desperately needs money to pay his bills. Dewey is not trained as a teacher, yet despite this he is able to secure a long-term teaching position using his charm and skill of deception. While acting as a teacher, he repeatedly behaves in ways a teacher should not: he deceives school administrators, students and parents, does not teach required content, and uses class time to have students form a band and prepare for an upcoming music competition. In the end, however, Dewey has not only won over school administrators and parents but has given his students increased confidence, maturity, and passion; the film ends with Dewey becoming a music tutor.

While such an ending makes for a heartfelt story, the lovable buffoon trope it

exemplifies is problematic. First, it closely mirrors the outsider/disruptor trope that anyone can be a teacher, especially those who act in ways that contradict the educational system. Second, the lovable buffoon's ability to shift the focus of school from developing students' content knowledge to other activities results in a film that is set in a school where "school" (e.g., learning science, social studies, mathematics, english, art, music, etc.) does not actually take place. In other words, we see school become a place in which activities other than traditional learning are the priority, with no (or very few) images of student learning taking place. This can be seen in other films and TV such as Mean Girls (2004), 10 Things I Hate About You (1999), or Glee (2009 – 2015) where the teachers are messy/chaotic and, while sometimes well intentioned, the students are mostly focused on anything but academics.

This focus away from academics and formal curriculum makes sense when thinking about movie audiences–who wants to watch 90 minutes of someone learning why "the limit does not exist!"? Further, there is a very real argument to be had over what content should be the focus of K-12 schooling–does every student need to learn geometry? However, we must also consider the broader message it sends about teaching and school. For example, is it tenable or effective for narratives set in school to have the central focus of the characters and plot be the place where students are taught the knowledge needed to be effective citizens, skilled workers, and/or change their social position? Or is more tenable or effective to produce narratives about teachers who use the setting of school as an extension of their personal lives (e.g., winning a battle of the bands in School of Rock or writing a novel in 10 Things I Hate About You) instead of teaching students, who in turn prioritize extracurricular activities (e.g., music in Glee) or schemes about their social lives (e.g., romantic relationships, navigating friendships)? The images in film and TV suggest the latter, and together support a broader narrative that the K-12 education system is broken and teachers are part of the problem. Further, if these types of narratives are consumed enough, it is reasonable to see how we, as educators, and the broader public could become skeptical of teachers' knowledge, their professionalism, and even the importance of K-12 education in general. In turn, this skepticism can impact public attitudes towards things like proposed increases to teachers' salaries, union protections, or the use of standardized testing to measure teacher effectiveness.

It is important to note that the villain trope, which has been present in film and TV for decades, also contributes to this problematic narrative. The images of Mr. Rooney in Ferris Bueller's Day Off (1986), Mr. Hand in Fast Times and Ridgemont High (1982), Mr. Vernon in The Breakfast Club (1985), or Sue Sylvester in Glee (2009-2015), portray individuals who do not find joy in their work and appear to consider their relationship with students to be confrontational. As with the lovable buffoon, movie and TV viewers are left to question the professionalism and quality of instruction teachers can provide.

This problematic narrative has unfortunately continued to persist: in Bad Teacher (2011), Cameron Diaz plays a woman who hates teaching and only becomes a teacher after a divorce leaves her in need of money; Fist Fight (2017) focuses on two teachers getting into a physical altercation on the last day of school; teachers in Disney's Girl Meets World (2014-2017) and Jessie (2011-2015) complain about being underpaid,

vocally dislike their jobs, and are often the butt of a joke (Attick, 2016). However, the 2010's also brought a glimmer of hope as some TV and film began to take aim at other players in K-12 education and even portray teachers in a positive light.

For example, the main character of the sit-com New Girl (2011-2018) is Jessica Day, a trained teacher who cares for her students and is often trying to pull together meaningful learning opportunities for her students. Barriers to those opportunities are not her own buffoonery or problematic students, but issues within the broader educational system such the connection of school funding to agendas of local politicians or the impact of funding on students' access to technology and the ability to conduct field trips. To be fair, supporting characters do include teacher colleagues who reflect the buffoon and villain tropes; as a comedy, the show certainly has buffoonery. However, the silliness and chaos are part of the quirkiness of the character rather than a detriment to students.

Taking a different approach, a Comedy Central sketch by Keegan- Michael Key and Jordan Peele from 2015 takes aim at the K-12 education system by conducting a teacher draft (Teaching Center, 2015; see references and chapter activity for link)).

Activity:

1. Watch the Teaching Center comedy sketch by Key and Peele discussed above: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dkHqPFbxmOU&t=1s. Consider the following questions:
2. How is this portrayal of teachers different from those seen in tv and movies?
3. Why do you think this parody was presented as a sports draft?
4. If this was really how teachers were treated, what would the impact be on K-12 schools?

A parody of the NFL draft, the sketch shows an alternate reality in which the neediest schools receive the highest quality educators; in addition, the teachers drafted to these schools are paid millions and receive lucrative endorsement deals. In reality, professional athletes are the ones who receive this treatment while many low-performing schools struggle to find qualified educators (Podolsky et al., 2016) while teacher salaries continue to decline (Walker, 2023). When commenting on a "highlight" video of a high school social studies teacher calling on a student during a discussion, one commentator notes, "See what she did there? She's bringing an introvert into the discussion, ya'll. That's a teacher of the year play, right there." Another commentator adds, "You know, the confidence gained by [that student] by answering that question correctly will enhance his performance throughout the rest of the year." This explicit recognition of real instructional strategies that teachers use to engage students is a sharp contrast to the silly or tyrannical methods shown in past media. Overall, this sketch is a clear critique of how our society treats those responsible for educating our nation's youth in comparison to those who provide entertainment.

Up until now, most examples in this chapter have centered on White teachers. Throughout the decades, there have been some educators of color in TV and film, but

these numbers are limited (in part due to issues of representation in media). Such films include To Sir, with Love (1967), the aforementioned Stand and Deliver (1988), and Lean on Me (1989). While these films portray teachers of color as caring and capable, they often tell the story of real individuals (e.g., Stand and Deliver is based on the true story of high school math teacher Jaime Escalante). More importantly, these are teachers who uphold the status quo (Beyerbach, 2005), helping students be successful in the current educational system rather than work to bring about an educational system that is more equitable and socially just.

The TV series Abbott Elementary (2021-current) may be considered a recent, and notable, step in how teachers are portrayed in popular media. The show follows a group of mostly Black educators as they navigate the Philadelphia public school system (the show is shot as a mockumentary like The Office). The focus on a diverse group of educators is a significant shift. What makes it more notable is that a primary source of conflict is the educational system (e.g., inept administrators, limited funding, insufficient district professional development; Principal Ava is... Not quite helpful, 202) rather than the teachers. In fact, conflict resolution usually occurs when the teachers come together in solidarity to support one another. For example, in the clip cited above (see reference and chapter activity for link) Janine is unable to get her classroom rug replaced by the district when her principal spends the allocated funds on a new school sign. In the end, her colleague Melissa gets new rugs through a "friend" outside of school. Here we see some buffoonery as it is implied that Melissa's "friend" works construction and stole the rug from his job renovating the Philadelphia Eagles stadium, but as with New Girl the buffoonery is part of a character's comedic quirkiness and not a detriment to the students.

Activity:

1. Watch the following clips from Abbott Elementary. Describe how the teachers and administrators are portrayed in these clips.
2. Principal Ava is... not quite helpful: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PqWuTK6JkUs
3. Barbara and Melissa give Gregory teaching advice: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_RObnudYWk8&list=PLRy6W5nz84Qbg7JndWxc5pV4PoWFLzgBt&index=4&t=1s
4. Compare and contrast this portrayal of teachers and administrators to those previously discussed in the chapter. Come up with at least two similarities and two differences.

The theme of teachers helping teachers is a constant throughout Abbott Elementary. Another example can be seen when teachers Barbara and Melissa offer advice to Gregory who is struggling to teach math. What is notable about this clip is that not only do Barbara and Melissa help Gregory, but they do so without placing blame on students or advocating for lecture-based instructional methods; they position students from an asset-based perspective by explaining the importance, and sensibility,

of what students think and offering ways to make learning more fun. Thinking back to how teacher-student relationships were portrayed as confrontation in past media, this is a stark contrast.

Abbott Elementary also takes on other issues in K-12 education. Explicit conversations about teacher Jacob's identity as a "woke," gay, White male teacher in a predominantly Black school acknowledge the reality of white savior-ism. A gifted and talented program leads to discussions of how tracking negatively impacts student identities and classroom dynamics. Efforts to turn Abbott and nearby schools into charter schools reveal why charter schools are not the magical solution they are often portrayed to be legacy media and political discourse; charter schools are not legally required to accept all students, often employ uncertified teachers, and are funded with dollars that would otherwise go towards public schools.

Overall, the message from Abbott Elementary is that the K-12 education system is far from perfect but that teachers are not to blame. Instead, teachers are often fighting an uphill battle against issues that can only be addressed at the systemic, or even legislative, level. It is no surprise that teachers reportedly "feel seen" by Abbott Elementary (Juhasz, 2023). We, as educators, look forward to seeing more narratives about schools, teachers, and students that challenge or subvert the harmful narratives of teachers and youth depicted by popular media in the past.

WHY THIS MATTERS

This chapter is grounded in the idea that the media helps construct cultural narratives and beliefs about teachers and teaching and these narratives shape how we see ourselves as teachers and our students. But why is it important that you develop this critical lens and view media differently? First, as this chapter has shown, learning more about the dominant narratives found within media allows you to view media through a different, more critical lens. That is, we, as educators and critical consumers of media, need to see media as not just entertainment, but also think about the message it sends about those it portrays. We encourage you to watch any of the different TV shows or movies discussed throughout this chapter to "see" the different narratives we discussed (that's right – you college textbook is telling you to go watch TV and movies!). You may be surprised at the new things you now notice. Second, you can use this lens to critically reflect on your own beliefs about teachers and teaching. Such reflection will allow you to think about how your actions as a (future) teacher push back on, or perpetuate, the problematic narratives discussed here. And finally, it can help prepare you for how others who are not educators, but consume such popular media, may view you once you become a teacher. It will not make it less frustrating when someone downplays the amount of time and effort it takes for you to prepare an engaging lesson, for example, but at least you will know such a view has been shaped by decades of media.

POST-READING ACTIVITIES AND CONSOLIDATING UNDERSTANDING:

1. Watch a movie that, at least partially, takes place in a school. Identify the teacher trope(s) you see, including the evidence you used to make your identification, and what message(s) about teaching, school, and students the movie is sending. Analyses can be shared as an argumentative essay or presentation.
2. A key argument of this chapter is that images in the media shape our understanding of teaching, school, and students. For this activity, go interview three people and ask them what they think about teachers and K-12 education. Then ask them what movie/TV teachers are memorable to them and why. Reflect on any themes, connections, or other notable findings from your interview.
3. Teaching is not like it is in film and television as this chapter argues. There are many steps to becoming a licensed, professional teacher. The following list outlines the requisite steps necessary to become a certified teacher in the state of New York, however the steps are not in chronological order. Research the requirements one needs to obtain your initial teaching license and put these steps in chronological order. Different states have different requirements for teacher licensure. However, the steps in Appendix A are very similar to other states' pathways to becoming a teacher. After reorganizing the steps chronologically, map out your own progress in becoming a teacher as many of these requirements begin very early in your teacher education program. In class facilitators may use this outline as an in-class collaborative remixing or jigsaw discussion activity. The answer key is located as an appendix at the at of the chapter.

Steps to Obtaining New York State Professional Teaching License

1. Complete and log your professional development hours yearly on TEACH; this is needed for recertification.
2. Complete all three workshops: SAVE, Mandated Child Abuse Training and DASA.
3. Meet all of your non-degree requirements (such as maintaining a 3.0 average in your education classes).
4. Be recommended for certification by your college.
5. Successfully complete student or clinical teaching.
6. Find and apply to a master's degree program that will lead to professional certification in your area of initial certification.
7. Ask for and collect good letters of recommendation from your cooperating teachers and supervisors.
8. Complete all degree requirements and apply to graduate.
9. Apply to graduate and obtain your master's degree within 5 years.
10. Complete the master's degree program successfully.
11. Apply to and get accepted to a college with an accredited education program.
12. Complete three years of teaching successfully.
13. Apply for initial certification through NYSED – TEACH.

14. Complete at least 100 hours of early field experience.
15. Interview and secure a job in your area of certification.
16. Apply for Professional Certification through NYSED-TEACH.
17. Successfully complete TPA assignment during student teaching.
18. Pass all certification exams (CST & EAS).
19. Complete the fingerprinting process.
20. Take and pass all the general education requirements as stated by your college.
21. Graduate with your bachelor's degree.
22. Apply for a job in your area of certification.
23. Complete all of the coursework required by your education program, including pedagogy, educational psychology, literacy and methods.
24. Create a TEACH account at NYSED

GLOSSARY

Asset-Based Perspective: A way of viewing students through their strengths and the funds of knowledge learned in their communities that they bring into the classroom. These funds of knowledge are seen as positive assets. This perspective contrasts a deficit perspective of students.

Deficit Perspective: A way of viewing students, typically from historically marginalized communities, as solely responsible for the challenges they experience in education. This perspective blames the student, parenting, and upbringing rather than the oppressive structures and policies that created these challenges in the first place. Teachers who say, "my students can't do this or that, because they need these remedial skills first," or "there families just don't value education," are complicit and replicate a deficit perspective upon their students.

Extrinsic Reward: A tangible, external reward visible to others. These rewards can be material like food (candy) or immaterial like stickers.

Frame: The way a communicator constructs and communicates a message in order to highlight, obscure, or hide some aspects of the message over others.

Hidden Curriculum: Unwritten lessons, values, prejudice, or perspectives on students and learning created in the formal curriculum.

Hegemony: The systematic maintenance of oppression of a group or groups of people over another for the purposes of exerting dominance–ideologically, socially, politically, or economically.

Neoliberal(ism): A political and economic ideology that advocates for deregulation of the free market. It advocates for privatization of the public commons, like schools or

other public infrastructures, because it assumes that privatization is more economically efficient than nationally or locally run public entities.

Trope: A figurative use of a word, expression, or convention that is nonliteral and connects to more abstract concepts or ideas. Metaphors and similes are types of tropes.

FIGURES

Roland Barthes by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International

Mike Rose by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International

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2

Towards a Philosophy of Education

Thor Gibbins

"The original Greek idea of pedagogy has associated with it the meaning of leading in the sense of accompanying the child…in such a way as to provide direction and care for his or her life.

Thus, from an etymological point of view, a pedagogue is a man or woman who stands in a caring relation to children: In the idea of leading or guiding there is a 'taking by the hand,' in the sense of watchful encouragements, 'Here, take my hand!' 'Come, I shall show you the world. The way into the world, my world and yours. I know something about being a child, because I have been there, where you are now, I was young once…Leading means going first, and in going first, you can trust me, for I have tested the ice. I have lived. I know something of the rewards and trappings of growing towards adulthood and making a world for yourself. Although my going first is no guarantee of success for you (because the world is not without risks and dangers), in the pedagogical relationship there is a more fundamental guarantee: No matter what, I am here. And you can count on me.'"

-The Tact of Teaching: The Meaning of Pedagogical Thoughtfulness by Max van Manen

Before We Read

Carefully read the above quote by pedagogical philosopher Max van Manen. In this statement, what is van Manen's concept of how children learn? What is the relationship between student, teacher, and the world? What is required of the teacher within this educational philosophy?

Critical Question For Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: What is learning? How do students learn? How do we know students have learned? What are the relationships between the construction of knowledge (learning), students, teachers, and the world, or community?

RESTORYING PHILOSOPHY: AN INTRODUCTION

Most chapters on philosophies of education usually start with a short overview of Western philosophy beginning with Plato and Aristotle which highly valued these two philosophers as the central figures of philosophy and are foundational to any western “civilization” grounded on **idealism** (Plato) and **realism** (Aristotle). However, this worldview is misguided and shortsighted. Rather than outline all the philosophical movements of western philosophy and connect these philosophies on the how and why of learning, this chapter decenters the typical outline. This chapter seeks to frame education from a non-western philosophy while making connections to how this different perspective might allow us to revise our own understanding of teaching and learning that has been shaped by our own internalized **Eurocentric** worldview. A view of learning atomized and disconnected from the material world. This is not an attempt to co-opt and romanticize a non-western perspective; it is, however, a way to help untangle an internalized worldview of learning that may help young people and the educators tasked with teaching them a more effective way at solving myriad crises that an atomized worldview of teaching and learning that is incapable of solving.

Philosophy from a Western perspective begins with the individual as the singularity; whereas, according to philosopher Viola Cordova (2007) non-western philosophies tend to proffer the world, place (Figure 2.1) in particular, as the **primordial** locus from which human beings emerge. There is no singular “starting” point emanating from a single individual, but, rather, a group of people–a “we”–is tethered to a particular place in the world. Because we have to breathe air, eat food, and drink water in order to survive, we cannot remove ourselves from the material world that gives us sustenance to live. Therefore, the material world and place should serve as the base for how we, as educators, develop a philosophy of education. Places and communities are what build and sustain schools. This is not limited to primarily geographic features of the place, but the social world as well. Therefore, the relationship between the ecology, economy, and social relations within the community undergird the school, teachers, staff, and students. There is a web of relationships within this connected place that should not be furcated into separate entities which isolate and remove individuals from their connected community. Embedding education within a world, a philosophy of education orients itself toward the “how” of education rather than the “what” of education: How do we (re)connect ourselves and our students to the material world where our students are no longer alienated individuals who become more isolated from each other? How might we see ourselves as a part of a greater whole, which, as Cordova points out, does not lead to a sense of ourselves as anonymous to the whole, but rather a greater sense of ourselves as responsible human beings? In this manner, “one is never anonymous.. [we] must be responsible for ourselves and to others” (p.157). This framework offers a possibility on how we, as educators, may develop a philosophy of education. This chapter restories a philosophy of education embedded in the material world consisting of diverse geographies, people, languages, communities, and public hubs connecting members of the community with each other. From this world, place, and community, this chapter

Idealism
Greek philosopher Plato asserted there is a transcendental of absolute and unchanging ideas that form a higher reality than the material reality of our experience. These ideas (tables, chairs, strawberries) have immutable essences within the ideal, higher reality

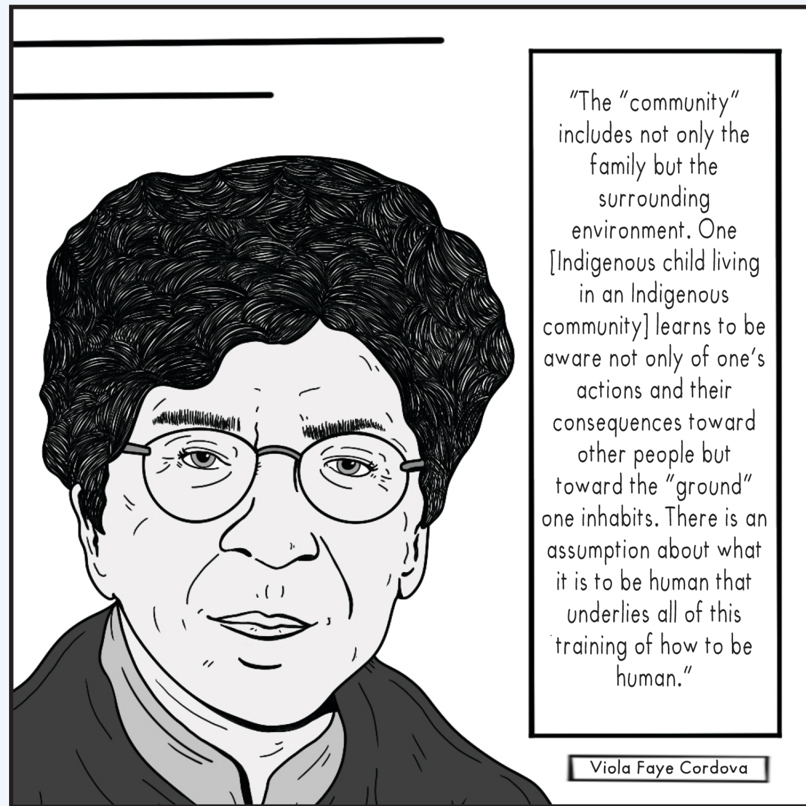
Realism
Greek philosopher Aristotle asserted that the universal is embedded within the particular. Therefore, we should study the form and particulars of the things (beauty, chairs, strawberries) and their relationships as they are in reality. The essence of each form (table, chair, strawberry) exists within that particular thing (table, chair, strawberry) rather than a separate, higher reality.

Eurocentric
a biased worldview that asserts the supremacy of philosophy, science, art, and culture that originated from Western Europe. Within this worldview, people from European descent are positioned as superior to non-Western cultures.

Primordial
Something that is foundational or primary to existence.

moves to then connect to theoretical paradigms of education framed within the social and connected world: social constructionism and social constructivism.

MEET THE THEORISTS



Viola Cordova was Native American philosopher who focused on the knowledge (epistemological) and language (semiotic) systems across North America in relation to the trauma of European colonization in order to reveal how Native American systems derive from place.

Discussion Activity

The central premise of Cordova's philosophy is grounded in place. With a partner(s), have a conversation about how place and community shape the ways you talk, act, and behave. Did you ever see yourselves as a part of a larger community where you held and shared responsibility for the place and each member of the community?

RECONNECTING OURSELVES TO THE WORLD, PLACE, AND COMMUNITY

Cordova (2007) connects her philosophical description of the world with the **Sapir-Whorf hypothesis** which asserts the concept of linguistic relativity where the structure of a language shapes the worldview of the group of people who share a common language. European languages are dependent on static nouns, which are fixed in relation with each other. This results in a worldview based on interpreting the world through cause and effect. For example, in English, a sentence requires a subject (a noun or noun phrase) and a predicate that can be reflexive and add meaning to the subject: "I am happy." Or, a predicate can create a relationship between a subject (noun or noun phrase) and an object (a noun or noun phrase): "I opened the book." In contrast, Cordova points out how the Hopi "developed a language largely dominated by verbs" (p.101) much like many other American Indigenous languages. This results in a language that shapes a worldview of continual motion and change. Cordova employs the central metaphor of wind to describe this continual motion and change where there always has been something rather than nothing:

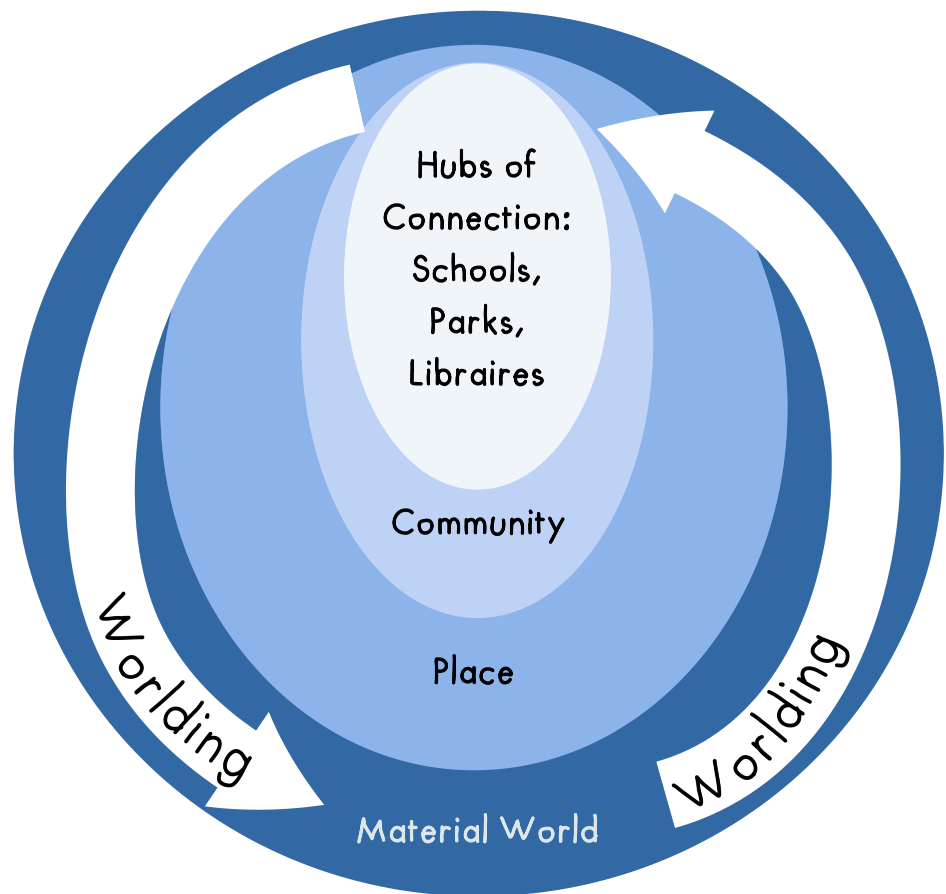
> Just as the foundational thought of Western societies is the idea that "once there was nothing and then something was brought into existence," the indigenous Americans believe that "something" always has been and manifests into the many diverse things in the world. Each thing is, in a sense, a "part" of the greater whole. Diversity is its hallmark. (p. 104)

People, then, are embedded in a world in continual change with diverse geographical places, which share a uniquely diverse relationship with the world where "each group is seen as essential to the place in which they find themselves" (p.146). People "are not…'meaningless things' in a 'meaningless world. They fit in a particular place for a particular reason" (p. 146). To be unattached to the world, then, is to be alien and merely "humanoid." If we are to develop a sense of seeing our primordial attachment to the world and place, we need to see ourselves as unique individuals as always a part of something greater– a family, a community, a place, a world. We are no longer anonymous individuals removing ourselves from place and community out of fear of ourselves becoming "'submerged' into an anonymous 'mass'" (p. 147). We are emplaced and located in a larger whole–which offers us a sense of belonging. This is **worlding** (See figure 2.1).

Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis
A theory of linguistic relativity where the structure of language influences the speakers' cognition and perception of the world. The 2016 Oscar-nominated science-fiction film Arrival showcases this theory as its central premise.

Worlding
A term created from filmmaker and phenomenologist Terence Malik to indicate that we (human beings) are intrinsically embedded with each other and place. This verb form of world is to emphasize the process of the ways humans construct meaning with and in a reality with others and thus, worlds become revealed. These worlds are unique to a particular place, community, and time.

Educators must be aware of their relationship with their community, place, and world to create a sense of belonging for ourselves and for our students.



A philosophy for educators, then, is to assist us in revealing our sense of belonging to a world greater than ourselves for our students. A world where our unique emplacement in geography, languages, and cultures construct diverse communities of people rather than a singularity centered on the abstract concept of human. A concept constructed by eurocentric framing which posits the "ideal" human as an abstract, platonic universal resembling a northern European male (Cordova, 2007). The essence of a connected pedagogy which reveals and worlds a sense of belonging and invites us, as educators, to comport our belonging and lead students in three determinations about the world we live in:

1. First, we (teachers and students emplaced in a unique community) should learn to define and describe the world and our unique place and relationship with the world.
2. Second, we should determine what it means to be human in the world as it relates to our definitions and descriptions; and, third, we should attempt to outline our role within the world.
3. Third, once we develop these determinations about our relationships with our community, place, and world, we can begin to describe the constant, continual process of how we socially construct and conceptualize our world.

THE SOCIAL WORLD: SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM AND SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM

The central metaphor of *rugged individualism* that guides how many in the United States conceptualize themselves in relation with others and the world is antithetical to the material reality of human beings according to Cordova (2007). We are social creatures who have developed socially and through community. It is very difficult for a lone individual to survive in the world without the collaboration and cooperation with others in a community. Take all those survival shows on television that showcase the enormous difficulties involving finding the essential resources to survive: food, water, shelter. Even the most skilled survivalist proficient in hunting and designing shelter has much difficulty surviving as a rugged individual for more than a few months. Moreover, the psychological toll of isolation is traumatic. We are social creatures who need each other to not only survive, but thrive within our world. As such, we develop our social languages which then construct our worldview; and thus, we socially construct our concepts, beliefs, and values as cultural artifacts within our relationship with our world, place, and community. This is the central premise of **social constructionism**. In addition, since we are inherently social creatures, we think and learn through our embedded relationships with others in our world, place, and community. This is the central premise of **social constructivism**. These two paradigms have shaped how educational theorists and philosophers conceptualize pedagogy that has been shaped over the last hundred years.

Social Constructionism
A theory of knowledge that posits that all concepts and ideas are socially constructed and cannot be distilled that separates the material concepts and ideas in an external reality from the social world of language and human interaction.

Social Constructivism
A theory of knowledge that asserts the social world shapes how an individual's cognition.

Social Constructionism: Between the Real and the Ideal

Within the philosophical spectrum that separates Western philosophy between *realism* on one side and *idealism* on the other, the central premise of social constructionism connects an objective reality separate from human beings (realism) and abstract forms and ideas existing in a non-physical, timeless universe beyond our physical reality (idealism). Like Cordova's (2007) philosophical worldview, social constructionism positions human beings within a universe where everything we come to know and conceive about the world is interpreted through our embodied interaction with each other and the world. Unlike Cordova's worldview, however, just as other philosophical paradigms stemming from Western philosophies, social constructionism removes the world as primordial to our lived experience and existence. Social constructionism places the singular human as the central authority that exercises agency to interpret and rule over the physical world. Social constructionism can help reveal how we socially construct our conceptual understanding of our physical reality; however, we should foreground our own embedded relationship with the world as we develop and transform our understanding of the world.

Ethics of Care
A philosophical worldview where the concern and care for others, especially others who may be more vulnerable like children or people in need of medical treatment, is primary in relation with other beings. Philosopher of education and ethics Nel Noddings emphasizes that an ethics of Care requires we must move beyond wanting to act to help others towards acting because we must help others.

Social constructionism asserts that our conceptual understanding of the world is interpretive through language and other semiotic (meaning-making) systems and, therefore, is socially constructed. Cordova (2007) points out that before the violence and exploitation of colonialism, people identified their sense of belonging and membership within a community according to their geographic location, common language and dialect. For example, our current conceptions of race and racial categories are social constructs that have no reference to an external objective reality. For example, whiteness as a racial category did not exist as a concept until there became a social need to justify European colonialism and chattel slavery as means of extracting resources from the colonized worlds. At our primordial level as beings in a world, we recognize the humanity and sentience of other human beings, which is, at its essence, an **Ethics of Care** for and with another human being (Levinas,1998). Therefore, for an economic system as cruel and inhumane as colonialism and slavery to sustain itself without mass revolution and resistance, a socially constructed racial caste system is required to justify these practices. This acts as a vehicle of control by the few over the masses. Within this system, an "in-group" is constructed and becomes socially accepted as "civilized" who may have some limited access to privilege and leisure; this "in-group" construction requires a perceived Other, or "outsider," who becomes framed as "savage" or "barbaric." Other people are now seen as less than human by those in the "in-group." Whiteness as a social concept continues to be redefined and constructed. For example, the Irish were not seen as "white" by the socially constructed "in-group" already marked by whiteness until the mid-20th century. Moreover, a racialized Other may receive "honorary" membership within the "in-group" within certain social circumstances. Black feminist theorist and sociologist Patricia Hill Collins (2009) recounts how she received honorary whiteness on a tour of apartheid South Africa. Collins also points out that individuals who may be initially marked white by the larger society may receive honorary Blackness. This honorary membership occurs either by explicit transgressions against "in-group" rules and norms or by growing up, living, and demonstrating solidarity within communities of color. If there was any external realism or biologically determined essence of race, these amorphous transformations of whiteness tied to specific historical and geographic contexts would not be possible.

Not only do we continually construct and reconstruct concepts like race, we also socially shape our attitudes and beliefs toward these concepts. For example, take how the media frames our perceptions of poverty and those experiencing the trauma of poverty. Rather than framing those living in poverty with empathy and care, the media (news, film, television, and social media) constructs a narrative of those living in poverty as "lazy" or "mentally ill." Therefore, we, as a society, can justify ignoring their trauma because they "chose" to live in poverty where they continually live in constant insecurity: safety, food, and housing. If we were to see their humanity and their belonging in our community, we would then have to critically analyze an economic system that creates and depends on poverty to sustain itself. As Cordova (2007) points out, we need to develop our determined role of how to be human in our world. We cannot care for our place and community if we ignore invisible others in our place and community. The continual constructed invisibility of those living in poverty is not sustainable because it

ignores the systematic structures that erode, disconnect, and alienate ourselves from our world, place, and community.

We, as educators, should critically examine our own attitudes and beliefs not only about broader social issues like poverty, but our attitudes toward content and curriculum. One example is teachers' attitudes toward reading and writing. There is substantive research over several decades that reveal teachers' own attitudes about reading affect their students' own attitudes and motivation for reading (Brophy, 1986; Nathanson, Pruslow, & Levitt, 2008; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Sweet, Guthrie, & Ng, 1998). This means that if a teacher has negative attitudes toward reading or writing, these negative attitudes will instill negative attitudes toward reading and writing in their students. Research (Aguirre & Spencer, 1999; Beswick, 2007; Borko, Peressini, Romagno, et al., 2000; Conner & Singletary, 2021) has also shown a similar phenomena in mathematics education. These studies found how math teachers' beliefs about teaching and doing math impacted their instruction, which included the teachers' goals and the types of teaching strategies they used. Our own attitudes toward certain content disciplines have already been shaped by our own shared experiences as students with our previous teachers and classmates. Our attitude toward the content we plan to teach has been socially constructed. Therefore, we need to critically examine these attitudes and beliefs before we can begin articulating our own philosophy on teaching and learning.

Social Constructivism

While social constructionism describes how we conceptualize and define our world through social interaction and relation, social constructivism focuses on how our own cognition through thought and language is inherently social. Seminal scholar and psychologist Lev Vygotsky developed a theory about thought and language that would evolve into how we define social constructivism as a theory of knowledge. Vygotsky (1986) asserts that our development of speech and thought (our interior monologue) does not develop from our individualized minds and move outwardly into the world; rather, the social world, which includes language and norms and rules associated from a particular culture, moves from the social world toward the individual child which manifests first as expressive speech and then becomes internalized as interior monologue known as the "ingrowth" stage. All learning, then, stems from an external social world that gradually becomes internalized by an individual child. In developing this theory of knowledge, Vygotsky posits that through this social learning action, there is a **Zone of Proximal Development** (ZPD), where a child is able to learn by completing a task with much support from a more experienced learner–either a teacher or peer tutor. Supportive scaffolds are gradually removed to the point where the child can complete the task independently without these supports. If a child cannot complete the task with maximum support, then that learning task is beyond the child's ZPD and that learning task needs to be placed on hold by the teacher until the child has developed and grown to the point where the child can complete the task with assistance or support. ZPD is foundational to educational learning theory and how most schools of education train teacher candidates in how to pre-assess students and plan instruction.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)
For every new skill, concept, or procedure brought to task upon the learner, there is a zone where the learner can first apply the skill, the concept, or procedure with maximum support from a more experienced learner. As the learner practices the skill, concept, or procedure over time the level of support is gradually reduced. This is done until the learner is able to complete the task independently without support or assistance from a more experienced learner.

Language Experience Approach
A method of teaching literacy that uses the students' own experiences and interactions with others and the world.

While teachers use ZPD in their instruction in myriad ways, one concrete example of how teachers use ZPD in classroom instruction can be seen in literacy instruction in the primary grades. A common method of instruction in early grades is **Language Experience Approach** (LEA). In LEA, teachers use a common, shared experience, e.g., a field trip, a book read aloud to the class, or other shared event, to lead students in writing about their shared experience. The teacher is the more experienced learner, or writer in this case, and probes student responses to help facilitate the teacher's writing on a large anchor sheet with students typically sitting together on a reading rug. The teacher can model spelling, spacing between words, and punctuation as the students assist the teacher with retelling the story of their shared experience. The teacher is the primary support or scaffold in assisting students who may not have the discrete literacy skills to write about the experience themselves. The students, also, support each other in the retelling as well. In this scenario, the entire lesson and actors (teacher and students) collaboratively create a ZPD to help develop literacy skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

MEET THE THEORISTS

Lev Vygotsky (1886-1934) was a Russian psychologist and seminal theorist in education. His scholarship was primarily ignored and unknown in the United States until the 1960s when his work Thinking and Speech, later to be retitled Thought

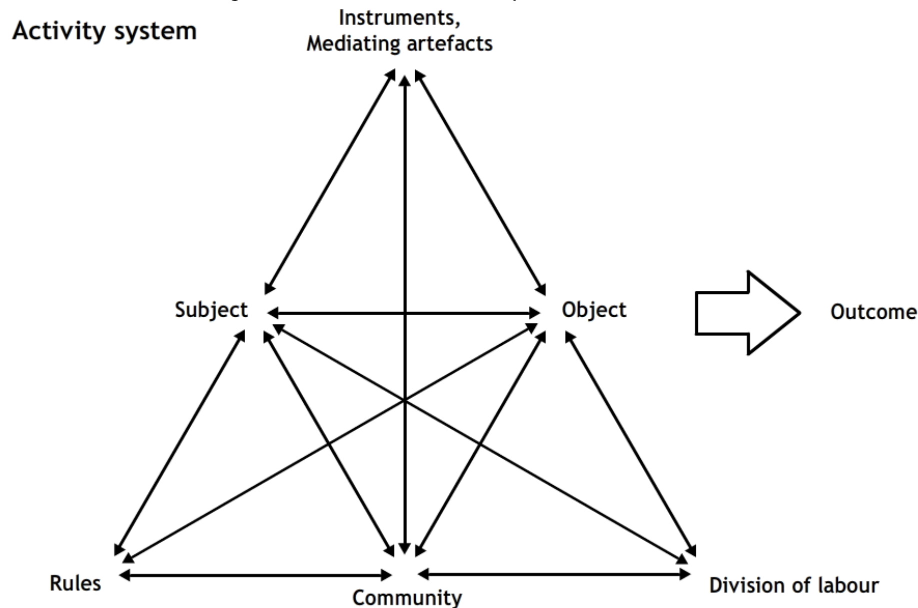
and Language, first became published in English and distributed outside of the Soviet Union.

Social constructivism frames learning as inherently a sociocultural interaction with an individual and culture, community, and world. The internalizing of thought and language, however, does not work as a one-way direction from the social to the world. We have agency and can exercise our agency shape and change our community and material world. The clearest example is how we shape our world through our use of tools–e.g., hammers, shovels, etc. Working from this paradigm of humans embedded in a larger sociocultural world, Vygotsky along with theories by his contemporaries Rubinstein and Leont'ev sociocultural theories of knowledge began to outline how we employ tools, including symbolic tools like language (and writing), to shape our world. Tools, including language, are foundational to social constructivist oriented pedagogies such as **activity theory** and **dialogism**.

Activity Theory
A theory of knowledge that places a learner(s) in an interconnected relationship within a system of tools, rules, and community.

Dialogism
A theory of language and learning that posits that all words and phrases are internalized and produced in the form of dialogue with other interlocutors.

Activity theory evolved as a theory of knowledge that describes how individuals use external tools and internalized tools within a web of interaction where artifacts shape the sociocultural world. Scandinavian learning theorist Yrjö Engeström (1987) expanded on the social constructivist frameworks developed by Vygotsky, Leont'ev, and others into a broader, more comprehensive theory of knowledge. Within Engeström's system of activities (Figure 2.2), a subject, or subjects, interact with tools or mediating artifacts, toward an object or goal that extends outward toward the world. Within this engagement, there are systemic rules, which can be scientific like the laws of physics or rules and norms determined by a larger community, that, then, affect how the subject interacts with the mediating tool or artifacts outwardly onto the world.



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How might *activity theory* look within a classroom setting? Take the previous example of using LEA in a primary-grade literacy lesson. In the LEA example, the teacher and students work together as subjects toward an outcome of formulating a written

retelling of a common experience (outcome). The object is the written draft on chart paper. The mediating tools and artifacts are the chart paper, markers, reading rug, the shared language(s) of the students and teacher, and any other mentor texts previously read or written as a class. There are rules of syntax, e.g., the rules governing how words form larger units like phrases or sentences, and genre which shape what type of writing the class drafts together. The classroom rules and norms established by the teacher and students create a community which shapes the interaction of the subjects as well as how the division of labor is distributed. In this case, the teacher takes responsibility as scribe and chief editor while the students take responsibility for the creative labor of providing the key details and important events of the retelling. Whenever we step inside a classroom, we can concretely observe and describe the teaching, learning, and knowledge building through Engeström's Activity System.

ACTIVITIES FOR GUIDING COMPREHENSION

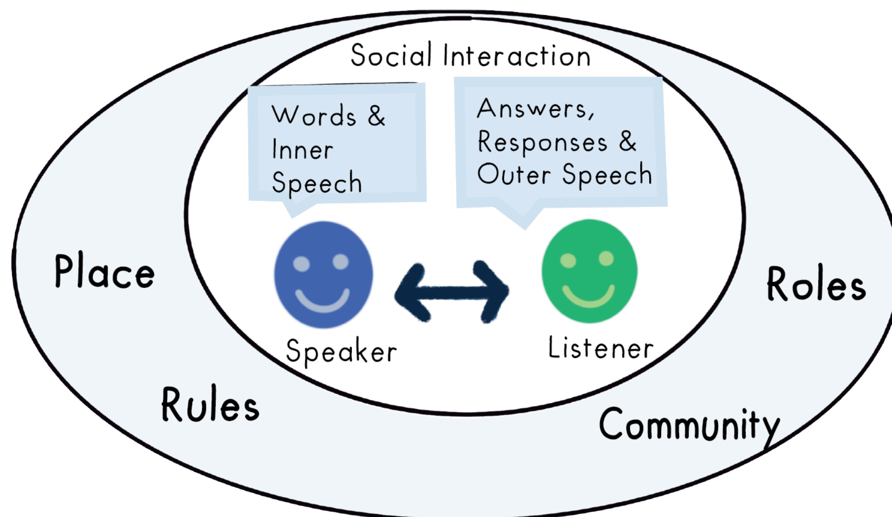
1. Observe a classroom lesson either in person or using an online video. Use Figure 2.2 and annotate Engeström's Activity System. Who are the subjects? What are the objects and outcome? What are the meditating tools and artifacts? What are the rules guiding the activity? In what ways does the community (classroom) shape interaction, rules, and labor? In what ways is the labor (physical and/or creative) distributed? Share your annotation with a small group or class.
2. Social constructivist theories of knowledge still remove the individual or individuals as separate from the world according to Cordova's philosophical worldview. Create a remixed visual artifact using the worlding Figure 2.1 as an overlay. Embed Engeström's Activity System (Figure 2.2) within the material world, place, and community. How do these systems emerge from the material world, place, and community? Annotate examples, draw and label connecting arrows to and from the systems and world layers to show the processes and transformations. Share your visual artifact with a small group or class. (Note: Instructors could model and use the ZPD by drafting a partial model of how they envision this artifact for the class. Remember, there are no correct or incorrect ways to create these visual artifacts. The learning goal is for all the learners to begin developing their own conceptual models of how philosophical worldviews shape theories of knowledge.)

Discourse
How language is used within a particular social context. For example, words, phrases, and gestures we might use in the context of a sporting event may not be acceptable in a more

Dialogism, another theory of knowledge that emerged from the same era and place as the sociocultural theories, has had considerable impact on teaching and learning. Russian philosopher and literary theorist Mikhail Bahktin (1982) introduced dialogism, or dialogue, as inherent within language and **discourse**. One utterance of speech should not be reduced to a single individualized *monologic* utterance devoid of the social context. One single act of speech contains the historical development of the words or phrases and has transformed over time in dialogue with other speakers past and present. A single utterance–even when alone–is inherently dialogical. For Bahktin, every utterance–spoken, written, or gestural– is embedded in a socio-historical world containing a past, the present, and possible futures. The world in which discourses

reverberate to make meaning are *dialogic* and *heteroglossic*. Dialogism asserts that within language and discourse, every utterance is always in a relationship with multiple voices and perspectives with unique histories and perspectives and come together in a dialogical relationship–or dialogue (Figure 2.3). Bakhtin (1984) asserts "dialogism is an almost universal phenomenon, permeating all human speech and all relationships and manifestations of human life" (p. 40). In addition to the dialogical relationship inherent in discourse, our language systems are heteroglossic in nature. Heteroglossia can be simply translated as "other-languagedness" (Vallath, 2020). What this means is that within any language, there exist traces of many different languages which have shaped the word, phrase, and denotative and connotative definition. For example, within any of the Englishes spoken around the world, there are traces of Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, German, Gaelic, and other world languages current and historical. Take, for example, the word story (narrative or tale) which contains traces of the Old French estorie that derived from Latin historia; therefore, story and history overlap and contain traces that affect each word's meaning. Whenever we utter a word or phrase, we utter a word or phrase that has a prior sociocultural history. This utterance also invites new possibilities we can reinvent for new meanings intended for new audiences. Take, for example, how young people have reinvented terms like "brat," "rizz" (truncated form of charisma), and "for the plot" in relation to their peers and connected youth cultures. Language and discourse is always in play; and this play is a social, collective dialogue with a past, present, and future.

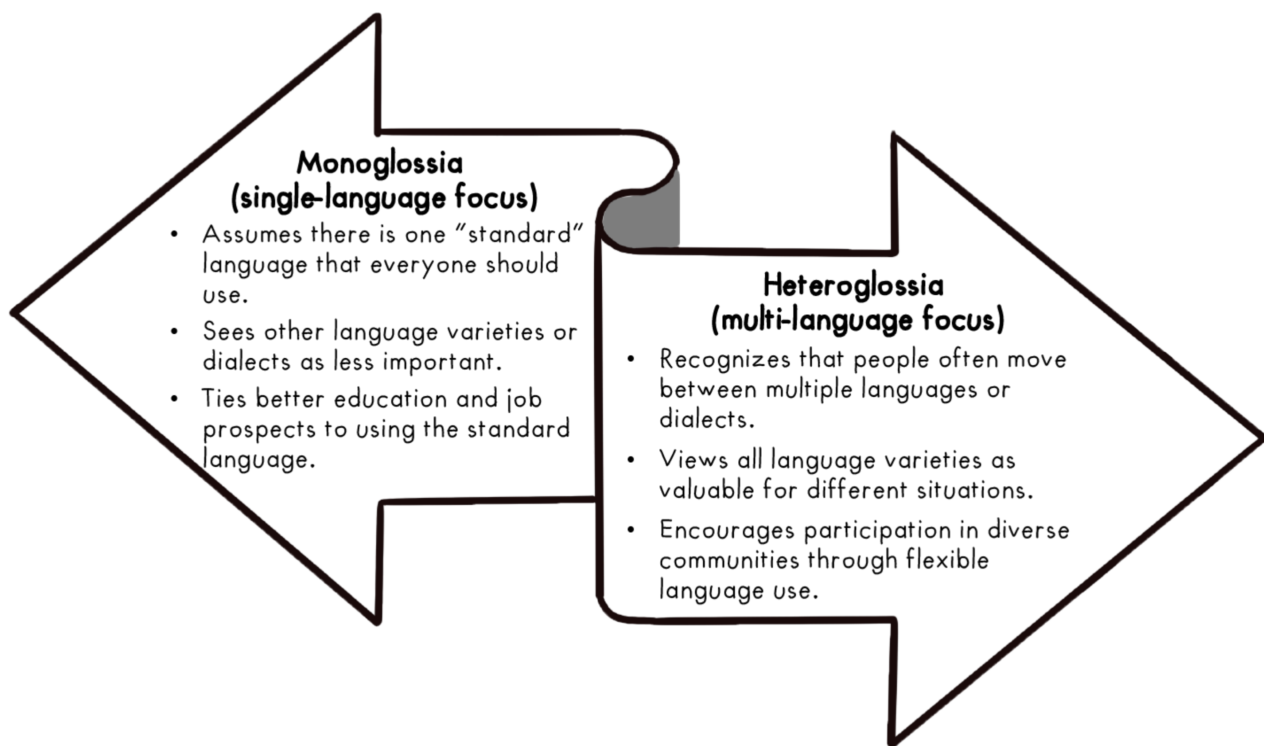
formal social context like an office or school classroom.



Mikhail Bakhtin's theory of Dialogism holds that meaning and understanding emerge through the ongoing interaction and interplay of multiple voices, perspectives, and contexts within discourse.

In what ways might we apply *dialogism* in our practice as educators? One study (Cohen, 2009) on the pretend play of preschoolers describes how children appropriate and assimilate each other's utterances in pretend play either playing alone, in parallel play, or with each other. In their play, children will adopt adult roles and discourse of their intended role. In play, children adopt roles like teachers, doctors, scientists and learn to develop their own conceptual understandings of the social knowledge and discourses these roles play in the community. Teachers can employ dialogism in their daily lessons and practices. Rather than relying on teacher-centered monologues and lectures,

teachers can shape their classroom community that supports dialogical interaction with all the learners (including the teacher as the more experienced learner) in the classroom community. There are many different types of discussion activities that allow students to assimilate and appropriate academic discourses in a variety of contents and grade levels. Activities such as *think-pair-share, save the last word*, and *ask the author* incorporate *dialogism* where they employ social constructivism as the underlying theory of knowledge of the learning activity. We, as educators, should always be clear in how our educational philosophy connects to the real craft of teaching in our classrooms. As pre-service teachers gain more conceptual understandings of pedagogy in coursework and field experience, pre-service teachers should start noticing and connecting the different types of learning activities with different teaching philosophies.



The Diagram illustrates a spectrum of language perspectives, from a single-language focus (monoglossia) to a multi-language approach (heteroglossia).

WORLDING PEDAGOGY: TURNING EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY INTO PRACTICE

For many, philosophy tends to be esoteric and difficult to connect the abstract with our real, material world and experience. Philosophy does, however, affect how we shape the purpose of schools as well as the practice of teaching and learning in classrooms. While developing from the western tradition, **pragmatism** has had considerable impact in shaping teaching, learning, and curriculum in the United States. In short, pragmatism asserts that our human lived experiences tied to a real, external material world shape how we construct knowledge and form truth claims. What counts as real or true are functional in terms of how we, as human beings, go about inquiry and our investigations of the world and cannot be disconnected from our own contexts as beings in a world. The maxims of pragmatism do parallel Cordova's (2007) non-western philosophical description of our relationship and belonging to and with the material world, place, and community. Philosopher John Dewey, whose work was grounded in pragmatism, transformed this philosophy into an educational philosophy that shaped the development of progressive education in the early 20th century. Dewey designed a **laboratory school** at the University of Chicago that connected this philosophy to a pedagogy of learning by doing. The University of Chicago Laboratory Schools and other laboratory schools like at the University of California at Los Angeles continue as of this day–which still connect the philosophical tradition of pragmatism with progressive and social constructivist theories of knowledge.

Pragmatism
A philosophy that asserts language and thought are used as tools to predict, solve problems, or engage in action instead as ways to describe, represent, or mimic external reality.

Laboratory School
A K-12 public school directly connected to a teaching college or university where teachers implement innovative pedagogies for the purposes of research and improving the best practices of teaching.

Critical pedagogy is another educational philosophy that explicitly connects philosophy and practice, which critical educators call praxis. Educational scholars like Paulo Friere, bell hooks, and Henry Giroux assert the primary purpose of education is liberatory in nature. Therefore, educators should allow students to engage in sustained inquiry in social, ecological, or economic issues in order for them to begin to describe the systems that create inequality, inequity, or ecological and economic harm in our communities. Once the students begin to describe these systems, they may begin to make changes to help solve these systemic problems. Critical literacy scholar Hillary Janks (2014) outlines one example of how teachers may apply critical pedagogy in their classrooms. In her commentary on application of critical literacy, Janks posits five moves teachers can move to implement critical literacy and critical pedagogy:

Critical Pedagogy
An orientation toward education that links the emancipatory concepts of critical theory to the teaching and learning goals for the students.

1. Make connections between something that is going on in the world and their students' lives, where the world can be as small as the classroom or as large as the international stage.
2. Consider that students will need to know and where they can find the information.
3. Explore how the problematic is instantiated in texts and practices by careful examination of design choices and people's behavior.
4. Examine who benefits and who is disadvantaged by imagining the social effects of what is going on and of its representation/s.

5. Imagine possibilities for making a positive difference (p. 305).

Janks describes how she worked with young people on the issue of water conservation and the problems associated with bottled water. In this project, she described how she helped guide students by naming and describing issues of water conservation. Within this naming and description, students began to focus on the consumption of bottled water as an issue for student activism. Janks and other teachers assisted students in how to find relevant, valid, and reliable information using online databases. The students then began to critically evaluate the design choices and effects of bottled water labels and how media advertises bottled water to consumers. The students then engaged in exploring the social and environmental consequences of drinking bottled water. For the final project, students designed and produced an anti-bottled water campaign as a form of subversive media to inform the broader public about the negative social, economic, and environmental consequences of consuming bottled water. Janks' five critical moves align considerably with Cordova's philosophical worldview (2007) in that we should learn to describe our relationship with our place and world and outline our roles as beings in relation to our world, place, and community.

The primary focus of this chapter has been to foreground the material world (land, air, water), the geography of place, the social world of community in developing an educational philosophy. Educational philosophies guide not only the types of learning activities teachers use in our classrooms, these philosophies also guide the curriculum schools use to develop a path for teaching and learning that span the different grade levels and development of young people. Another chapter describes these different types of curriculum in greater detail. However, as educational philosophies continue to transform, educational philosophy shapes the practice and craft of teaching. A philosophy grounded in the material world, place, and community allows teachers and educational theorists a chance to world a school and classroom where teachers and students have a sense of belonging to and with their community, place, and world.

POST-READING ACTIVITIES AND CONSOLIDATING UNDERSTANDING

Most teachers are required to write and articulate their philosophy of education. Therefore, it is prudent that you, as early-career educators, begin to develop a clear teaching philosophy that connects to how you will practice the craft of teaching in your classrooms. Many teachers use a guiding metaphor for teaching and learning to describe their educational philosophy (e.g., "teachers are gardeners"). Recall, however, that Cordova (2007) explains how a verb-centered language like the Hopi language shapes our perceptions of the world where transformation and change foreground experience with the world; this is in contrast to languages like English which fixate on static nouns to categorize the world. Rather than developing a guiding metaphor using static nouns like "gardener" or "conductor," use verbs that demonstrate the transformativeness of learning within a community. Write a list of as many verbs as you can that best describes the transformative nature of teaching

and learning. Draw and map these verbs on to a visual that captures place, community, school, and classroom with all the members of this learning community. Prepare to share your visual in groups or with the class. (Note: A Gallery Walk activity would be an excellent activity that showcases a dialogical learning activity.)

Choose another theory of knowledge derived from a Western perspective, e.g. behaviorism (Skinner), constructivism (Piaget), psychoanalytical (Freud or Jung), etc., and analyze the absence of place, community, and school. What might explain these absences? Discuss in a small group or as a whole class.

GLOSSARY

Activity Theory: A theory of knowledge that places a learner(s) in an interconnected relationship within a system of tools, rules, and community.

Critical Pedagogy: An orientation toward education that links the emancipatory concepts of critical theory to the teaching and learning goals for the students.

Dialogism: A theory of language and learning that posits that all words and phrases are internalized and produced in the form of dialogue with other interlocutors.

Discourse: How language is used within a particular social context. For example, words, phrases, and gestures we might use in the context of a sporting event may not be acceptable in a more formal social context like an office or school classroom.

Ethics of Care: A philosophical worldview where the concern and care for others, especially others who may be more vulnerable like children or people in need of medical treatment, is primary in relation with other beings. Philosopher of education and ethics Nel Noddings emphasizes that an ethics of Care requires we must move beyond wanting to act to help others towards acting because we must help others.

Eurocentric: a biased worldview that asserts the supremacy of philosophy, science, art, and culture that originated from Western Europe. Within this worldview, people from European descent are positioned as superior to non-Western cultures.

Idealism: Greek philosopher Plato asserted there is a transcendental of absolute and unchanging ideas that form a higher reality than the material reality of our experience. These ideas (tables, chairs, strawberries) have immutable essences within the ideal, higher reality.

Laboratory School: A K-12 public school directly connected to a teaching college or university where teachers implement innovative pedagogies for the purposes of research and improving the best practices of teaching.

Language Experience Approach: A method of teaching literacy that uses the students' own experiences and interactions with others and the world.

Primordial: Something that is foundational or primary to existence.

Pragmatism: A philosophy that asserts language and thought are used as tools to predict, solve problems, or engage in action instead as ways to describe, represent, or mimic external reality.

Realism: Greek philosopher Aristotle asserted that the universal is embedded within the particular. Therefore, we should study the form and particulars of the things (beauty, chairs, strawberries) and their relationships as they are in reality.

Social Constructionism: A theory of knowledge that posits that all concepts and ideas are socially constructed and cannot be distilled that separates the material concepts and ideas in an external reality from the social world of language and human interaction.

Social Constructivism: A theory of knowledge that asserts the social world shapes how an individual's cognition.

Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis: A theory of linguistic relativity where the structure of language influences the speakers' cognition and perception of the world. The 2016 Oscar-nominated science-fiction film Arrival showcases this theory as its central premise.

Worlding: A term created from filmmaker and phenomenologist Terence Malik to indicate that we (human beings) are intrinsically embedded with each other and place. This verb form of world is to emphasize the process of the ways humans construct meaning with and in a reality with others and thus, worlds become revealed. These worlds are unique to a particular place, community, and time.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD): For every new skill, concept, or procedure brought to task upon the learner, there is a zone where the learner can first apply the skill, the concept, or procedure with maximum support from a more experienced learner. As the learner practices the skill, concept, or procedure over time the level of support is gradually reduced. This is done until the learner is able to complete the task independently without support or assistance from a more experienced learner.

FIGURES

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3

Curriculum and the Purpose of Education

Ed Beck

Before We Read

Before reading, spend some time thinking about the different decisions that teachers make everyday as they plan their classes. The materials teachers choose, the way they organize a class, what is emphasized or not, and what choices are offered to the students all shape the student experience. To be an engaged teacher, it is important to build reflective practices and the habit of making informed and deliberate instructional choices. Think about your favorite experiences in school. What choices did the educators make that contributed to your experience?

Critical Questions for Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: What are the goals of education? How is the experience of the students impacted by what is written or missing into the curriculum? What hidden lessons are we teaching students? In what ways are we, as educators, shaping our schools and communities through our curricular and instructional choices?

INTRODUCTION TO CURRICULUM

A simple definition of **curriculum** would be the subjects and the course of study in a school or college. Curriculum and instruction is an entire sub-field of education. Definitions of curriculum vary. The differences in the definition of curriculum from educator to educator provide clues to the varying stances on education and what it means to be educated. For example, curriculum may refer to knowledge students are expected to have or may refer to certain skills or competencies students should be able to demonstrate.

Curriculum
The subjects, knowledge areas, and skills that students are expected to learn. The course of study.

Some educators describe the curriculum as a prescription, a series of interactions, lessons, and topics that ought to be included in an education. This is the most traditional definition of curriculum. A prescriptive curriculum would define bodies of knowledge and ways that it would be taught to students, serving as a master plan for teachers and administrators. For this group of educators, the curriculum is a series of experiences mapped across the students' journey of growth preparing them for their adult lives. The mandated and planned part of the curriculum is sometimes referred to as the **explicit curriculum**. The explicit or planned curriculum refers to the topics and standards covered by a class and perhaps the documents that align with the standards such as lesson plans, textbooks, and other teaching aids.

Explicit Curriculum
The planned part of the curriculum which includes the topics, standards, and learning materials used in a course of study. The word explicit is used to differentiate and contrast it from the hidden curriculum.

Hidden Curriculum
The lessons that arise from the culture of the school and the behaviors, attitudes, and expectations that characterize that culture.

An alternative way to look at curriculum is from the students' lived experiences. This more holistic view of curriculum would include the lessons taught to students both formally and informally. From the student viewpoint, there is more that is learned in school than the planned subject areas. The implicit or **hidden curriculum** refers to the lessons and values that are not explicitly taught, but are implied and inferred by the students from classroom and school culture. The hidden curriculum is taught to students often unconsciously through how instructors interact with students: types of behavior the teacher praises, rewards, admonishments, or classroom dynamics.

Explicit vs Hidden Curriculum

The hidden curriculum can have positive and negative effects on students' learning and development. Social skills, norms, and community values may be positive aspects learned at school. Schools teach our children how to behave in class and is the primary socialization for young people. Positive aspects of this might include social norms for dress, how to speak with authority or persuasively, and how to think critically.

However, the hidden curriculum can also affect students' academic performance and reinforce inequalities. The hidden curriculum can be the place where biases or prejudice are inadvertently passed on. The critical educator must constantly be evaluating their approaches to make sure that their practices align to their educational philosophy. The hidden curriculum is not easy to change, because it is unconscious, subtle, and pervasive. It can reinforce stereotypes and inequalities, and impact academic performance.

Paulo Freire and other critical theorists use the term **critical consciousness** to depict individuals' deep understanding of the world, the ability to identify political and social inequities, and their dedication to taking action against those systems. As an educator, having a critical consciousness means regularly inspecting your own practices, the materials you choose, and the way you structure your classes. An Educator must consider what message and lesson they send students.

Critical Consciousness
The ability to recognize and analyze systems of inequality and the commitment to take action against these systems

Imagine a newly certified Social Studies teacher teaching Global History. A Social Studies teacher is certified to teach all history from the beginning of time to the present day, plus other courses like economics, sociology, civics and government. While many civilizations are included in the curriculum as written by the state, this teacher notices the textbook is much more detailed about the Roman Empire than the Chinese

dynasties. Remembering their own History and Social Studies instruction, the educator feels they are at a disadvantage as well, because their own teachers didn't spend a lot of time covering the topics. While the new teacher has ideas and resources for how to add to a unit on Rome, they feel less prepared to teach about the cultures of Africa or Asia.

- While this story focuses on Social Studies, each certification area might have its own issues. What type of similar issues about content may come up in other classes?
- What message does it send to students if certain topics are given unequal time in the school year?
- Do you think that students know when a topic is their teachers favorite vs something the teacher feels they have to cover?
- What steps could you take to improve this situation?

WHAT'S THE HIDDEN CURRICULUM MEAN TO YOU?

As an education student you have had the experience of being a student and very soon you will be visiting classrooms as an observer. The hidden curriculum has important implications for the socialization of students, but also potential for inequalities.

The hidden curriculum can have different aspects, such as cultural expectations, gender inequalities, racial biases, class and social privileges, and other aspects. Reflect on your experience in school, interactions with instructors and other school staff, and in classes.

Consider when hidden messages are embedded into the way content is communicated or taught. In mathematics education, a traditional way of thinking prioritizes the learning and following of the instructors rules and procedures for a type of problem. Students may be expected to solve all problems of a particular type in a routine way. Students who follow the procedure, but get the problem wrong may even receive more points than students who got the right answer but did it a different way. What message may this instructor inadvertently be teaching their students about creativity?

As you consider these questions, think both about your own experiences and your future classroom.

- How does the hidden curriculum impact students' learning, attitude, and behavior?
- How does the hidden curriculum reinforce or challenge mainstream ideas and traditional power relationships?
- How can students and educators transform the hidden curriculum to promote more inclusive and equitable education?

THE PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

The purpose of education is a fundamental question that guides the design and implementation of educational programs. However, there is no single answer to the question of what the purpose of education is and what curriculum should be. In this chapter, we will explore three major categories of curriculum that reflect different emphases on the purpose of curriculum: the learner-centered curriculum, the society-centered curriculum, and the knowledge-centered curriculum.

> As you read these next sections, think about your definition of education. While it is practical to categorize educational approaches, remember that these emphases are not mutually exclusive or incompatible. In practice, educators adopt a combination or balance of approaches.

Learner Centered Curriculum

The central premise of the **learner-centered curriculum** entails designing instruction for the student's needs, interests, and abilities. By fostering student engagement, teachers hope to encourage more autonomy in students' own learning, developing their student's talents and potential.

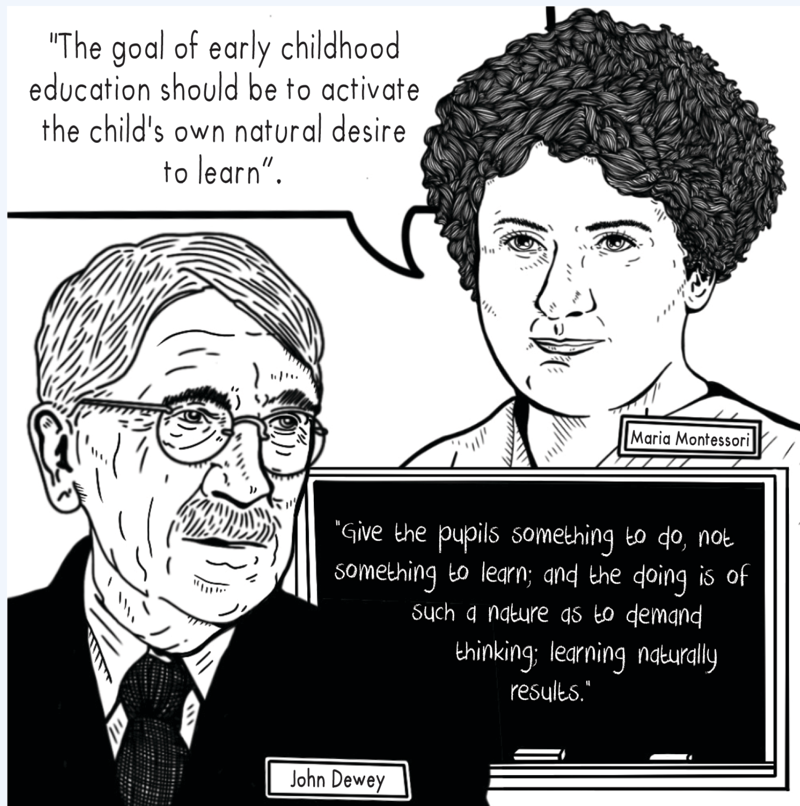
Learner-Centered Curriculum
An approach to curricular design where students interests determine the direction and design of the educational experience. Educators customize learning paths for individual students.

Doctrine of Interest
The belief that student interests should be the deciding factor about what to study.

Practitioners of the learner-centered curriculum work hard to individualize instruction, differentiate it to each student, allowing students to have choices in their learning. The learner centered curriculum values the diversity and uniqueness of each student and seeks to create a supportive and respectful learning environment.

One of the guiding principles of learner centered curriculum is the **doctrine of interest**. The doctrine of interest is the idea that students should study what they want to study. In this mindset, the curriculum is built based on the individual student's interest. Proponents of the doctrine of interest argue that forcing a student to learn what they aren't interested in is largely a waste of time. Critics contend that to truly embrace the doctrine of interest, the teacher must trust that the students have the ability to choose wisely what will benefit them the most in the future.

The role of the instructor in the learner centered classroom has multiple responsibilities. They must ensure a learning environment that anticipates students' needs, interests, and appropriately challenges their abilities. While providing autonomy in the learning process, the instructor needs to encourage active participation, promote collaboration, and suggest activities that balance the learners' interests.



Explore more:

Many educational psychologists and philosophers have contributed to the framework of the learner centered curriculum. Explore some of the educators that have contributed to this framework.

John Dewey

John Dewey was a major educational reformer and college professor in the early 1900s. He advocated for a progressive educational system. Dewey advocated for education to be a social and collaborative endeavor, with hands on and real-life applications.

Additional Resources on Dewey

[John Dewey: Portrait of a Progressive Thinker | The National Endowment for the Humanities (neh.gov)]

Maria Montessori

Maria Montessori was an Italian physician and educator. She advocated for a method of education prioritized respecting the individuality of children, independence, and stimulating curiosity.

Additional Resources on Montessori
[Maria Montessori – Quotes, Theories & Facts (biography.com)]

Montessori Education
Learner-Centered Curriculum in Practice

Montessori education is an example of a learner-centered curriculum. It is based on the idea that children are eager to learn. Students at Montessori schools can initiate and direct their own learning in a **prepared environment** that offers materials and activities based on a variety of interests. In Montessori education, the prepared environment refers to a learning space with educational activities at the ready which can be chosen and utilized by the students.

Prepared Environment
In Montessori Education, the prepared environment is a classroom with materials and manipulatives that the students can see, select, reach themselves, and begin to explore.

Montessori education emphasizes hands-on learning and real-world skills, and allows children to work at their own pace on activities they choose. Montessori education fosters independence, responsibility, and self-discipline, as well as cooperation, collaboration and social skills.

Walking into a Montessori classroom, a guest would not see a teacher in the front of the classroom or children of all the same age. Instead, children would be grouped in similar age ranges, typically 2-3 years apart, and there would be several teachers in the room, who are called guides. Students choose their own hands-on learning activities around the five main topics of Montessori education: Practical Life, Math, Language, Sensorial, and Cultural. Students have long work periods of 2-3 hours where they can work through activity-based lessons, or they have the freedom to move between several activities.

Montessori education prioritizes hands-on manipulatives to aid student learning through experiences. A well-designed Montessori activity integrates hands-on learning, includes multiple domains of knowledge and integrates them in a holistic way. A student who is interested in the solar system might pick for themselves materials off a shelf. There would be physical manipulatives for them to interact with, such as wood blocks that symbolize the planets, or cards with facts and information about each planet. Students would have tasks to do, such as classifying planets in different ways or placing them in order. The instructor would observe the student, try to identify if and when to intervene, and may attempt to give the student a new prompt or challenge to work through with the materials they have chosen.

Critics of Montessori education point to the large cost of running these schools. With one adult per every twelve children, Montessori schools are often private schools with long waiting lists and expensive tuition.

Project Based Learning
Learner Centered Curriculum in Practice

Project Based Learning (PBL) is a method of teaching where students investigate or respond to an authentic problem or question over an extended period of time. Not simply tacking on a project at the end of a unit, practitioners of Project Based Learning carefully design a project so that through completion of the project students engage with the important knowledge and skills that students need to learn.

Project Based Learning (PBL)
An approach to education where students learn by

A key part of courses that utilize project-based learning is that students work on an authentic or real-world problem. Students may then collaborate to develop what

information they need to know and want to know to address the question. This may include working with experts and community members, research, and collaboration. The teacher would help the students create a project plan on how they will collaborate and how they will present their work.

completing projects that are designed to mimic real-world situations.

An instructor using a project-based approach would be responsible for working with groups of students. While the students would be expected to come up with the questions, finding resources, and applying that information to their project, the instructor would be intervening when necessary, suggesting additional framing questions, aiding students to find resources, and making sure groups are working well together.

Many proponents of project-based learning believe that the public product or presentation is a key factor in the success of project-based learning. The public sharing of projects reinforces the idea that the students are working on real world problems and that their work is intended for an audience greater than just their own teacher or class.

Project Based Learning can be integrated into a single course or may be used as an opportunity to collaborate between multiple subject areas. Proponents of PBL argue that it encourages students to deal with complex and **ill-structured problems**, integrate information from multiple sources, and have ownership over their learning. Critics say that PBL takes significant resources and time and that it may lead to missed content or gaps in knowledge due to the time projects require.

Ill-structured problem
A real-world problem that may not have a clean or simple solution. Ill-structured problems require students to do research and creative thinking.

Society Centered Curriculum

The **society-centered curriculum** is based on the idea that education should be designed around society concerns and community issues. In this approach to education, the purpose of education is centered around future needs of the community. This approach focuses to prepare students for their roles and responsibilities as citizens and also to address the problems and challenges that society faces.

Society-Centered Curriculum
An approach to curricular design where the needs of the society are prioritized. Lessons and subjects are organized based on community needs or problems.

The society-centered curriculum shares many aspects with the learner-centered curriculum. Both could be classified as part of the **progressive educational movement**, a reaction to earlier knowledge-centered approaches that prioritized education according to classical disciplines and traditional subjects. Both learner-centered approaches and society-centered approaches seek to focus education on the whole person, making it more democratic, and empowering students.

Progressive Educational Movement
A movement in educational history that rejected rote learning and recall in favor of experiential learning and authentic tasks.

While the learner-centered curriculum emphasizes the individual agency of students, the society centered curriculum emphasizes collective well-being and the needs of the community. The society centered curriculum targets societal issues and trends. Practitioners that favor a society centered approach may state among their goals preparing students to be engaged citizens and prepared to interact with their government, may focus on leadership, advocacy and teamwork as key part of their classroom, or may emphasize subjects and topics where they see a need or shortage of workers.

Explore More:

Many educational psychologists and philosophers have contributed to the framework of the society centered curriculum. Explore some of the educators that have contributed to this framework.

Paulo Freire

Paulo Freire was a Brazilian educator and a leading scholar of critical pedagogy. His book, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, was published in 1968, and outlined a new relationship between teachers and students with students acting as co-creators of knowledge. Freire believed that education and critical thinking were the essential foundation to democratic societies.

bell hooks

bell hooks was an educator and social critic. She is best known for applying critical theory to the American education system. As a black feminist and educator, hooks wrote about the influences of race, capitalism, and gender on the educational system. Her 1994 book, *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom*, reflected on her time in segregated black schools and her time at integrated schools. hooks describes her time in all black schools as joyful and her time at integrated schools as traumatic, challenging educators to understand how the school culture could be oppressive for students.

bell hooks was born Gloria Jean Watkins. She took on the name bell hooks, which was her great-grandmother's. She chooses not to capitalize her name to focus on the message, not the person.

Teaching to Transgress – Books – Act Build Change

Freire's Brazil
Society-Centered Curriculum for Societal Change

Freire's philosophy on education was a direct reaction to the historical context of Brazil in the 1970s. At this time, Brazil was a third world country in the original meaning of the term, meaning that they were not directly aligned with either the United States or the Soviet Union during the Cold War. From 1964 to 1985, Brazil was under a military dictatorship that saw gradual democratization, eventually leading to a new democratic constitution and government in 1988.

Working as an educator during those times of change, Freire saw education as a means to overcome all types of oppression: political, economic, and intellectual. The goal of his pedagogies were the intellectual liberation of both the oppressed from the colonialist and capitalist social structures. He hoped education would change the people's mentalities and processes so that a truly democratic society could emerge. Freire warned that an uneducated society would be susceptible to misinformation, and that democracy would be fragile if the population made decisions based on emotional thinking rather than critical thinking.

To Freire, education should empower the people to:

- Discuss the real problems of their time and come up with solutions.
- To empower students to reevaluate constantly using scientific and systematic methods.
- To view themselves as part of and in conversation with their society.
- To assume a critical attitude towards the world and in doing so be prepared to change it.

To underscore the differences between his model of education, which sees students as partners in the classroom and emphasizes the knowledge each student brings to the table, Freire derisively used the phrase "the banking model of education" to describe past practices. In the banking model of education, students are treated as empty vessels, needing to be filled with information. Freire believed this mindset reinforced racist colonial attitudes. In The Pedagogy of the Oppressed, he wrote about an alternative, which was to respect student knowledge, to include their voice in the curriculum, and to empower them. Freire's pedagogy is a criticism and reaction to colonialism where only the dominant culture's ideas, literature, and ways of understanding are valued. Critical pedagogies roots are, then, an act of decolonial resistance to colonialism and oppression

STEM and P-TECH in New York
Society Centered Curriculum for Workforce Training and Modernization

Another way to think about society centered curriculum is to forecast future needs of the community and to promote additional emphasis to those topics throughout the curriculum. Integration of STEM throughout the curriculum is not a new push. In 1957, as a result of the Soviet Union launching the world's first artificial satellite, the

United States education system promoted Science and Mathematics education as an urgent need for national security because of fears of Soviet scientific superiority.

Today, the emphasis on technology, high tech manufacturing, and coding skills can be attributed to a few factors: the high paying coding and computer engineering positions, a recognition that all careers are being influenced by changing technology, and a desire to own the supply chain for high tech products such as computer chips. In 2022, Congress passed the CHIPS and Science Act, an incentive program to bring chip manufacturing to the United States. One of the beneficiaries of the CHIPs act is Upstate New York where the company Micron has promised to build a semiconductor fabrication facility.

Even before Micron's announcement, New York State had an established **P-TECH program** (Pathways in Technology Early College High School). The structure of P-TECH programs varies, however many are accelerated high school and Associate degree programs where students can earn a degree in a high demand field such as advanced manufacturing or cyber security. After Micron's announcement to build one of the largest fabrication facilities in the United States, New York State announced an additional $31.5 Million to create advanced manufacturing classrooms and create partnerships between K-12 Districts, Community Colleges, and the state's Technical Colleges.

P-TECH Program
A high school to community college pathway program meant to encourage students to prepare for high-paying tech manufacturing jobs.

P-TECH programs try to put students in authentic challenges in a very career focused way. Students may be collaborating with industry professionals, researching current issues, and applying problem solving to real situations. Students in these programs still have to fulfill the same general education requirements as their peers but may adapt the curriculum to focus more on the critical thinking, teamwork, and communication skills needed in their chosen sector.

Advocates of P-Tech and STEM education programs highlight the potential for students to walk into high growth and high demand jobs and satisfy a current crisis where technical and advanced manufacturing jobs may go unfilled because there aren't enough qualified applicants. Critics may worry that students are specializing in careers too early and that if other areas of education are neglected, that graduates of programs like the P-TECH programs might not have the broad education needed to switch careers later in life or be missing out on the broad exposure to a wide variety of topics.

Knowledge Centered Curriculum

The goal of the **knowledge centered curriculum** is to teach all students a broad range of subjects that are considered essential. In a knowledge centered approach, there is a canon of agreed upon essential knowledge or skills that are scaffolded across the educational experience. Traditionally, students are taught a variety of disciplines separately including science, mathematics, the humanities, and art.

Knowledge-Centered Curriculum
An approach to curricular design that is subject-based and aims to teach students disciplinary knowledge.

The knowledge centered approach is deeply rooted in traditional educational philosophies. The focus is on skills and facts from academic subjects. Although there may be some interdisciplinary work, the majority of the time is spent working with teachers who are themselves specialists in one area or another. Proponents of the

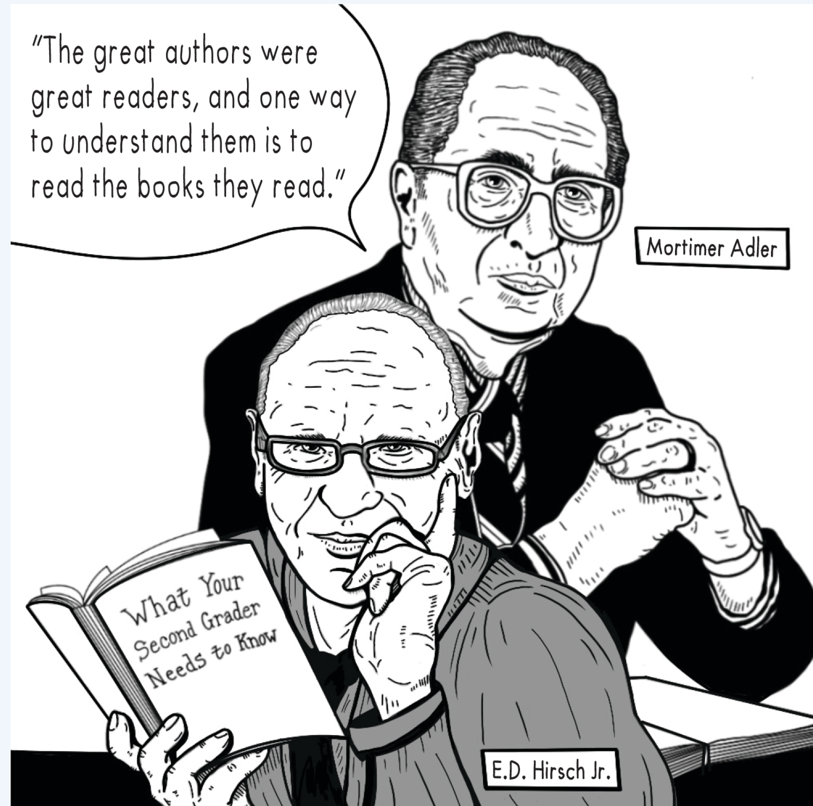
knowledge-centered curriculum believe that a foundation in math, science, literature, and history is the best preparation for life because the broad skill set will allow the educated person to adapt to multiple environments. While the academic curriculum isn't opposed to career training, proponents of the knowledge-centered curriculum prefer that specific career training comes after high school, and students are not identified and tracked into groups who will go to college and those who will go directly into the workforce. This is because the advocates for the knowledge-centered curriculum believe that broad exposure to academic disciplines is the goal. The argument is that a well-educated and well-rounded person is adaptable and prepared for the future.

Textbooks as curriculum

One example of the knowledge-centered curriculum is the textbook. Modern textbooks consist of a multitude of learning materials, multimedia, question banks, supplementary resources, and teachers guides. A giant industry, three or four leading companies produce the majority of textbooks in the United States. Many of the curricular battles play out in what is included in the textbook. There has been a drive to make sure more diverse voices are present in all textbooks, to try to make sure students are exposed to a wide variety of cultures. This push for inclusion has also prompted a backlash from parent groups and lawmakers who feel that a progressive agenda is being pushed on students.

While there are legitimate fears of over standardization and teachers being forced to use scripted or canned curriculum, textbooks have been an ubiquitous part of most American schools. Textbooks have strengths. They are organized and supply a structure and sequence for complex subject matters. Teacher certifications can be very broad, and instructors can find themselves teaching several subjects and will likely not have the time to assemble resources of the appropriate difficulty and scope for their students.

Critical teachers must be aware of the strengths and limitations of textbooks. Part of building a critical consciousness is being aware that textbooks may contain biased coverage of certain topics, may not have problem-solving or higher-level activities for students, and may limit students' exposure to a wide variety of resources because the textbook becomes the single source of information. Expert teachers make informed choices with their text, including when to use it, when to supplement with outside resources, and how to structure class with or without it.



Explore More:

Many Educational Psychologists and Philosophers have contributed to the framework of the Knowledge-Centered Curriculum. Explore some of the educators that have contributed to this framework.

E.D. Hirsch Jr.

Essentialism

E.D. Hirsch Jr. was a professor of English at the University of Virginia. Hirsch put forward the idea that knowledge, not competencies or skills, should be the goal of curriculum. Hirsch's Core Knowledge Curriculum lays out what he considered to be essential for Americans to possess in common. His 2020 book *How to Educate a Citizen* is a follow up to his 1987 *book Cultural Literacy: What Every American Needs to Know*.

Mortimer Adler

Perennialism

Mortimer Adler is author of the *Paideia Proposal* (1982) in which he laid out the need for a classical education focused on the perennial or everlasting ideas from the greatest thinkers and philosophers. Adler's approach calls for everyone to study the great thinkers like Plato, Aristotle, and Thomas Aquinas.

The Committee of Ten

Standardization of the American High Schools

In 1892, a group of American educators were brought together to make

recommendations on the future of high school education. Drawing heavily from colleges and universities, and led by the president of Harvard University, the Committee of Ten made recommendations to standardize the high school curriculum. The central part of the recommendation was to create a core curriculum that would prepare students for higher education and the workforce.

The committee's recommendations centered on a core curriculum comprising of literature, classical languages, mathematics, science, and history. The recommendations of the committee of ten create a structure for high school that still might feel familiar to students. English, history, math and science. Math should be taught in a sequence of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Science should be taught every year with a year each on practical geography, biology, chemistry, and physics in that order. A major difference between the curriculum of the early 1900s and today would be the early curriculum's emphasis on classical languages such as Greek and Latin. A high schooler would have taken both Greek and Latin, as well as two modern languages, usually French and German.

The Committee of Ten's work laid the foundation for the structuring of high school in the United States, setting the precedent for core subjects. While there has been extensive reforms to education over the years, the initial structure recommended by the Committee of Ten is still visible.

The legacy of the committee lives on in a few different ways. The high school schedule still bears a close resemblance to the committee's recommendations, but perhaps the more important and enduring legacy is the idea that every student should take this college preparatory curriculum. An ongoing debate since the release of the Committee of Ten's initial report has been the need to balance between standardized curriculums and the need for flexibility and student-centered approaches in modern education.

Advanced Placement (AP) Tests

Each year, more than a million students challenge demanding Advanced Placement tests in high school hoping to gain college credit for taking an advanced high school course. Run by the organization The College Board, the same organization that runs the SATs, Advanced Placement tests have become a benchmark by which students and schools are judged. These high stakes exams are marketed towards high schoolers and their parents as a way to show rigor in their high school education and a way to stand out in the college admission process.

To be able to teach an AP Course at a high school, the school must apply to the College Board, submit a detailed curriculum outlining alignment to the AP test, and must choose a textbook that has been approved by the College Board. AP Courses are available in math, science, history, english, world languages, and a newer capstone program in research methodology.

Students in AP Courses are challenged with a broad curriculum that includes all the topics typically taught in a college introductory course. Critics of the AP Exams have

said that AP courses focus too much on a wide breadth of materials, but lack the time to do a deep and thorough analysis of individual topics.

The number of AP courses taught and how the students score on them feature prominently in how American high schools are compared to each other in ratings such as the US News ratings of High Schools. School administrators attach letters in their student college applications stating how many advanced courses are available at their institutions. 35% of high school students who graduated in 2022 took at least 1 AP course, and college credit for high school courses has continued to grow as a trend and expectation in the American High School experience.

The International Baccalaureate (IB) Diploma Program

The International Baccalaureate Organization is a non-profit educational organization based out of Switzerland. Since the 1960s, the IB Diploma program has been utilized in international schools catered to the families of multinational corporations, military families and mobile groups. In the United States, IB diploma programs are often used as an accelerated learning opportunity for exceptional students.

The major domains of the IB Program model.

The IB Program consists of coursework in 6 main areas: Language, Second Language, Individuals and Societies, Mathematics or Computer Science, Experimental Sciences, and The Arts. In addition to the coursework, all students take a required Theory of

Knowledge Course, have to do experiential learning through their Creativity Action Service requirement, and do an independent research project or extended essay of 4,000 words.

The purpose of the IB diploma is to have an internationally recognized qualification that could be recognized all over the world, to have an international intellectual framework, to educate the whole person, and to develop inquiry and thinking skills. The IB diploma is recognized and well regarded, with similar prestige for graduates as those who score highly on Advanced Placement or AP tests through the College Board. A major difference between the IB programs and Advanced Placement programs is that the AP Tests are single high stakes tests, while in the IB program testing is integrated throughout the school year, with external graders used to rate students and the schools.

For a high school to participate in the IB Diploma program, administrators and teachers must be certified by the IB Organization, attend additional professional development, and continual education.

Advocates for the use of IB program and its high standards praise the international focus, rigor, and emphasis on critical thinking and research. Critics bring concerns about the demanding nature of the IB curriculum and stress on students.

TEACHER AGENCY IN CURRICULUM

In education, the concept of curriculum is an important thing for the future teacher to consider. Educators must constantly be examining and reflecting on their curricular goals and analyzing their teaching tools and methods to make sure that all parts of the students' experience, both the explicit plans and the hidden lessons conveyed match their purpose of education.

Remember the warning as we introduced the learner centered, society-centered, and knowledge-centered classification. While classification systems are convenient, the truth is that most educators will incorporate a spectrum of approaches, and the examples given in the chapter may represent the extreme implementation of these philosophies. The main takeaways may be the ideals that each approach embodies from individual empowerment and societal reconstruction to comprehensive knowledge and exchange. There are ways to give learners voice and control in their education that are not Montessori education or implementing full Project Based Learning.

Analyzing the American education system, at first glance it has many of the criteria of a knowledge centered curriculum, with an articulated curriculum of facts, competencies, and skills that students should be able to demonstrate their mastery of in defined subject areas. However, there is space in this curriculum for instructors to use their discretion and expertise.

As educators, it is those instructional choices that wield substantial power in shaping the student experience and our schools. It is essential to build a critical consciousness, continually evaluating practices and questioning the impact of those choices. By embracing this agency, educators can blend curricular and instructional philosophies and find their personal approach to meeting diverse student needs, to giving

students voice and choice in the curriculum, and making sure that today's students are tomorrow's citizens and neighbors.

Being able to articulate one's purpose of education is an important first step in the process of becoming a critical educator. Once your goals are well defined, the next step is the critical awareness to make sure that the instructional methods and content match the stated purpose. As agents of change, educators have the opportunity to influence and shape curricular choices that shape our students, schools, and societies.

Activity: Your Philosophy of Education

What is your teaching philosophy? What do you feel your role should be as a teacher in our educational system? Teacher candidates are often asked to explain their philosophy of education as part of the application and interview process.

Your teaching philosophy should be 2-3 pages in length and written in first person and in present tense. You will want to include examples and descriptions so your reader can "see" you in your classroom—these may be specific teaching strategies you use, assignments you integrate, discussions you have with students, or the physical environment you create.

Some questions to get you started:

- Begin by making a list of what you feel education should do—what is the purpose of education or what are the goals of education? Are there specific educational theories that you believe in strongly?
- Make another list of teaching methods you feel best help you to reach this purpose. How do you interact with students? What does your classroom look and feel like? What kind of assignments do you believe are best? How do you support your students? How do you assess learning has taken place? What kind of strategies do you use to teach your specific discipline?
- Jot down two to three specific examples of your teaching methods and describe how you apply these in the classroom. What does this specifically look like?
- Also, write a justification of how you feel that your particular teaching methods help your students to reach your chosen goals of education. Why do you feel these are the best strategies for reaching the ideal education?

Once you have these portions written, go through these and select the teaching methods and the examples of these that you feel most fully convey your style of teaching.

Activity Adapted from Writing a Philosophy of Education by the University of Arizona Global Campus Writing Center shared with a Creative Commons Attribution License.

GLOSSARY

Curriculum: The subjects, knowledge areas, and skills that students are expected to learn. The course of study.

Critical Consciousness: the ability to recognize and analyze systems of inequality and the commitment to take action against these systems

Doctrine of Interest: The belief that student interests should be the deciding factor about what to study.

Explicit Curriculum: The planned part of the curriculum which includes the topics, standards, and learning materials used in a course of study. The word explicit is used to differentiate and contrast it from the hidden curriculum.

Hidden Curriculum: The lessons that arise from the culture of the school and the behaviors, attitudes, and expectations that characterize that culture

Ill-structured problem: A real-world problem that may not have a clean or simple solution. Illstructured problems require students to do research and creative thinking

Knowledge-Centered Curriculum: An approach to curricular design that is subjectbased and aims to teach students disciplinary knowledge.

Learner-Centered Curriculum: An approach to curricular design where students interests determine the direction and design of the educational experience. Educators customize learning paths for individual students.

P-TECH Program: A high school to community college pathway program meant to encourage students to prepare for high-paying tech manufacturing jobs.

Prepared Environment: In Montessori Education, the prepared environment is a classroom with materials and manipulatives that the students can see, select, reach themselves, and begin to explore.

Progressive Educational Movement: A movement in educational history that rejected rote learning and recall in favor of experiential learning and authentic tasks.

Project Based Learning (PBL): An approach to education where students learn by completing projects that are designed to mimic real-world situations.

Society-Centered Curriculum: An approach to curricular design where the needs of the society are prioritized. Lessons and subjects are organized based on community needs or problems.

FIGURES

Maria Montessori and John Dewey by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

bell hooks and Paulo Freire by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

Mortimer Adler and E.D. Hirsch Jr. by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

4

ReStorying the History, Policies, and Places of Public Education

Thor Gibbins

Before We Read

Anticipation Guide

Read each of the following statements. Put a check under "Agree" or "Disagree" to show how you feel about each statement. If possible, discuss your responses with peers.

Statement	Agree	Disagree
Puritanism heavily influenced education during the Colonial Period.		
The primary goal of public education is to educate young people to assimilate under a cohesive national identity.		
Every school in the U.S. receives an equal amount of funding regardless of geographical locale.		
Textbook and testing companies significantly influence educational policy and curriculum.		
Failures of public education are a result of teachers and teacher education programs.		

Critical Question for Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: What have been the goals of public education throughout the history of the United States? How have these goals changed? In what ways does each goal support or challenge the other goals? To what extent do private interests influence public education funding and policy? In what ways does geography shape public education locally?

The goal of this chapter is to give a historical overview of public education in the United States from its colonial period to our digitally connected world. However, this overview is not without its own critical framing. Critical questioning entails an interrogation of power and the distribution of resources, i.e., politics, in terms of who benefits and who becomes marginalized from the system designed to oversee the implementation of power and the distribution of resources including education. This requires an investigation outlining public education as a part of a system that has been in continual transformation. Therefore, this chapter will involve a critical analysis of the role of public education in the Americas from settler colonial America, the development of the nation state of the United States, western expansionism, and the neoliberal transformation of the United States as the global economic power in the 20th and the first quarter of the 21st century.

In order to help frame this analysis of change in a way that might illuminate the more hidden, systemic structures of how public education has been implemented and maintained, I will use a combination of historical and material frameworks for analysis: the first framework is educational historian David Labaree's (1997b) more overt and alternating goals of education and Jean Anyon's (1980) social class analysis which reveals the hidden curricular and problematic goals that underlie the more overt goals. In addition to the hidden curricular goals, there are also **hegemonic** goals of **assimilation** and **erasure** latent in the establishment and maintenance of public education. These goals are complex and nuanced and, at times, are contradictory. Hence, the goal in outlining these frameworks (see Table 4.1) is to analyze the contradictions inherent in the differing goals of education in order to recognize and diagnose problems within education. It is crucial for us, as teachers and as agents within the system of public education, to help redirect the course of public education for more equitable access to high, quality public education for all students.

Hegemony
The systematic maintenance of oppression of a group or groups of people over another for the purposes of exerting dominance–ideologically, socially, politically, or economically.

Assimilation
A sociological concept where people from different ethnic backgrounds adopt traits of the dominant cultural group, e.g., adopting the dominant language, dialect, religion, etc.

Erasure
A systematic removal of a group of people or aspects of a culture to make it seem the people or culture never existed or exists currently. One example of cultural erasure is most depictions of Indigenous peoples have been romanticized historical narratives, while current narratives ignore Indigenous peoples or act as if they no longer exist in the present.

Table 4.1 ***An Overview of Labaree's Alternative Goals, Anyon's Hidden Curricular Golas, and Hegemonic Goals of Education***

Goal	Explanation	Example
Democratic Equality (Public Good)	Our public schools should steward effective citizenship, equal treatment, and equal access for all students.	A major argument for liberal arts education is to ensure all members of a society should have familiarity with a wide range of content areas and topics in order to prepare students to help solve challenging social issues.
Social Efficiency (Public Good)	Our economic well-being as a society posits public schools need to prepare our youth for useful economic roles competently.	In the late 1950's, The National Defense Education Act sought to train students for a variety of jobs like engineering and science to compete nationally with the Soviet Union. This led to ability tracking which involved more hidden curricular goals like social reproduction or the workforce.
Social Mobility (Private Good)	Education is a private commodity and public schools should provide individual students with a competitive advantage in selling their labor to achieve more desired social positions.	In order to gain competitive edges for individual students to gain admissions to competitive colleges and universities, Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate programs were developed in high schools. Most of these programs are gatekept through standardized testing or access to resources afforded by affluence.
Social Reproduction (Hidden Curriculum)	When examining the teaching and work practices of classrooms from schools teaching students from different social class backgrounds (working class, middle class, affluent professional, and executive elite), the types of classroom tasks given to children from these different schools reveal a hidden curriculum of assimilation and social reproduction. and social reproduction children are given work tasks that mirror the types of tasks of their parents or caregivers: unskilled labor, skilled labor, managerial, professional and creative, and executive tasks expected of political or economic leaders.	Based on Jean Anyon's (1980) observational analysis of 5th grade math classes and work tasks five different schools (public and private) that served children from different social classes (working class, middle class, professional managerial class, and executive elite class): • Children in the working class schools were given math tasks where following the correct steps were rewarded irregardless of getting the correct answer; this prepares these children for unskilled jobs where they will be successful in following the correct procedures. • In the middle-class schools, there was emphasis on getting the correct answer; however, students still needed to follow the directions and were given some choice in doing either long or short division in solving problems; these types of tasks prepare them for more skilled labor jobs where completing tasks correctly and efficiently are requisite. • In the affluent professional school, students were continually express and apply applications in authentic situation like children take home a sheet to record the different types of items in their house as data collection to be verified with calculators and peer review in class; these types of tasks prepare students for professions like medical doctors, scientists, or engineers. • In the executive elite schools, students were continuously asked to conceptualize rules through analyzing different elements of a system and apply these rules to solve problems. For example, in math, after teaching area and perimeter through a discussion, the teacher asks students to apply what they know about area and perimeter to come up on their own with a formula to help them solve the problems, e.g., A = W x L; these types of tasks, then, prepare these students for ownership and control of corporations.
Assimilation & Erasure (Hegemony)	Assimilationist policy is a form of ethnic, linguistic, or cultural erasure typically forced upon historically marginalized communities: children of color as well as white, working and/or underclass children from rural geographies.	In the late 19th century and up until the l970s, government agents took, many times by force, Indigenous children from their homes and community to residential and boarding schools. These children were severely punished for speaking their native languages. They were forced to dress in Eurocentric fashions.

THINK-PAIR-SHARE DISCUSSION

Team up with a partner, look over the table of goals of education, and use the following questions to help guide your conversation:

- What type of educational experiences might you have had that connect to one or more goals?
- Have you had any other experiences that may have been contradictory to any of these goals?

Join another pair of discussants and compare your experiences and connections.

COLONIAL EDUCATION

In its inception, the development of public education was an extension of European colonialism in the Americas with the forced displacement and erasure of the Indigenous nations, cultures, and languages. British colonialism shaped the direction of public education in Colonial America where the Puritan, or Calvinist, theological worldview of the early British settler-colonizers significantly shaped education. Much like the political makeup of each colony, especially in New England, the purpose of education centered on religion.

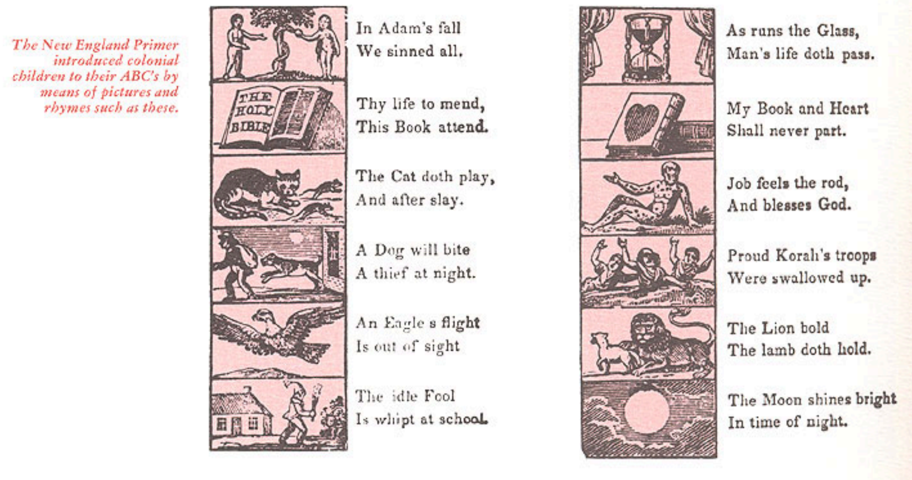
In colonial New England, the first public and private schools served mostly boys from merchant and other upper class backgrounds. In 1642, the Massachusetts Bay Colony made education compulsory (i.e., required). These first Latin grammar schools were formed to serve boys born into wealthier social classes in their preparation for university, which were the elite Ivy League institutions that had recently been founded in the new colonies. By applying Labaree's (1997b) goals of education, we can clearly ground education at this time as a private good only available to the landed gentry emerging as the ruling class in the American colonies. By limiting access to education to men of European descent born in social positions of power, colonial education was inherently undemocratic and sought to limit educational opportunities for women, sustenance farmers, tenant farmers, indentured servants, slaves, and Indigenous peoples for the purposes of oppression and the exploitation of their physical, creative, and emotional labor, i.e, for the purposes of hegemony.

While the elite social classes created educational structures to limit access to education, the Puritan settlers who founded the Massachusetts Bay Colony did make literacy a priority. More specifically, they made reading a compulsory part of the head of household duties to ensure all children in the household were able to read the Bible and other religious documents (Janak, 2019). Basic literacy skills, then, "opened" up education beyond the landed elites; however, the purpose was solely on being able to read the bible and not for either participating in democracy or for social mobility. Most education at this time was public; however, as Janak points out, while education was

open publicly, formal schooling was only available to those that could afford it. For those that could not afford formal schooling, basic literacy education involving reading and writing was either done informally in the home or at church.

Most literacy education in the colonial era was dedicated to preparing people for reading the King James version of the bible, a version of the bible favored by Protestant branches of Christianity. Primers like the New England Primer focused primarily on basic phonics of letter-sound relationships, consonant blends, digraphs, and rote memorization of rhymes using similar phraseology used in the King James Bible.

New England Primer



The primary goal for educating youth, then, was toward a Puritan worldview which required stern control of children in preventing moral depravity and subsuming the self in submission to God's authority.

EARLY FEDERAL ERA, WESTERN EXPANSIONISM, AND THE HAUNTING LEGACY OF THE INDIAN REMOVAL ACT

After the American Revolution and subsequent War of 1812, the project of developing and maintaining a new nation state began in earnest. There was keen interest in developing a means of public education for a new nation emerging from newly garnered independence from the British Empire. However, despite this new independence, most of the ideas for public education stemmed from the English system of education (Janak, 2019). The Enlightenment and Reformation periods heavily influenced the English system of schooling, and, likewise, the burgeoning public school system in the early period of the United States. Moreover, since the Enlightenment philosophers took their primary inspiration from the Occidental traditions born from ancient Greece: chiefly Platonic idealism and Aristotle's realism and empiricism. These traditions formed the basis of liberal education in European universities and the elite colleges and universities founded within the colonial period in the Americas.

Occidental
Relating to western or European peoples and cultures.

Idealists like Thomas Jefferson wanted to set up a meritocratic system of education to cultivate future "philosopher kings" to continue leading the new Republic. Jefferson advocated for public primary schools and grammar schools where "commoners" could compete for free tuition at elite institutions. Because this public access of "commoners" was limited to white males of certain social classes, the romanticized ideal of American **meritocracy** was already a myth even at these early stages of Federalism. Jefferson labeled his burgeoning meritocracy of publicly funding access to higher education as a policy for "raking the rubbish," an obvious classist and elitist appraisal of working-class groups. Jefferson's intention for this "meritocracy" was to weed out low-performing students from lower socio-economic groups and reward 10% (one out of 10) of the students with pensions to attend universities. Despite his clear disdain for the working-class citizenry, Jefferson's idealism did lead to the establishment of public universities like the University of Virginia and the State University of New York system (Janak, 2019). This is also the beginning emergence of two alternative goals of public education (Labaree, 1997b): democratic equality and social mobility, albeit severely limited in terms of equitable access for all. This push for a more robust public system of education also led to the need for a more formally trained cadre of teachers, who had been primarily parents and other familial caregivers in the colonial period leading up to this federal era.

Meritocracy
A system that rewards advancement based on individual achievement or ability rather than rewarding advancement based on political or economic connections of family and friends.

TEACHER TRAINING AND THE FORMATION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

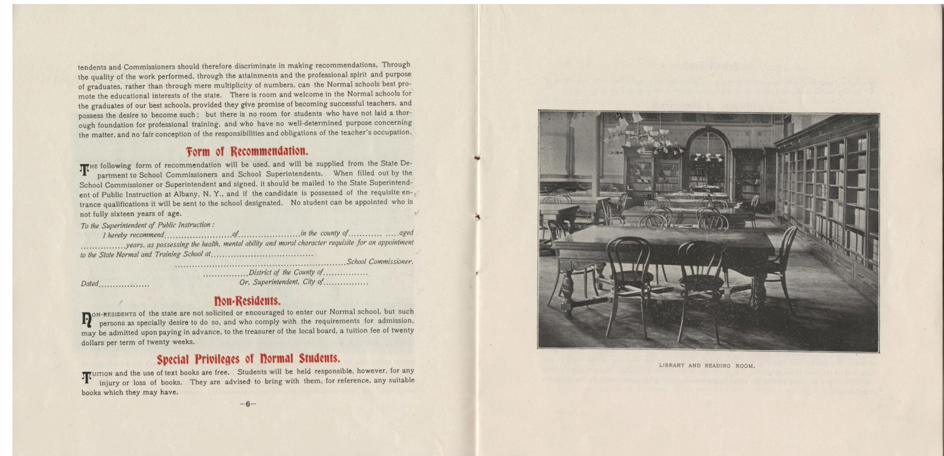
In the 19th century, there was a confluence between the religious goals of public education and the idealists' need for a more educated citizenry capable of maintaining the new republican democracy in the newly founded United States. This merger led to the establishment of common schools in the Northeastern U.S. **Common schools** were local communities funded projects to support educating the youth in each particular community. Funding for common schools relied upon wealthy benefactors in the community as well as the local clergy (Smith, 1914). Because of this, the common school, while publicly available to youth in a community, were not democratic institutions. The wealthy benefactors and clergy determined the curriculum for the school as well as who were hired as teachers in the school. Therefore, the primary decision makers needed to find people in their community who would be willing to take directives without creating problems to either interests of wealthy elites or the authority of the different Protestant churches established in these various communities. Teachers, then, were recruited from groups who held significantly less social and political power who would be willing to take "modest", or low salaries. These new cadres of teachers were mostly unmarried women from working class backgrounds. Even in public education's infancy, the teaching profession was exploitative and feminized in order to find a workforce willing to teach for low wages and could not exercise agency in making curricular decisions that would challenge or subvert the local authorities' power. This is not to say that common schools and the development of more standardized normal schools designed to train public school teachers were totally undemocratic; these schools did arise from

Common School
A 19th century public school, typically grades 1 through 8 that focuses on basic literacy and math skills, e.g., reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Normal Schools
Preparatory secondary, or "high" schools to train young adults as teachers in public school in the 19th and early 20th centuries.

electoralism and people elected into positions of political power. The political positions, however, did tend to be held by people coming from the social elite and ruling classes, which is something that still persists to this day.

Oneonta Normal School Yearbook 1898



tendents and Commissioners should therefore discriminate in making recommendations. Through the quality of the work performed, through the attainments and the professional spirit and purpose of graduates, rather than through mere multiplicity of numbers, can the Normal schools best promote the educational interests of the state. There is room and welcome in the Normal schools for the graduates of our best schools, provided they give promise of becoming successful teachers, and possess the desire to become such; but there is no room for students who have not laid a thorough foundation for professional training, and who have no well-determined purpose concerning the matter, and no fair conception of the responsibilities and obligations of the teacher's occupation.

Form of Recommendation.

THE following form of recommendation will be used, and will be supplied from the State Department to School Commissioners and School Superintendents. When filled out by the School Commissioner or Superintendent and signed, it should be mailed to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction at Albany, N. Y., and if the candidate is possessed of the requisite entrance qualifications it will be sent to the school designated. No student can be appointed who is not fully sixteen years of age.

To the Superintendent of Public Instruction:

I hereby recommend......................of......................in the county of........... .....aged ....years, as possessing the health, mental ability and moral character requisite for an appointment to the State Normal and Training School at....................................

...School Commissioner.

...............District of the County of...............

Dated.................. Or, Superintendent, City of...............

Non-Residents.

NON-RESIDENTS of the state are not solicited or encouraged to enter our Normal school, but such persons as specially desire to do so, and who comply with the requirements for admission, may be admitted upon paying in advance, to the treasurer of the local board, a tuition fee of twenty dollars per term of twenty weeks.

Special Privileges of Normal Students.

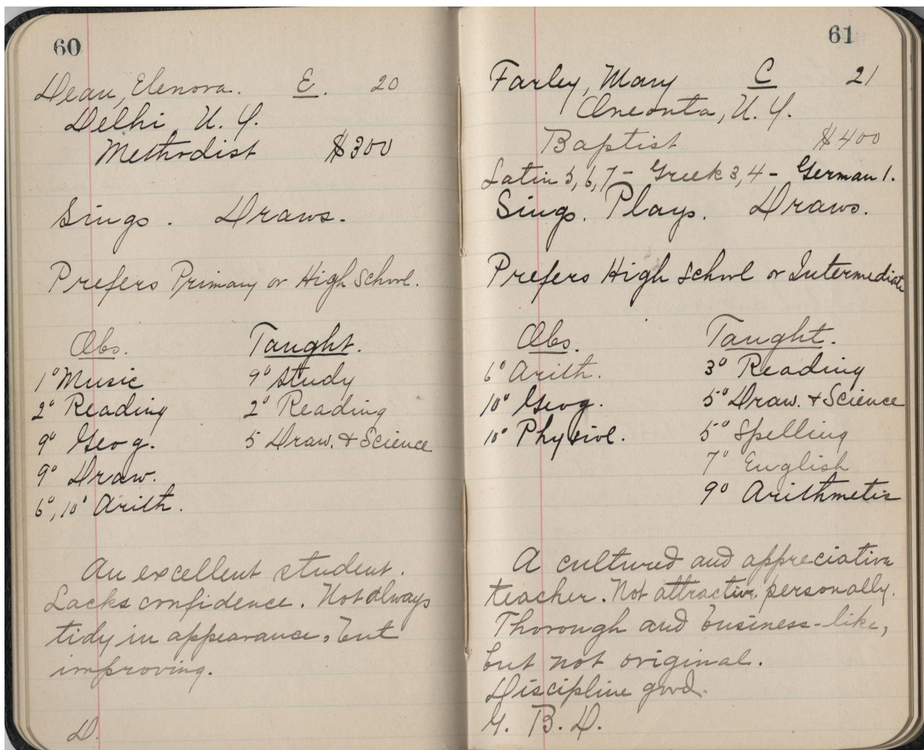
TUITION and the use of text books are free. Students will be held responsible, however, for any injury or loss of books. They are advised to bring with them, for reference, any suitable books which they may have.

—6—

LIBRARY AND READING ROOM.

Because each community had disparate community needs for educating the youth in their particular area, common schools had varying curricula. In Massachusetts, Horace Mann became instrumental in the establishment of common schools. At this time, Mann sought to standardize the curriculum across the state of Massachusetts. This led to Mann submitting annual reports to the Massachusetts Board of Education over a ten year period from 1838-1848. Mann's standardization effort led to the establishment of normal schools that would formalize the teaching and training of teachers (Harper, 1939), which was also a need for other skilled labor positions during the rapid industrialization taking place in the mid-19th century. The Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890 granted federal lands for colleges that would teach skills needed for positions in education, agriculture, engineering, and other skilled-labor professions. The growing need for a skilled workforce to carry forth the rapid industrialization, as well as Western Expansionism's thirst for new natural resources for energy extraction, began another alternative goal for public education–social efficiency. Industrialization required wealthy owners of private businesses to finance or support endowments to train a workforce to meet the labor demands of the shifting labor market. Hence, the emergence of **land-grant universities and colleges** emerged in response.

Land-Grant Colleges and Universities
Federal legislation designating public land for the specific purposes of building public colleges and universities.



60

Dean, Elenora. E. 20
Delhi, N. Y.
Methodist $300

Sings. Draws.

Prefers Primary or High School.

Obs.	Taught.
1° Music	9° Study
2° Reading	2° Reading
9° Geog.	5 Draw. & Science
9° Draw.	
6°, 10° Arith.	

An excellent student. Lacks confidence. Not always tidy in appearance, but improving.

D.

61

Farley, Mary C 21
Oneonta, N. Y.
Baptist $400

Latin 5, 6, 7 – Greek 3, 4 – German 1.
Sings. Plays. Draws.

Prefers High School or Intermediate

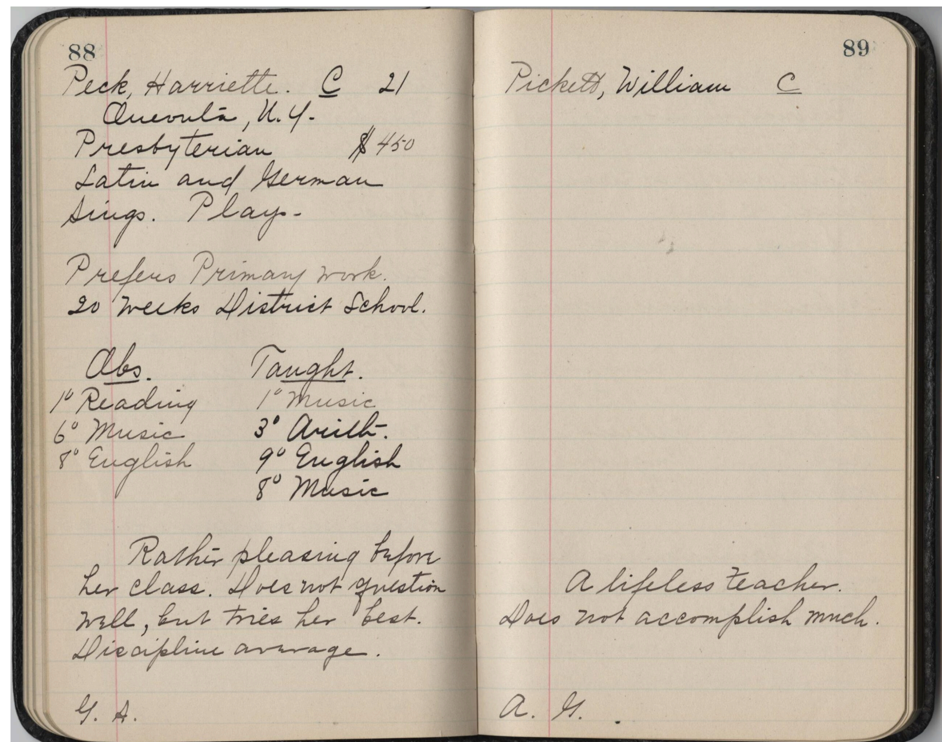
Obs.	Taught.
6° Arith.	3° Reading
10° Geog.	5° Draw. & Science
10° Physiol.	5° Spelling
	7° English
	9° Arithmetic

A cultured and appreciative teacher. Not attractive personally. Thorough and business-like, but not original. Discipline good.
G. B. D.

Student Teaching Observation 1902

Normal schools, which would resemble somewhat a contemporary high school consisting of grades 9-12, trained 15-to-18-year olds to teach in public schools, which at the time spanned grades 1 through 8. Teacher training at normal schools focused primarily on teaching basic literacy skills in reading and writing in addition to arithmetic, gymnasium (physical education), drawing, and basic sciences–all subjects consistent with a liberal education. A close examination of student teaching observations (see figures 4.3 and 4.4) reveal terse commentary on actual pedagogy, but, rather, focused more on gender, religious affiliation, and traits like physical attractiveness. What, then, were the educational goals for teacher training at this time? It does not appear to be highly focused on pedagogical theory, which had not been really developed at this time, but more on training teachers who could effectively maintain control and manage children. In terms of the hidden curriculum, public schools, much like today, functioned as a means of social reproduction for unskilled or skilled labor needed in each community. Normal schools, however, were a mechanism for social class mobility for youth–mostly young women–from the working class to access higher education beyond an eighth grade liberal arts education. Affluent youth, at this time, had the material resources for them to attend private, preparatory schools, which allowed access to the elite colleges and universities with the purposes of training the next generation of doctors, lawyers, or other professions needed for maintenance and allocation of social and political power for elite social classes.

Preparatory Schools
Private, tuition-based boarding schools designed to prepare affluent youth for higher education in elite, private universities.


88

Peck, Harriette. C 21
Oneonta, N.Y.
Presbyterian $450
Latin and German
Sings. Play.

Prefers Primary work.
20 weeks District School.

Obs. Taught.
1° Reading 1° Music
6° Music 3° Arith.
8° English 9° English
8° Music

Rather pleasing before her class. Does not question well, but tries her best. Discipline average.

G. A.

89

Pickett, William C

A lifeless teacher. Does not accomplish much.

A. G.

Image 4.5 Student Teaching Observation 1902

Listen

A series of audio recordings of Horace Mann's annual reports to the Massachusetts Board of Education (https://archive.org/details/annual_reports_mass_board_of_education_mk_1808_librivox/annualreportseducation_47_mann_128kb.mp3). Horace Mann's Twelfth Annual Report from 1848 is of particular note. Listen to episode 47, which is part 2 of Mann's Twelfth Annual Report, and take notes on the following guiding questions:

- What are the terms and phrases that Mann uses that create a narrative to support a democratic equality goal of education? Are there any that could connect to narratives for social efficiency or social mobility goals of education?
- What fields of study does Mann argue should be the focus in public schools? Why these particular content areas?

In addition to the formation of normal schools to train teachers for the expanding public elementary schools, the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890 initiated federal policies for states to create public, land-grant universities. In response to the Industrial Revolution, there was a growing need for more skilled labor in terms of engineering and energy extraction (e.g., rail and transportation, mining, oil drilling, etc.). Public land-grant universities served as points of service for educating a technically skilled workforce required for these growing industries. Clearly, the public goal of developing the low or no cost colleges, universities, and normal schools was shifting the early federal era's goal of educating the citizenry for democratic participation to a more utilitarian social efficiency goal. Of particular note, as a part of Reconstruction Era following the Civil War, Historical Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) were born as land-grant

universities to serve the African American population recently emancipated from the horrors of chattel slavery. Federal policies, however, never equitably funded HBCUs in comparison to the state land-grant universities, most of which were state and local Jim Crow laws racially segregated and barred children of color from matriculation. Even when the goals of public education began to expand to be more inclusive in the public and private goods, there have been hegemonic goals to limit working and under class access to social and political power while constructing a stratified racial caste system.

WESTERN EXPANSIONISM AND EDUCATION

In addition to using federal policy toward enclosing public lands as sites for land-grant colleges and universities, these policies also served as mechanisms to displace First Nations peoples from their ancestral homelands. The Morrill Acts served as a less genocidal continuation of federal policies directed toward the Indigenous peoples instigated by the Indian Removal Act of 1830. The Indian Removal Act authorized the U.S. military to forcibly displace the Chickasaw, Choctaw, Seminole, Cherokee, and Creek nations from their homelands in the Southeastern U.S. The ideology of Manifest Destiny and the policies of displacement like the Homestead and Morrill Acts provided the blueprint for a new wave of settler colonialism embedded in western expansionism that sought to displace Indigenous people and enclose these lands either as public sites for conservation and education or as privately owned land to be parceled out and sold by land speculators. These policies clearly intend to legitimize the systematic erasure of First Nations peoples.

As U.S. settler-colonialism expanded west, there was a significant need for schools to give children of settlers a place to learn basic literacy and numeracy skills much like in the common schools in the North and Southeast. This also required a workforce of teachers to serve in these communities and schools out west. Unmarried women were recruited as teachers to teach in one-room schoolhouses as the political borders of the United States continued westward toward California. Women at this time did not have rights of suffrage or the right to own property. Therefore, female teachers found themselves in continuously tenuous positions with limited authority or decision making powers regarding curriculum and methods of teaching. Moreover, female teachers had to give up teaching if they were to marry. Just like the common schools, political power for making educational decisions was given to local community leaders–wealthy men and clergy. Even in its beginnings, teacher agency in making curricular decisions was severely limited. With the political power of educational decision making consolidated to ruling and professional managerial classes, policy and goals for educating the masses were easily maintained and controlled to protect the political and social power of the elite. However, this would change somewhat as women began to organize and resist their own oppression at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries. Female teachers were at the forefront of the women's suffrage movement as well as the labor movement to unionize teachers. Teacher agency and professional autonomy is still a primary focus of teacher activism and will be discussed in a later chapter. Empowerment and emancipation from hegemonic systems is an ongoing process. We, as educators, owe a tremendous debt to

these brave educators who strived to educate their students at the same time fighting against their own exploitation and oppression.

THE TRAUMA OF RESIDENTIAL & BOARDING SCHOOLS FOR INDIGENOUS CHILDREN

Political Economy
A term from political science and economics that focuses on studying the interactions of market, or national, economies and their intersections with political systems and government.

As the U.S. expanded its political territories west and in response to over two and half centuries of Indigenous displacement and genocide, First Nations peoples, notably the Lakota, Dakota, Nakota nations in the mid-west and the Apache and Comanche nations in the southwest began waging a guerilla-style insurgency in resistance to the waves of settler-colonizers beginning to expropriate and occupy their lands. For the U.S., continuing a protracted war with insurgents from hostile nations who have been systematically displaced from the homelands became tenuous. The practice of isolating and concentrating Indigenous peoples away from the growing settlements was unsustainable as the privatization or public enclosure of land would make the growing western territories akin to a pseudo-apartheid state, which would, much like modern-day apartheid states, require a significant amount of military force to continuously occupy and oversee the submission and complacency of the displaced First Nations peoples. Therefore, another form of pacification was needed–an educational system designed to assimilate the Indigenous population into the **political economy** of the U.S.

One of the earliest forms of pacification through education was the Spanish mission system, which was the Spanish colonial model. Spanish colonizers set up missions as a way to force conversion to Catholicism and then exploit Indigenous labor to extract resources from the Americas to be brought back to Spain. Mission schools were set up by Catholic religious orders to indoctrinate and convert the Indigenous peoples of South, Central, and Southwestern regions of North America. Protestant mission schools were also established in the British colonies like the Massachusetts Bay Colony who demanded First Nations peoples assimilate into the Puritan cultures and Protestantism of the European settler-colonizers (Szaz, 1999). In the 19th century, the mission school system morphed into Native American residential and boarding schools as the U.S. military stepped in as the primary overseer for educating children from the plethora of First Nations people now being occupied by the U.S. military in enclosed reservations.

Richard Henry Pratt, a lieutenant in the U.S. Army, established the Carlisle Indian Industrial School in Carlisle, Pennsylvania in 1879. The explicit goal of the Carlisle Indian School was to "civilize" and assimilate Indigenous children so that they would have no desire to return back to their nations and reservations. Standing Bear, a student of the Carlisle residential school and future Oglala Lakota chief, recalled that, at Carlisle, he "went to school to copy, to imitate; not to exchange languages and ideas, and not to develop the best traits that had come out of uncountable experiences of hundreds and thousands of years living upon this continent" (p. 237). Language instruction was one-way at these residential schools. In fact, teachers severely punished students by speaking their native languages or practicing integral parts of their culture like First

Nations dances and ceremonies. The Religious Crimes Code of 1883 explicitly sought to punish and imprison anyone outwardly practicing their Indigenous cultural identities. This code was amended in 1933 to lift the ban on some of the First Nations dances; however, ceremonies like the Ghost Dance (which sparked the Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890) and the Sun Dance were illegal with the threat of incarceration until the federal government repealed the law in the late 1970s.

Boarding and residential schools became the primary mechanism to displace Indigenous children from their parents and communities throughout the end of the 19th century and most of the 20th century up. Boarding schools like the Phoenix Indian School became a mechanism to displace children from their homes and place them as low-cost servants in wealthy white households (Reyhmer & Eder, 2017). This seems to be, then, government sanctioned child trafficking for the benefit of the social and political elite. There were federally funded reservation schools governed by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. However, residential schools were significantly underfunded with dire outcomes for children attending these schools. These schools framed education from Western, Eurocentric framing and purpose was seen by First Nations leaders as primarily vocational training for a workforce rather than to "create good human beings who live a balanced life" (White, 2015, p. 167). It is not surprising that children who come from communities with a different orientation toward the world and pedagogy would suffer. It was not until the late 1960s and 1970s when Indigenous leaders, teachers, and activists began a committed campaign for self-determination for First Nations communities to change education for their children.

Cordova (2007) explains that for First Nations children the family is not only the "nuclear" family defined by Eurocentric standards, but all members of the community:

> The "community" includes not only the family but the surrounding environment. One learns to be aware of one's actions and their consequences toward other people but toward the "ground" one inhabits. There is an assumption about what it is to be human that underlies all of this training of how to be human (p. 81).

Survival Schools
Developed by Indigenous activists from the American Indian Movement in the 1970s as an alternative to public schools and the federal Bureau of Indian Affairs residential schools. These schools formed to help Indigenous children take pride in their cultural heritage, learn their languages, and survive within dominant cultures and ideologies that are disorienting to Indigenous worldviews.

The embodied alienating experience Indigenous children feel when they enter what Cordova describes as a "parallel universe" where "the trees, the mountains, the air–the physical place–may be the same; the philosophical is not. In order to counter these acute and harmful effects on Indigenous children, Indigenous parents, teachers and activists designed survival schools to counteract these symptoms of extreme disorientation. One survival school is the Akwesasne Freedom School which was established in 1979 on a reservation in New York State. Mohawk is the primary language of instruction and all members of the community volunteer in the maintenance of the school. The primary goals are to:

> produce and maintain fluent Mohawk speakers; instill responsibility, independence, and a positive self-concept; foster respect for Elders and the knowledge they possess; develop pride in and understanding and practice of Haudenosaunee customs and values; ensure the continuation of

> Haudenosaunee Seven Generations philosophy (all decisions must be considered in light of the consequences for the future seven generations); develop the skills required to function effectively in the over culture Western society. (White, 2015, p. 97-98).

There is a sense of hope now that a system of schooling designed to colonize, displace, and erase the myriad cultures and languages born from the world of the Americas has begun to be dismantled in a concentrated effort towards decolonization. Moreover, modern-day public schools and teachers are beginning to orient themselves toward the collective, social constructivist and community-centered pedagogical paradigm with a focus on experiential, project and problem based curricula, which resemble some aspects of the Indigenous pedagogies that have endured for thousands of years.

Watch and Discuss

A video from Akwesasne TV (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=85xidcNwLQM). This is an overview of the origins, development, and the current Akwesasne Freedom School (AFS). Take note of the pedagogical goals and compare the goals with the goals outlined in Table 4.1.

1. What are the goals of the AFS?
2. In what ways do the goals of AFS align with one or more of the alternative goals of education?
3. In what ways do the goals of AFs counter hegemonic goals?
4. What might you, as a future educator, learn from AFS that you can apply to your future classroom?

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

As the 19th century waned, the Protestant work ethic instilled from Puritanism had been internalized in the cultural and political zeitgeist in the Americas for over two and a half centuries. This work ethic indoctrinated individuals to internalize a job-oriented existential worldview, e.g., you are what your job is. Moreover, there were no compulsory education or child labor laws preventing the exploitation of child workers. At this time, the concept of "childhood" was primarily an affordance for affluent children. Adolescence was not even a socially defined sociological or psychological concept. Children and adolescents from working and underclass backgrounds were seen as "small adults" who could take up the risks of more dangerous unskilled labor tasks in factories or mills. Public schools during this time primarily focused on developing children's basic literacies and numeracies enough for them to effectively join the workforce usually at the end of 8th grade. The original goal of public education for democratic equality began to subside to an orientation for social efficiency. The exploitation of child labor

would continue until labor and social activists had enough gravitas to organize and resist the enormous inequities brought on by the industrialization of the Gilded Age–which became the Progressive Era in the early 20th century.

CHILD LABOR REFORM AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Child labor laws and women's suffrage were two pivotal social justice triumphs that marked the Progressive Era. Both these victories would also create a radical shift in public education in the early 20th century. Because the majority of teachers at this time were women, women's suffrage gave women more political and social capital. In 1916, four years prior to the 19th Amendment, The American Federation of Teachers was founded by teacher-activist Magaret Haley and educational philosopher John Dewey. Child Labor laws began in earnest at this same time with the Keating-Owen Act of 1916. In deference to capital interests, however, the Supreme Court overruled this act in 1918. It was not until the New Deal in response to the Great Depression that prohibited most child labor outside of agricultural sectors, which up to this day the policy has severely neglected regulations of agribusiness in terms of child labor especially with undocumented child laborers.

With the establishment of land-grant colleges and universities at the tail end of the 19th century combined with child labor laws in the early 20th century, there became an enormous need for secondary schools to transition youth from grammar, or elementary, schools to secondary schools that could prepare them for either employment or for higher education tracks. In the 19th century most secondary schools were private preparatory schools, or "prep schools," that served adolescents from affluent social classes and would prepare these students for admission into the private, elite schools at that time. **Parochial schools** also became more prevalent in response to the Protestant-oriented grammar schools' tacit connection to the King James version of the bible. Bishop John J. Hughes founded an independent Catholic school system after he lost his battle with New York City Board of Education to help subsidize Catholic parochial schools. The Catholic school system in New York City began to employ Irish Catholic women graduating from the normal schools from around New York State.

The birth of the secondary schools stemmed from the trends and policies that began to develop public universities across the United States. As a result, the differing goals of public education begin to compete with one another. Moneyed interests like the Carnegie Foundation also began in earnest to direct policy on public education toward social efficiency (Labaree, 1997a) which tends to favor skills-based **tracking** of students usually based off of standardized reading and math assessments. The Carnegie Foundation lobbied state and federal agencies for the development of **norm-referenced assessments**, like the SAT, to filter more "attractive" candidates for entrance into the growing public college and universities. Interestingly, non-profit foundations like the Carnegie Foundation became principal stakeholders in testing companies like Educational Testing Service (ETS) that have created these assessments to act as

Parochial School
A private, religious-based (usually Catholic) school for caregivers who preferred an alternative educational path to public schools. Many private, Catholic schools formed as a counter to public schools' implicit Protestant-oriented curriculum, e..g, the New England Primer with its overt connections to teaching children how to read and recognize the rhetorical patterns in the King James Bible.

Tracking
A system of using standardized tests as means for sorting students according to low, middle, and high ability groups–usually reading and math assessments. Once

students get placed into one of these ability tracks in elementary school it becomes increasingly more difficult for students to move out of these tracks in middle or high school.

Norm-Referenced Assessment
A standardized test comparing individual students with other students of the same age or grade.

Progressive Education
A pedagogical theory that emphasizes that the best way to learn is by doing. Progressive educators focus on having students do hands-on projects that mimic real-world applications of content.

gatekeepers for access to higher education. This becomes antithetical to social mobility goals because students who get tracked into remedial programs have a difficult time accessing curriculum that can prepare them for post-secondary education.

Despite this trend of gatekeeping access to higher education in the first half of the 20th century, the emergence of **progressive education** at the end of the 19th century helped counter this trend. Progressive education's emphasis on learning by doing and collaborative learning projects weaved social efficiency's hands-on learning for real-world application with democratic equalities more emancipatory focus on educating for successful participation in a democracy and life-long learning. For most of the first half of the 20th century, public schools developed with these two goals as primary goals as the primary policy of public education. In addition to these more explicit political goals of education, schools also functioned as institutions of social reproduction: children from working or under typically would fill the same jobs as their parents or caregivers. Most public education policies at this time were primarily controlled by local and state governments with very limited federal oversight. However, this would change at the conclusion of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War.

MEET THE THEORIST

David Labaree is Professor Emeritus from Stanford University. He has devoted an extensive amount of his scholarship as an educational historian focusing on public

Education in the United States. He is primarily concerned with how economic markets affect democratic education.

LISTEN & DISCUSS

A podcast from SchoolED Conversations about Education (and Everything Else) (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P0ouMfSZ_tg). An interview with Educational Historian Dr. David Labaree. Take note of the definition and write examples from your own educational experiences on Dr. Labaree goals for education:

- Social Mobility
- Social Efficiency
- Democratic Equality

After listening, share examples with peers. Try to explain these three goals with peers and provide a concrete example of each goal of education.

THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON PURPOSES OF SCHOOLING

At the beginning of the Cold War when the Soviet Union launched the satellite Sputnik in October of 1957, the United States felt compelled to act. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) was signed into law by President Eisnehower the following year. The overall goal of the NDEA was to solve the massive shortage of mathematicians in the United States. The shortage of workers in the science, technology, and math fields highly animated the United States' effort to compete with the Soviet Union in the space and arms race. In addition to funding science and math, the NDEA created funding for schools to invest in foreign languages other than Latin and Greek, which were prior to the NDEA a seminal part of the Liberal Arts curriculum of secondary schools and colleges. The NDEA would shift the public goals of education toward social efficiency goals at the expense of the other alternative goals of education like democratic equality and social mobility. The consequences of the policies undergirding the NDEA would further student tracking where schools placed students into stratified tracks according to abilities: remedial/vocational tracks, average tracks, and gifted and talented/honors tracks. The stratification of students based on standardized testing would go on to have enormous ramifications in education still being felt today.

CIVIL RIGHTS, DESEGREGATION, AND THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT

Brown v. Board of Education is a focal point in other chapters in this book, which only reinforces how this court ruling significantly changed public education in the U.S. Along with the NDEA, the landmark court ruling ended school segregation based on

race as unconstitutional and marked an new era of federal legislation and policymaking that significantly shaped public education. After the NDEA and Brown v. Board of Education, the Civil Rights era rose to make systemic changes to promote democratic equality for all. As a part of President Johnson's War on Poverty led to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 (ESEA).

Title I designated federal grants for schools serving low-income families and communities. With this legislation, this is one of the first explicit policies dedicated toward a goal of social mobility. Up until this time, most federal and state educational policies oriented toward more social efficiency and democratic equality goals. Directed funds under Title I were closely regulated to support programs for children in communities with high poverty as well as children with special needs that could not be properly supported by local and state funding. Title I continues as it continues to be reauthorized under each subsequent administration. However, as soon as this legislation was enacted, efforts to deregulate the mandates on who and what the funds must be spent began as American economic policy shifted from a well-regulated free-market with federal oversight toward neoliberal economic policies, which emphasized unregulated markets and privatization of public institutions like public schools.

Like Title I, Titles II-VI focused on specific infrastructural needs schools require in order to develop and maintain high quality education. Title II earmarked federal money for libraries, textbooks, and other media to support instruction. The remaining grants focused funding on educational centers, research and training, as well as funding to support Departments of Education in each state. In 1966, Title VI was amended and became Title VII, which designated specific funding for children with special needs. The following year, the Federal government amended Title VII to include funding to bilingual education programs and Title VII became Title VIII.

In 1972 as a part of ESEA amendments, Title IX became a law. Title IX prohibits discrimination based on sex in any school or educational program including school-sponsored sports. Like Brown v. Education, this law has enormous import not only in educational institutions, but larger cultural institutions like amateur and professional sports. This act gave every young girl opportunities to participate in school-related sports. Girls and young women were no longer relegated to spectators. We can still see the effects of Title IX. The exponential growth of women's college and professional athletics would not have been possible had it not been for Title IX. Title IX clearly outlines the continuing progress of actualizing democratic equality.

Magnet School
A public school that receives direct federal funding to support a school with specialized curriculum that can attract students from diverse geographies in

Despite desegregation in the late 1950s, public schools continued to be racially and economically segregated due to white flight to suburbs that were systematically redlined to segregate neighborhoods. Racial and economic segregation is a problem that continues to hinder goals for democratic equality. In order to combat the white flight and involuntary busing of children to create a more diverse student population, the reauthorization of ESEA implemented funding for **magnet schools** to draw and attract diverse student populations to the magnet program, which had competitive admissions for many magnet schools and specialized curriculum based on gifted and talented programs that were born out of the NDEA policies designed to locate, assess, and recruit "gifted" children for accelerated learning programs. The federal government

still funds development and implementation of magnet schools for the purposes of recruiting an economically and racially diverse student population.

order to have a diverse student population in terms of racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic status. The primary purpose is to support schools dedicated to desegregation.

The ESEA is the foundation of our current federal educational policy. Since its enactment, Congress need to reauthorize the programs and has been amended many different times under different names, some familiar and some not: Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA) in 1971, Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) in 1993, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) of 2001 (this legislation significantly altered Title I funding), and Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015. With each reauthorization and amendment, there has been a shift in orientation of public education as a public good in terms of democratic equality and social efficiency toward a framing of education as a private, commodified good that some could use as a mechanism for their own social mobility. However, with each amendment, education has been transformed from an unlimited public good into a private good, which becomes codified into law as a limited resource in order to transform education and its system of credentialing (high school diploma, bachelor's degree, master's, etc.) as economic commodities with an exchange value that can be bought and sold on an unregulated free market. Education, then, has become more transactional. Close readings of each and every reauthorization and amendment to the original ESEA reveal a hidden curriculum designed to maintain a **banking model** of education where schools continue to function as primary institutions of social reproduction of the economic classes in the U.S.. There is some social mobility for the lucky few who can navigate the trauma of poverty, the myriad of assessments designed as gatekeeping mechanisms, and the haunting reality of housing and food insecurity. Students who receive financial aid to attend college, university, or other post-secondary educational programs are usually not eligible to receive any other benefits like housing or food assistance. Therefore, for many young people living in poverty, they have to choose between shelter and food or post-secondary education with advanced technical training, which could move them out of poverty without being saddled with enormous student debt that would take decades to pay off.

Banking Model
A term coined educational theorist Paulo Theory that refers to an educational system that positions students as passive receptacle for teachers to deposit knowledge to be stored for a summative assessment. In this model, students do not have any agency and critical thinking is not valued, but, rather, there is a strong emphasis on rote memorization. Friere offers an example of testing students on what is the capital of France, but there is no exploration on what the concept of what a capital entails in terms of political or economic power.

NEOLIBERALISM AND PUBLIC EDUCATION POLICY FROM THE 1980S TO NOW

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education submitted a report to the Secretary of Education under President Reagan. Like Brown v. Board of Education and the NDEA. The report infamously titled A Nation at Risk would create an enormous shift in educational policy that would provide the framework for many of the local and national policies from the last 40 years like No Child Left Behind, Race to the Top, and "school choice" initiatives. A Nation at Risk would wrestle with the contradictions inherent in the social efficiency and social mobility goals and shift the inefficiencies of public education onto teachers and students rather than governmental policies that instructed how educational policies and funds should be directed for more democratic equality oriented goals. Beginning in the 1970s under President Nixon,

Block Grant
A federal grant from a larger governmental organization to more local governmental agencies where there is limited governmental oversight in how the aid gets spent.

Before the 1970s, schools received federal aid to develop school libraries with up-to-date books. However, during President Nixon's tenure the Department of Education designated these funds into block grants. As a result, state and local governments diverted aid to libraries to other projects leaving most libraries with out-dated texts and media.

Neoliberal(ism)
A political and economic ideology that advocates for deregulation of the free market. It advocates for privatization of the public commons, like schools or other public infrastructures, because it assumes that privatization is more economically efficient than nationally or locally run public entities.

educational funding shifted to **block grants**, which gave states more autonomy in how the funds for education would be spent and allocated. Block grants began to deregulate educational policy and gave local and state governments enormous power on how funds were to be allocated with limited oversight. Much of the ideological shift toward **neoliberalism** would leave educational policy and funding to more unregulated free-market policies.

The overall organizational structure of public schools is relatively consistent across the U.S. School systems are top-down organizations that resemble the top-down decision making organizational systems of private corporations. The U.S. The Department of Education oversees federal policies of education like ESEA reauthorizations and congressional amendments to the different Titles I-IX. Each state has a department of education which creates learning standards for all students, oversees credentialing and licensure of teachers and educational specialists, and decides how they will use assessments to measure student and school achievement. There are different organizational structures that govern public schools locally: a district, county, or city/town school boards. This top-down and decision-making structure has not changed since Horace Mann outlined the plan and purpose of the common school era in the 19th century. The political and professional managerial classes are the primary decision makers in the allocation of funds for maintenance and curriculum of schools. Teachers have made inroads in gaining more agency in their own curricular decisions; however, most governance of public schools with some input by practicing educators and teacher unions are made by those in positions of power: superintendents, principals, and elected school boards. Local school boards and superintendents are responsible for allocating funds to support the development and maintenance of each public school.

State funding for public schools differs from each state. Some states dedicate more funds for public schools than others. Additionally, each state uses different revenue sources for funding education in the form of personal or corporate income taxes, sales taxes, "vice" taxes on tobacco and alcohol, and/or lotteries. Most revenue for schools, however, come from local revenue sources–most notable property taxes. There is a large disparity in funding schools. The revenue and tax base of different communities varies widely. Affluent communities can dedicate more resources for schools than more impoverished communities with limited revenue. This description, however, up until now has been more abstract. Context and community shape each school.Geography and relative location to urban centers significantly influence how different locations maintain schools that can meet the needs of each unique community. Rural, urban, and suburban schools have unique affordances and challenges in educating youth..

RURAL EDUCATION

If one was to walk the halls of a rural school, it might feel like a travel back into the past. Most rural schools were formed from the school consolidation out of the sporadic one-room school houses and common schools at the turn of the 20th century. Most of the school buildings of central schools which house grades K-12 were built at this time. Most rural communities and schools rely on a strong agricultural economic sector. Agriculture

and farming have significantly shaped the school calendar, start times, and curriculum of rural schools. Many after-school programs like 4-H and Future Farmers of America, which receive funding from the U.S. The Department of Agriculture developed to help educate and support children growing up in rural areas. The educational goals for rural schools are more overt in terms of social efficiency and social reproduction of its economic base that heavily relies on agriculture and farming, which includes sustenance farming.

Rural schools also operate as cultural hubs and play a key infrastructural role in community planning and organization for rural communities. Because of the central roles rural, public schools play in connecting, maintaining, and sustaining a strong sense of community and solidarity amongst community members, it is of particular importance for robust support for rural schools. Rural schools are more than the sum of its parts and require an analysis of their impact and value beyond a cost-benefit analysis based on profitability and exchange value. Rural schools have a critical, social value that is unique for each community. Rural schools are central in combating **brain drain**, or capital flight, which occurs when members of the community leave the community for better economic opportunities. Brain drain typically results where rural communities lose skilled professions, e.g., doctors, teachers, engineers, etc, that are critical in maintaining a high quality of life for everyone living in these areas.

Brain Drain
A type of capital flight or migration of highly trained individuals to another region. This creates a region that does not have enough highly trained individuals to meet the needs of a community. For example, rural areas have a difficult time retaining medical professionals to provide service to the members of the community.

URBAN EDUCATION

Urban schools formed, developed , and grew alongside the growing urban areas that grew out of the industrialization of the 19th century. Urban areas grew into critical hubs for finance and industry until the 1970s. Like the urban areas that surround these schools, urban schools have been in infrastructural decay since the deindustrialization of the 1970s when large sectors of manufacturing moved their base of production overseas for cheaper labor. The major source of tax revenue for urban schools left as well. In addition, the federal block grants that gave individual states more authority to choose how to use federal funds for education allowed state governments to stop adequately funding public schools in urban areas. Rather than prioritizing urban schools, many states chose to divert these funds to prioritize the development of the growing suburbs throughout the 1950s to the turn of the 21st century, which required building a plethora of new elementary, middle, and high schools.

Urban schools still face enormous challenges in finding revenue to maintain their buildings which have been in a state of continual disrepair since the 1970s. Moreover, since the neoliberal turn toward privatization of public schools, urban schools have to face additional challenges in obtaining revenue as **charter schools** have become more common in urban areas. Charter schools receive public funding at the expense of public schools; however, charter schools are significantly less regulated in terms of curriculum and hiring teachers. Gentrification is another challenge for schools and teachers. The process of gentrification displaces working and low-income families out of their neighborhoods because they can no longer afford to live in these neighborhoods. Despite these enormous challenges, urban schools along with a caring cadre of professional and

Charter School
A school that receives government funding but can operate with much autonomy from a local school district. Charter schools have autonomy in

hiring teachers, who may not need professional licensure, and curriculum.

highly qualified teachers continue to organize in local, urban schools. Urban schools have access to infrastructure that rural schools do not have. Urban areas have already built the infrastructure for public transportation and digital communications–many urban areas support free, public wi-fi. Moreover, urban schools are nestled within vibrant centers of art and culture like museums and performing arts centers.

SUBURBAN EDUCATION

Suburban schools are a relatively new phenomenon in the history of American education. The development and maintenance of suburbs require a significant amount of resources like roads, water, sewer, energy. The resources needed to maintain and sustain suburban areas vastly and unsustainably exceed the resources needed to maintain either rural or urban areas. Moreover, since single-family housing is the dominant feature of suburbs, there is not a sufficient population and tax-base to support continual maintenance and development of suburban areas. Tax revenue continues to squeeze suburban communities as different departments like police, fire, and schools compete for decreasing funds due to continuous tax cuts and relief for the wealthy and private corporations since the 1980s. It is clear suburban communities need robust city planning and management in order to sustain these areas socially, economically, and ecologically.

Public schools in suburban areas can draw on the affordances available to rural and urban communities. Schools can be hubs for community organization and support like in rural schools. Suburban schools also benefit from having more modernized infrastructural development like buildings and digital communication technology. Suburban schools also have easier access to cultural and performing arts centers. Suburban schools need professional and caring teachers willing to be active members in these communities to help solve the sustainability issues suburban communities face.

CONCLUSIONS AND MAPPING THE FUTURE OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Equitable public education is an ongoing process. As educators, we cannot rest until all young people regardless of race, ethnicity, economic class, language, and ability have access to high-quality education. The promise of public education needs to foreground goals of democratic equality since democracy does not compete nor negate social efficiency or social mobility goals. More importantly, democratic equality attempts to lessen the harm inflicted by hegemonic goals that force assimilation or erasure. We should maintain a critical stance to their own pedagogical practices and be vigilant at identifying the hidden curriculum involved in our unit and lesson development. We should always be asking ourselves two main questions whenever we design any activity, lesson, or unit: Is this emancipatory for the students, community and myself as an educator? Or is this oppressive for the students, community, or myself as an educator?

Post-Reading Activities and Consolidating Understanding:

1. Choose the elementary, middle, or high school you attended. Do historical research on your school. When did it get built? What were the historical rationale for building the school? What types of funding did your school receive? Why? In what ways does your community commit to sustaining the school for future children?
2. Attend your local school board meeting. What types of decisions does the board make in terms of funding, hiring and retaining faculty and staff, and curriculum?

GLOSSARY

Assimilation: A sociological concept where people from different ethnic backgrounds adopt traits of the dominant cultural group, e.g., adopting the dominant language, dialect, religion, etc.

Banking Model: A term coined educational theorist Paulo Theory that refers to an educational system that positions students as passive receptacle for teachers to deposit knowledge to be stored for a summative assessment. In this model, students do not have any agency and critical thinking is not valued, but, rather, there is a strong emphasis on rote memorization. Friere offers an example of testing students on what is the capital of France, but there is no exploration on what the concept of what a capital entails in terms of political or economic power.

Block Grant: A federal grant from a larger governmental organization to more local governmental agencies where there is limited governmental oversight in how the aid gets spent. Before the 1970s, schools received federal aid to develop school libraries with up-to-date books. However, during President Nixon's tenure the Department of Education designated these funds into block grants. As a result, state and local governments diverted aid to libraries to other projects leaving most libraries with out-dated texts and media.

Brain Drain: A type of capital flight or migration of highly trained individuals to another region. This creates a region that does not have enough highly trained individuals to meet the needs of a community. For example, rural areas have a difficult time retaining medical professionals to provide service to the members of the community.

Charter School: A school that receives government funding but can operate with much autonomy from a local school district. Charter schools have autonomy in hiring teachers, who may not need professional licensure, and curriculum.

Common School: A 19th century public school, typically grades 1 through 8 that focuses on basic literacy and math skills, e.g., reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Erasure: A systematic removal of a group of people or aspects of a culture to make it seem the people or culture never existed or exists currently. One example of cultural erasure is most depictions of Indigenous peoples have been romanticized historical narratives, while current narratives ignore Indigenous peoples or act as if they no longer exist in the present.

Gentrification: A socioeconomic process of changing the character of a neighborhood by attracting more affluent residents to the area. The process of gentrification raises the cost of housing, which forces working-class residents with less economic resources to relocate. Many of these residents have been a part of this community for generations.

Hegemony: The systematic maintenance of oppression of a group or groups of people over another for the purposes of exerting dominance–ideologically, socially, politically, or economically.

Land-Grant Colleges and Universities: Federal legislation designating public land for the specific purposes of building public colleges and universities.

Magnet School: A public school that receives direct federal funding to support a school with specialized curriculum that can attract students from diverse geographies in order to have a diverse student population in terms of racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic status. The primary purpose is to support schools dedicated to desegregation.

Meritocracy: A system that rewards advancement based on individual achievement or ability rather than rewarding advancement based on political or economic connections of family and friends.

Neoliberal(ism): A political and economic ideology that advocates for deregulation of the free market. It advocates for privatization of the public commons, like schools or other public infrastructures, because it assumes that privatization is more economically efficient than nationally or locally run public entities.

Normal Schools: Preparatory secondary, or "high" schools to train young adults as teachers in public school in the 19th and early 20th centuries.

Norm-Referenced Assessment: A standardized test comparing individual students with other students of the same age or grade.

Occidental: Relating to western or European peoples and cultures.

Political Economy: A term from political science and economics that focuses on studying the interactions of market, or national, economies and their intersections with political systems and government.

Parochial School: A private, religious-based (usually Catholic) school for caregivers

who preferred an alternative educational path to public schools. Many private, Catholic schools formed as a counter to public schools' implicit Protestant-oriented curriculum, e..g, the New England Primer with its overt connections to teaching children how to read and recognize the rhetorical patterns in the King James Bible.

Preparatory Schools: Private, tuition-based boarding schools designed to prepare affluent youth for higher education in elite, private universities.

Progressive Education: A pedagogical theory that emphasizes that the best way to learn is by doing. Progressive educators focus on having students do hands-on projects that mimic real-world applications of content.

Survival Schools: Developed by Indigenous activists from the American Indian Movement in the 1970s as an alternative to public schools and the federal Bureau of Indian Affairs residential schools. These schools formed to help Indigenous children take pride in their cultural heritage, learn their languages, and survive within dominant cultures and ideologies that are disorienting to Indigenous worldviews.

Tracking: A system of using standardized tests as means for sorting students according to low, middle, and high ability groups–usually reading and math assessments. Once students get placed into one of these ability tracks in elementary school it becomes increasingly more difficult for students to move out of these tracks in middle or high school.

FIGURES

New England Primer is in the Public Domain

Oneonta Normal School Yearbook provided by SUNY Oneonta Milne Library Archives is in the Public Domain

Student Teaching Observation (1902) provided by SUNY Oneonta Milne Library Archives is in the Public Domain

Student Teaching Observation (1902) provided by SUNY Oneonta Milne Library Archives is in the Public Domain

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5

What Do We Know: Assessment of Teaching and Learning

Loren Jones; Shannon Kane; Sarah Morris; and Margaret Peterson

Before We Read

Before we read, reflect on how assessments have impacted your learning. What aspects of assessments did you find helpful? Challenging? What qualities do you think make an assessment effective? Take a few minutes to skim the chapter headings and subheadings and consider what you already know about assessment. What are the different types and purposes of assessment? How can assessments be used to inform and improve teaching and learning? What are some ethical considerations when designing and implementing assessments? Finally, consider the different stakeholders involved in assessment (teachers, students, parents, administrators, district leaders). What are their perspectives on assessment? By engaging with these questions before diving into the chapter, you will activate your prior knowledge and be better prepared to understand the complex concepts related to assessment.

Critical Questions For Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: What are some ethical considerations when designing and implementing assessments? How can educators work to limit assessment bias? **And** consider the different stakeholders involved in assessment (teachers, students, parents, administrators). What are their perspectives on assessment?

DEFINING ASSESSMENT AND ITS CHALLENGES

Assessments in public schools have long been a topic of discussion and debate, with stakeholders ranging from policymakers to educators, parents, and students expressing

various opinions and concerns. Recently, the media has played a significant role in shaping public discourse around assessments and their impact on the education system. For example, consider the Edweek headline, "Two Decades of Progress, Nearly Gone: National Math, Reading Scores Hit Historic Lows" (Edweek, October 24, 2022), or NPR's headline U.S. reading and math scores drop to lowest level in decades. These headlines, though, portray a distorted public perception of teaching and learning in today's classrooms. One might read this headline and believe our school systems, administrators, and teachers are "not good enough," but the truth is much more complicated. Rather than capturing the day-to-day functioning of the classroom, high-stakes assessments are generally imposed upon teachers rather than created by them. As such, the assessments and headlines don't accurately capture the progress and performance of our students. When reading headlines related to schools and assessments, it is essential to be critical consumers of media messages.

Consider that the headline examples above, and many others, label schools as "failing" based on a single metric–a standardized test score. However, the focus is just on specific numbers and not a nuanced understanding of factors that influence these numbers, such as socioeconomic background, limited English proficiency, or special needs students. These complexities are rarely addressed and considered. Also, remember that standardized tests are snapshots in time, not measures of long-term progress. A school might slightly dip in scores one year but steadily improve overall. The media rarely considers these trends or highlights schools that are making significant gains year after year. Additionally, changes in test scores can have multiple explanations. Media portrayals often paint a simplistic picture of progress or decline. A score dip could be due to a temporary disruption or a shift in curriculum focus, not necessarily a failing school system.

Media outlets might also select data points that fit a pre-existing narrative. For instance, they might focus on a single grade level's decline or highlight achievement gaps without acknowledging progress in other areas. An unfair and inaccurate picture of performance is given by cherry-picking data and excluding information that discredits the narrative being told. Finally, as also discussed in chapter one, media portrayals often pit schools against each other or blame teachers. These actions can create a hostile environment and distract from the real work of improving education. Focusing on collaboration and solutions, rather than negativity and finger-pointing, would be far more productive.

Assessment data should be an important tool for educators, but it can and often is misinterpreted by the media. The inaccurate or misinterpreted use of data by the media has historically led to a distorted public perception of the teaching and learning going on in classrooms. Typically, what's highlighted in the news is external to the day-to-day functioning of a school or classroom. It is generally imposed upon teachers rather than created by them. The assessments discussed by mainstream media are not used to inform/shape classroom instruction. Instead, the type of data focused on by the media and splashed across headlines is often tied to the academic status of schools and districts, regardless of accuracy. We'll discuss some kinds of assessments and their uses in the following sections.

NORM-REFERENCED VERSUS CRITERION-REFERENCED ASSESSMENTS

Teachers and educational researchers use various assessment tools to gauge student learning and inform instructional decisions. However, these tools differ in their fundamental purpose and how they interpret performance. Two of the main approaches are norm-referenced assessments and criterion-referenced assessments.

Norm-Referenced Assessments:

- Focus: Compare a student's score to the performance of a specific group (norm group).
- Interpretation: Scores indicate percentile ranks or standardized scores (e.g., z-scores), revealing how students stand relative to their peers.
- Examples: DIEBLS, ITBS SAT, ACT, State Achievement Tests
- Strengths: Useful for ranking students, identifying gifted students, and making placement decisions.
- Weaknesses: Do not directly measure mastery of specific learning objectives, are susceptible to **test bias** and anxiety, and have limited information about individual strengths and weaknesses. For some norm-referenced assessments, teachers do not receive scores until the summer or early fall the following year which means the data cannot be used to inform instruction. Additionally, the gap between the assessment and receiving scores fails to account for student progression or regression that may have occurred.

Criterion-Referenced Assessments:

- Focus: Compare a student's score to a predetermined standard or criterion (learning objective).
- Interpretation: Scores indicate mastery or non-mastery of specific skills or knowledge domains.
- Examples: Rubrics, performance assessments, portfolios, exit tickets, and quizzes/tests aligned to learning objectives.
- Strengths: Provide direct information about individual learning progress, guide instructional planning, inform targeted interventions, and promote mastery learning.
- Weaknesses: Less useful for comparing students to peers, requires careful development of clear criteria, and may be subjective.

Choosing the Right Tool

Selecting the 'right' approach depends on the assessment's specific goals and intended purpose(s). Norm-referenced assessments offer valuable insights for large-scale comparisons and rankings, while criterion-referenced assessments provide targeted feedback for personalized learning. Issues typically arise not from the assessment type but from the misuse or misrepresentation of the information gathered. When used correctly, both types of assessments can provide different pictures of student performance that support instructional planning.

FORMATIVE AND SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENTS

Working to create learning environments that foster growth and understanding is a primary goal of all educators. Assessments can provide valuable insights into student learning and support creating a robust learning environment. However, successfully navigating the world of assessments means understanding key concepts, such as formative and summative, and how each plays a distinct role in effective teaching.

Formative assessments are informal, ongoing checks for understanding. The main goal of formative assessments is to identify areas of strength and weakness in students' grasp of the material. This allows you to adapt your teaching strategies quickly, providing targeted support and differentiated instruction to address individual needs. Examples include exit tickets, quick quizzes, observations, and peer feedback. The key is providing timely and specific feedback that helps students progress. By providing constructive and timely feedback, we can adjust our teaching strategies to address individual needs and ensure everyone stays on track. **Summative assessments** measure student learning at the culmination of a unit, grade/course. They aim to measure student achievement against predetermined learning objectives and standards. Examples include exams, projects, presentations, or standardized tests. While summative assessments can provide valuable data on overall learning outcomes, they often occur after the learning has already happened, limiting the opportunity to influence the learning process directly.

The key to success lies in integrating both forms of assessment. Formative assessments inform your teaching, allowing you to individualize instruction, differentiate learning activities, and provide targeted support. This targeted support ultimately leads to improved performance on summative assessments, providing a comprehensive picture of student learning at the end of the learning cycle. Here are some practical takeaways related to formative and summative assessment:

- **Embed formative assessments regularly:** Use various strategies to gather ongoing information about student learning.
- **Focus on feedback:** Provide clear, actionable feedback to help students better understand both their strengths and areas for improvement.
- **Use formative data to inform instruction:** Adapt your teaching based on

student needs identified through formative assessments.

- **Balance formative and summative assessments:** Utilize both to create a holistic picture of student learning and growth.

Assessments should not simply be about collecting data or assigning grades; they are about using data to inform and improve the learning process for every student. By strategically employing formative and summative assessments, you can create a dynamic learning environment where feedback, support, and growth go hand in hand.

Key Differences: Formative vs Summative Assessments

Formative Assessment	**Feature**	**Summative Assessment**
Identify areas of understanding	Purpose	Measure overall achievement
Throughout instruction	Timing	End of unit/course/program
Informal (e.g., discussions, exit tickets)	Formality	Formal (e.g., exams, projects)
Low or no stakes	Grading	High stakes (often contribute to grades)
Immediate and targeted	Feedback	May be delayed or general

CONNECTING ASSESSMENT AND INSTRUCTION

Ideally, assessment and instruction should not be considered separately but instead viewed as two interconnected concepts that support student learning. Though assessment typically conjures images of tests and grades, it should instead be thought of as the ability to inform and guide instruction that supports student learning and mastery. Unlike summative assessments that gauge final achievement, formative assessments provide continuous feedback. Through observations, discussions, quizzes, and self-reflections, formative assessments provide teachers with insights into students' strengths, weaknesses, and misconceptions. Ideally, this data informs instructional decisions, allowing teachers to:

- Differentiate instruction by providing targeted support for struggling students and challenging activities for advanced learners.
- Modify lesson plans to incorporate different teaching strategies, catering to diverse learning styles and preferences.
- Identify and clarify misunderstandings before they solidify, preventing knowledge gaps from widening.
- Encourage students to reflect on their learning.

Effective assessment goes beyond simply collecting data; it's about providing meaningful

feedback. Meaningful feedback needs to be timely, specific, and actionable. Feedback can:

- Focus on particular strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement rather than simply assigning grades.
- Provide concrete suggestions for students to apply in their learning.
- Be specific to individual student needs.

When students are actively involved in the assessment process, they can take greater ownership in their learning. This can be achieved through:

- Empowering students to reflect on their learning progress and set personal goals.
- Creating space for students to give and receive peer feedback fosters critical thinking and communication skills.
- They are utilizing collaborative assessments where students work together.

The connection between assessment and instruction should not be a one-time event but a continuous cycle. Teachers use assessment data to inform instruction and refine their assessment practices. This iterative process ensures that assessments remain aligned with learning objectives and provide meaningful feedback for both teachers and students. Assessment and instruction should not be considered independent entities but two sides of the same coin. Teachers create an effective learning environment that informs instruction and refines assessment by leveraging formative assessment, providing effective feedback, and fostering student involvement.

ASSESSMENT DRIVEN INSTRUCTION

In order for assessments to act as a guide for planning and teaching, teachers must first be clear about, and then plan for, what students will actually learn in a lesson or unit. Then, teachers must be clear about what assessment of that learning actually measures. Assessments begin with planning for teaching and learning, meaning that during planning, a clear "criterion for success" needs to be specifically named. Knowing the criterion for success means that a teacher can envision what mastery of a particular skill looks like and ways mastery can be illustrated by a learner. Too often planning falls short of naming specifically enough how a learner can illustrate mastery of a concept, and sometimes that leads to assessments that do not do a good job of measuring the actual learning sought. For example, a lesson objective states that at the end of the lesson, a student should be able to skip count by 3's to 99. Then within the lesson students practice skip counting orally from 3-99. The assessment for that lesson should match the learning sought, so if students are asked to fill in the multiples of 3 on a chart, this isn't an exact match for the learning in the lesson. A written assessment of the skill of skip counting adds in assessment of number formation, or the ability to place the numbers in a chart. This keeps this assessment from providing a good snapshot

of student learning, because of the mismatch between what and how students learned something and how they are asked to show they have learned it.

In the late 1990s, Researchers Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe called the idea of planning for teaching by first thinking about learning, **Backwards Design**. They described this kind of planning as a way to foreground what students would know or be able to do at the end of a learning segment. They argued that the "output" of learning and teachers' assessments of it, were far more important than planning that focused on what the teacher would do in a lesson. This may not sound like a groundbreaking perspective, but it is an important perspective shift to be able to foreground learning (the output) rather than teaching (the input). For teachers, this means that before planning begins, they must "think a great deal, first, about the specific learnings sought, and the evidence of such learnings" (Bowen, 2017). The evidence of learning is the basis for thinking about how a teacher can assess student learning to provide meaningful information. This shift to foregrounding learning also means that we plan for learning "before thinking about what we, as the teacher, will do or provide in teaching and learning activities" (Bowen, 2017). So, for teachers in the field, this means there is a need to become more specific about what real evidence of learning looks like; what is actually being assessed, in order to create classrooms that are assessment driven and where student learning can be seen.

Backwards Design
A way to design units and lessons that begins at the desired results based on learning goals or content, or literacy, standards and then gathers evidence of learning based on performance or project-oriented assessments.

OVERVIEW OF ASSESSMENT – COMMON ASSESSMENTS IN CLASSROOMS

Considering the importance of assessment and the many ways it is used to both guide and gauge progress in teaching and learning, we'll turn now to common classroom assessments and to the types of learning they are designed to assess. We've divided these assessments into two categories here. The first category encompasses assessment of knowledge and skills related to content; the second category encompasses assessments of learner attitudes, beliefs and self awareness of how they relate to a content or topic.

Overview of Common Classroom Assessments

Assessing Content Related Knowledge and Skills	**Purposes**	**Common Classroom Examples**
Assessing Prior Knowledge, Recall, and Understanding *What do students already know or believe about this topic?*	Guiding of planning, teaching and pacing, grouping of students.	KWL, entrance ticket, mind map around the focus topic, soliciting oral responses to questions
Assessing Skill in Analysis and Critical Thinking *Do students understand the related parts, concepts, issues of the content they are learning?*	Guiding of teaching, formative assessment of content, formative assessment of depth or complexity of understanding.	Schematic drawings, process maps, webs and extended mind maps, short writing about the topic, outlines
Assessing Skill in Synthesis and Creative Thinking *Do students understand, and can they apply knowledge of the content in their own ways?*	Guiding of teaching, formative assessment of content, formative assessment of depth or complexity of understanding, formative assessment of mastery.	Reenactments, synthesis and summary writing, essay, creating a play illustrating the content, creating illustrations of the content, extending a story, comparing two ideas or situations.
Assessing Skill in Problem Solving *Do students have skills to identify types of problems they are solving? Do students have multiple algorithms, or strategies for solving the problem? Can students solve the problems by applying solutions in novel ways?*	Guiding of teaching, formative assessment of skill development, assessment of content, formative assessment of depth and complexity of understanding, practice of application of strategies.	Student Think Aloud, solving problems and showing your work, collaborative work to solve problems and explain thinking behind problem solving.
Assessing Skill in Application and Performance *Can students apply skills in new settings, can they use a number of skills together to accomplish a task, even when skills are learned in a new setting?*	Guiding of long-term planning, Summative assessment of content, summative assessment of application of new knowledge and skills.	Performance based tasks including writing, demonstrating, performing, reenactment, explanations, posters, reports, presentations
Assessing Learner Attitudes, Beliefs, Values and Self Awareness	Purposes	Common Classroom Examples
Assessing Students' Awareness of Their Attitudes and Values	Aid student to see what they must "unlearn" to begin to develop new knowledge and skills. Consider beliefs, biases and attitudes that will make it more difficult for students to learn new skills and develop new knowledge.	Interest surveys and inventories, KWL charts, reflective writing, class discussion, conferences, ratings
Assessing Students' Self-Awareness as Learners	Helps students to know about themselves as learners. Builds student skills in gauging their successes as learners.	Student surveys, reflections on learning,learning target discussions, evaluative discussion of models, discussing and co-creating criteria
Assessing Course-Related Learning and Study Skills, Strategies, and Behaviors	Help students to develop strategies to strengthen learning of specific skills and application of skills and knowledge	Student surveys and inventories, reflective writing, discussion and explication of learning processes

VALIDITY, RELIABILITY OF ASSESSMENT

Validity and reliability are two key concepts related to assessment. These terms indicate the quality and accuracy of measurement tools, ensuring that the data collected is meaningful, trustworthy, and helpful in making informed decisions. Understanding these concepts is fundamental for creating assessments that accurately measure their intended purpose.

Validity refers to how accurately a conclusion or measurement reflects what is being assessed. In other words, does the assessment assess the construct or concept it claims to assess? For example, if a literacy test claims to measure students' comprehension skills, its validity would be questioned if it primarily tests phonics. Validity can be assessed through various methods, such as criterion-related and construct validity. **Criterion-related validity** examines the relationship between the assessment scores and some external criterion, such as performance in real-world situations. **Construct validity** evaluates whether the assessment accurately measures the underlying theoretical construct it is designed to measure.

Criterion-Related Validity
This is the extent to which an assessment is related to a purported outcome. For example, SAT and ACT exams claim validity because the scores correlate, or predict, college GPA.

Construct Validity
How accurately a test measures a concept that the test designed to measure. Capacity measures like the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test claim to have a construct validity in that the test creators claim the test measures cognitive abilities free from co-variants like sociocultural or environmental factors.

Reliability is the extent to which a set of results or interpretations can be generalized over time, across tasks, and among interpreters of assessment information. A reliable assessment tool produces consistent results when repeatedly administered under the same conditions. It should yield similar scores for individuals with the same trait or ability level. Reliability can be determined through different methods such as test-retest reliability and parallel forms reliability. Test-retest reliability involves administering the same assessment to a group on different occasions and looking for consistency of scores across administrations. Parallel forms reliability involves administering two equivalent forms of the same assessment to the same group of individuals and examining the consistency of scores between the two forms.

Valid and reliable assessments are essential for accurately evaluating students' knowledge, skills, and abilities in education. They inform teachers about students' strengths and weaknesses, guide instructional planning, and facilitate evidence-based decision-making. Valid and reliable assessments also play a crucial role in research, ensuring that the data collected is credible and can be used to draw meaningful conclusions and advance knowledge in various fields. By upholding high standards of validity and reliability, practitioners can enhance the credibility, utility, and effectiveness of assessment tools in their classrooms.

SOME COMMON ASSESSMENTS

In this section, you will learn about some assessment tools that are commonly used in K-12 classrooms. Some of these are assessments you may even have completed yourself as a student. Some are used nationally across many K-12 districts, such as DIBELS and WIDA Access testing, and some are specific to states, and are used, as required by federal laws, as large scale assessments to try to measure and track educational achievement in specific subject areas, such as reading or math.

DIBELS

First developed by researchers at the University of Oregon in the 1970's, DIBELS assessments were initially designed to help show beginning phonemic awareness in kindergarten through 3rd grade. Additional subtests developed over decades now focus on assessing many foundational skills for reading in kindergarten through 8th grade students. In one test students are asked to identify the sounds heard at the beginning of common words; to sound out and decode nonsense words, but all DIBELS assessments are designed to "detect risk," meaning to monitor the ongoing progress of readers and identify gaps in foundational literacy skills. DIBELS have been redesigned to assess all of the foundational skills needed for reading development, identified by the National Reading Panel in 2000 (Learning Point, 2004). DIBELS seeks to assess students' ongoing proficiency with the foundational skills of phonemic awareness, phonics. fluency, vocabulary development and comprehension.

Though this assessment is still used widely, it's important to note that there have been many critiques of DIBELs over the years including the fact that the tests are designed to assess extremely specific skills readers use, but that exist within complicated processes for learning to read. For example one of DIBELS assessments asks students to decode made up syllables, which critics say may remove contexts of language, and motivation for a reader, adding to miscues and over identification of reading delays or need for remediation.

WIDA Access Testing

WIDA stands for World-class Instructional Design and Assessment, and comes from researchers at the University of Wisconsin, Madison and their ACCESS test is widely used in the US to assess English language proficiency levels for students identified as English Language Learners (ELL). The assessment is used to help to discern several key pieces of language learning, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. Scores are used to help identify the kinds of instruction that an ELL will need to increase their English proficiency across all of the language domains.

ACCESS testing is designed to show the progress a student has made and is given at the beginning of a school year and near the end of a school year to help provide important information about how, and in what language domain, a student is progressing well, or not.

ACCESS scores, which range from 1 or "entering" and 6 or "reaching," are used to determine when and if a student can "exit" services mandated as English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Though several states use a lower score to allow students to stop receiving ESOL services. The designation as an English Language Learner, most often decided by scores on a WIDA Access test, means that a student is legally entitled to receive ESOL services and can not be denied those services until they are able to show they have gained the necessary skills for proficiency in English. Though, it should be noted that several states use a lower score to allow students to stop receiving ESOL services.

Advanced Placement Testing

Developed at the end of World War II, the goal of both the AP test and the introduction of college level coursework to high school classrooms was part of an effort to better and more quickly prepare students for college and career. In 1955 the College Board took over the administration of AP courses, and the AP tests themselves. From the original 11 topics; Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, English Composition, Literature, French, German, Spanish, and Latin, the College Board now offers AP tests in 34 subject areas.

Many colleges and universities recognize and will award college credit for scores above a 3 or 4 on AP tests for commensurate coursework. These credits may not count for degree completion in some cases and at several elite colleges, scores don't count at all. For example, Brown University, Dartmouth, Williams, and Cal Tech do not award credit for any AP test. As a result some high schools have begun to phase out, or have completely abandoned AP coursework. For example, in 2018, eight prestigious high schools including Georgetown Day, Holton-Arms, Landon, Maret, National Cathedral, Potomac, St. Albans and Sidwell Friends, announced they would completely phase out AP courses by 2022. Criticism of the Advanced Placement program has long centered around controversy that the tests are racially biased and that the coursework does not allow students and teachers to go in-depth into topics in ways a college course might.

Standardized Tests – A Lay of the Land – Looking Forward

All states in the United States that receive federal funds for education, which includes all states as well as the DODEA and Bureau for Indian Education and the District of Columbia, are required to gauge student achievement through the use of standardized tests of student learning. These tests are standardized in that they use a similar set of questions, and tests agreed upon skills. These tests are, to varying degrees, aligned with state curricula, to assess students at several points during elementary school and in multiple subjects during secondary public education.

There have been many efforts over the years to work to make education more a part of the federal standardized system and laws such as the ESEA, or Elementary and Secondary Education Act, have provided systems of rewards, and or penalties for states to support federal requirements. For a period of time beginning in 2010, the United States Department of Education worked to create a national set of standards called College and Career Readiness Standards, that also required a standardized test called by its acronym PARCC, or the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers. States could opt into the consortium and at its most popular, 22 states had signed on to use this common assessment and its constituent curriculum.

PARCC is now in use in only the District of Columbia, The Bureau of Indian Education and in DODEA, and there does not seem to be political will to build more standardization across states for assessments. A quick look at what standardized tests each state is using to gauge student achievement shows that many states have created their own state made and state administered tests including the Colorado Measures of Academic Success (CMACS) and the Florida Assessment for Student Thinking (FAST).

But many states, including California, Connecticut and Nevada have again signed on to a consortium of states using the Smarter Balanced Test which aligns with the older College and Career Readiness Standards and was developed with input from both teachers and higher education on test questions and content.

Standardized tests, while meant to show student learning, have been used in many states as a way of trying to assess teaching, with some states connecting teacher evaluations and pay to student outcomes on standardized tests. These models are flawed in multiple ways, as standardized test scores are positively correlated to family levels of education and socioeconomic status. Again assessments and tests, even large scale standardized tests are, at best, a snapshot of student learning and can tell us very little about instruction, or future achievement of students.

CONCLUSION

As we have discussed in earlier sections, tests and test scores often hold outsized influence on the lives of humans inside of classrooms. Teachers may be paid or promoted based on students' standardized test scores. Students may be retained at a specific grade level, or not gain admission to a college based on a test score. And though we know that tests used to gauge student learning often don't provide definitive information on student knowledge or learning, and that scores are often skewed based on race, socioeconomic status and on family educational attainment, teachers must become critical consumers of tests and assessments. Meaning that it is important to question test questions, to research who is profiting from tests and testing materials, and to be skeptical of results that disadvantage students. Still assessing is one of the most important skills any teacher can develop. Guided by questioning, as ongoing assessments of learning, quizzes, observations, and meaningful and qualitative evaluation of student work are all very important data needed to guide both teaching and learning, to identify risks to student learning and to help to remediate and enrich student learning.

MEET A SCHOLAR

Dr. Sonia Nieto (1943-) a leading scholar in multicultural education and advocate for educational equity, has played a crucial role in shaping critical conversations around educational assessments. Her work has helped draw attention to and highlight standardized tests' limitations and potential biases related to students from diverse backgrounds. While not directly involved in developing assessments, her work has profoundly influenced how educators approach and interpret these tools, emphasizing the importance of equity and fairness in assessments and advocating for approaches that accurately reflect individual strengths and needs.

The 'one-size-fits-all' approach to traditional assessments creates the potential to perpetuate educational inequities by disadvantaging students from marginalized backgrounds due to inherent biases. These biases can stem from cultural assumptions embedded in the language, content, and scoring criteria, leading to inaccurate representations of students' authentic abilities. Similar to instructional strategies, assessment methods should consider students' diverse learning styles and cultural backgrounds and allow students to demonstrate their understanding in meaningful ways. This overall approach to teaching and learning emphasizes the importance of:

- Utilizing authentic materials: Assessments should reflect students' cultural backgrounds and lived experiences, making them more relatable and engaging.
- Incorporating multiple assessment methods: Employing varying assessment tools, including performance-based tasks, portfolios, and self-reflection, to provide a well-rounded perspective beyond test scores of student learning.

- Considering cultural context: Recognizing the influence of cultural background on learning styles and communication preferences is crucial for interpreting assessment results accurately and avoiding misinterpretations.

Sonia Nieto has played a significant role in promoting inclusive and equitable education, including assessments. Her work continues to inspire educators and inform policymakers to create instructional systems that accurately reflect the diverse potential of all students. To learn more about Dr. Nieto's work on linguistic diversity, visit Chapter 5. Critical Discussion Questions

1. What are the unintended consequences of current assessment practices, and how can we mitigate them?
2. How can we effectively assess the complex skills and dispositions valued in 21st-century learning?
3. How can we create assessment systems that are culturally responsive and address the diverse needs of all learners?
4. How can we involve students in the assessment process to promote self-reflection, ownership of learning, and a growth mindset?

REFLECTION, METACOGNITION, AND ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENTS

One concern with assessment in many school forms is authenticity. As we have discussed in this chapter, assessment can serve many purposes: it can be used to classify and divide students into groups; it can be used to drive instruction; it can be used to shape curriculum; it can be used to generate revenue for textbook and educational resource companies. Assessment can be standardized and aligned with state or national curriculum.

But our students aren't all the same. They learn differently. What are we doing to assess those differences? And what are multiple ways students can SHOW their learning? In what ways can we use assessment to provide learners with more information about how they learn, so they can make choices and have agency in their learning?

Some scholars and teachers focus on metacognition and self-assessment as ways for students to be in charge of their own learning. Metacognition is, on a basic level, "thinking about thinking," or learning to understand one's own thought processes (Flavell, 1979). More specifically, metacognition requires learners to reflect and self-regulate in order to understand what they have learned and how they have learned it (Darling-Hammond, Austin, Cheung, and Martin, 2003). Reflection, as John Dewey claimed in 1933, is what generates learning, more so than experience alone. Metacognition and reflection can bring awareness and intentionality to learning and assessment of learning. As Taczak and Robertson (2017) argue, "when cognition and metacognition are accessed together through reflection, students are able to assess themselves," and this assists transfer of skills and knowledge to other settings and fields (p. 212).

Metacognitive assessments, then, allow learners to review their work, reflect on their progress toward goals, and predict their learning outcomes based on their

performance and understanding. They also allow learners to self-regulate by setting goals and plans for future learning. Portfolios are one example of metacognitive assessment, one that is holistic, student-centered, and developed over time. In this section, we will discuss a few types of alternative assessments, ones that include students' own thinking, self-assessment, and reflection.

ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENTS

Portfolios. Often used in writing classrooms, portfolios are purposeful collections of work that students curate along with reflection and analysis of their progress. Often portfolios are designed in collaboration between and among students and teachers, can be individualized for each learner, and show student growth and development toward learning goals over time. In the writing classroom, portfolios emphasize revision and the writing process over the final product. Students must review, categorize, analyze, organize, and plan how to show a reader not only what they learned, but how they learned it (Reynolds and Davis, 2014). In some situations, students are asked to document revisions, and most writing portfolios incorporate some element of reflective writing in order to describe, narrate,and explain the texts within the portfolio, considering a student's work as evidence of their growth (Yancey, 1998).

Accompanied by other means of assessment, such as those recommended by the National Council of Teachers of English (1993), including "narrative evaluations, written comments, dialogue journals, and conferences" portfolios can be individualized to each learner and involve the student as a participant in their own learning and assessment, thereby assisting in developing agency. Alongside portfolios as assessment, some teachers work with their students to design assignments and develop guidelines for assessment to counter typical classroom power structures (Reif, 1992). Doing so challenges the notion that teachers control the criteria for defining "good" work.

Student Designed Rubrics. We have discussed rubrics (and critiques of them) earlier in this chapter. Now, let's consider rubrics in which students have a say in design, evaluative criteria, and values. Grounded in constructivist principles, the act of designing a rubric as a class dwells in process space (rather than product focus) and relies on students effectively analyzing conventions of the genres they read and are expected to write, and then translating into their own words those conventions, aiding in transfer to their own writing. In assisting in identifying and defining assessment criteria, students are given agency and participate in co-constructed understandings that are made more powerful within the discourse community.

When combined with other strategies for writing, reflection, and revision within a discourse community, and used formatively over time, not only do student designed rubrics assist in reflection, self-assessment, and deep reading, they promote transfer. In the foundational text "Writing as a Mode of Learning," Janet Emig (1977) suggests that writing seeks "self-feedback," in that the process of writing, when students learn to write in a "familiar and available medium," they are better able to give themselves feedback (p. 125). The process of designing a rubric together can make visible the kind of "self-feedback" unique to writing and bring it into a collective sense of response, creating a

shared understanding of process, genre convention, and mode. In addition, the rubric becomes its own genre, that students can more easily access as readers in other contexts.

Put together, different forms of alternative assessments resist what Peter Elbow (1993) calls "forms of judgment" in classrooms, or practices that seek to rank, rather than truly evaluate and value the work that students do.

ANTI-RACIST ASSESSMENT PRACTICES

In recent years, and in the wake of highly visible and racially motivated violence against people of color, school systems and higher education institutions have begun engaging in open discussion about how pedagogical practices feed systemic racism. While this is a developing conversation, there are some currently agreed-upon principles and practices recommended to help teachers ground assessment in anti-racist practice. In this section, we will introduce a few of those practices, with the expectation that readers will use these ideas as a springboard for further investigation.

First, and perhaps most importantly, researchers suggest that teachers begin to implement anti-racist pedagogy by becoming critically reflective themselves. This means interrogating one's own biases, developing an awareness of students' individualities and backgrounds, and adjusting curriculum to convey diverse perspectives and meet learning needs. Assessments are one aspect of the curriculum that will need to be adjusted.

As we have discussed, often, grades measure behaviors and compliance instead of actual learning. In redesigning assessments to foster anti-racist principles, we can make a few adjustments to instruction that make a difference in transparency, learning, and student agency.

Teach what you're trying to measure. First, we can align our assessments with course goals and objectives, so that we teach what we are trying to test. For example, if we're asking students to write to show understanding of content in a social studies course, but we grade grammar and mechanics heavily without teaching grammar and mechanics, a student may have a clear understanding of the content but be penalized for errors in the technical aspects of writing.

Give students practice and choice. Second, when we have taught something, we can facilitate transfer and ensure student learning by giving them direct, relevant practice and feedback on that practice. Allowing choice about how to show mastery is critical here, too, as it increases student investment in the learning. For example, if we want students to be able to write thesis statements, we must follow direct instruction in identifying and writing thesis statements with independent practice in the student's own draft, on a topic of their choice. To further show mastery, students might select their own "best" thesis to share from several papers at the end of the assessment period.

Allow for revision and reflection. Third, when assessments have a reflective component, students can identify and discuss how well they have mastered learning goals, with their own work as a kind of evidence. Given the opportunity to show not just what they know, but how they know they know it, students can better identify, define, and make an argument for their own learning. Likewise, the opportunity to revise

assignments allows students to strategically apply new ideas and learning over time, which emphasizes learning as a process rather than assessment as a product.

Two specific approaches to antiracist assessment are ungrading and contract grading.

Ungrading is a feedback centered approach that counters the traditional grading system, which tends to rank, sort, and categorize students and their work. While there are many different approaches to ungrading, most include self-assessment, collaboration, reflection, and revision and are used across the curriculum in a variety of ways to foster justice and equity in an unjust system (Blum, 2020). Contract grading requires students to deeply self-assess using agreed-upon measures for mastery and allows students to choose projects and assignments that best meet their own learning needs and goals within the context of a course. Some educators, like Asao Inoue (2015, 2019), argue that labor based grading contracts are a tangible way to resist institutional racism by upending embedded power structures.

APPLICATION

Case Study:

Multilingual learners across the nation (42 states are part of the WIDA consortium) complete the WIDA ACCESS assessment annually to monitor their growth in English across the four domains – speaking, writing, reading, listening. The images below capture two ACCESS Online Sample Items from Grades 4-5 in the domain of Reading for a selection titled “Let’s Go Shopping.”

1. Review the two assessment prompts – the questions, answer selections, and corresponding images.
2. Based on the information presented in this chapter, would you identify this as an effective assessment?
    1. What is being assessed here? Does that align with the purpose of the assessment?
3. What can a teacher learn from the results of this assessment?
4. What might be some consequences of this assessment, both short term and long term?

POST-READING ACTIVITIES ON ASSESSMENT:

- Design Your Ideal Assessment: Reflect briefly on the chapter’s key points on assessment methods and their strengths and weaknesses. Think of a learning scenario where you need to assess someone’s understanding of a topic and create your own assessment method for this scenario. Consider sharing your designed assessment to a partner. Be sure to consider factors like:
- What learning objectives are you assessing?

- What type of knowledge or skills do you want to measure?
- What format would be engaging and effective (e.g., project, presentation, game)?
- How would you ensure the assessment is fair and unbiased?
- Learning Reflection: Think back to a recent learning experience (e.g., a class, workshop, online course) and reflect on the assessment methods used in that experience. Did they effectively measure your learning? What were the strengths and weaknesses of the assessments? How could they have been improved? Consider how the different assessment methods discussed in the chapter could be applied to your chosen learning experience. Which methods would be most appropriate and beneficial and why?
- Assessment in the Real World: Think about a field or activity you are interested in, such as sports, music, or business. Identify and consider the different types of assessments used in your chosen context. For example, in sports, there might be performance evaluations, skill tests, and game statistics. Write a short reflection on the following questions: How do these assessments contribute to the overall goals of the activity or field? What are the potential benefits and drawbacks of these assessments? Are there alternative assessment methods that could be considered?

GLOSSARY

Backwards Design: A way to design units and lessons that begins at the desired results based on learning goals or content, or literacy, standards and then gathers evidence of learning based on performance or project-oriented assessments.

Criterion-Related Validity: This is the extent to which an assessment is related to a purported outcome. For example, SAT and ACT exams claim validity because the scores correlate, or predict, college GPA.

Construct Validity: How accurately a test measures a concept that the test designed to measure. Capacity measures like the Cattell Culture Fair Intelligence Test claim to have a construct validity in that the test creators claim the test measures cognitive abilities free from co-variants like sociocultural or environmental factors.

FIGURES

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6

Linguistic Diversity in U.S. Education

Maria Cristina Montoya

Before We Read

Before reading, think and share on the following questions:

1. Were you encouraged to learn a second language while growing up?
2. Do you recognize a heritage language that existed in your family background? Does anyone from your family still speak it? If not, why do you think that it was lost?
3. Did you or any of your classmates bring a heritage language to the classroom? Were they encouraged to maintain it or judged?

Critical Question For Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: In what ways can teachers collaborate and foster cross-cultural competencies to connect students' linguistic and cultural funds of knowledge?

A TEACHER STORY: DISCOVERING SPANISH HERITAGE LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY THROUGH SOCIOLINGUISTIC PEDAGOGY

In my own experience as a multilingual student and educator, I have been intrigued in discovering both the teaching about and learning the processes of how students who eventually become bilingual or multilingual. Early in my career, I was assigned to teach a Spanish class for heritage speakers before I knew who they were. At that time in the fall of 2000, the only insight that was given to me by a traditional, soon-to-be-retired scholar was: "they do not know their grammar; nor can they write fluently in either language; they mix the languages uncontrollably". New into the teaching of my own native language, without any experience teaching in bilingual classrooms, I prepared a syllabus with a grammatical focus and very advanced readings; within two weeks of teaching, I was forced to re-do my syllabus, change readings, add movies and songs, and plan lessons that have students investigate variations of Spanish language and culture. During this time, I found myself learning to understand my students, their particularities **growing up bilingual**/bicultural, and their needs and challenges. Now more than two decades have passed, I have come to develop a critical, **sociolinguistic pedagogical approach** to encourage student confidence and improvement of their private language; and then, the students turn it towards a public reinforcement of their linguistic identity.

Growing up Bilingual situation when a child is born in the United States of immigrant parents who decide to maintain their native language use with their children, facilitating cultural and communal practices. Zentella in her book "Growing up Bilingual" describes this family language loyal decision as a political act of resistance to the United States hegemony.

Sociolinguistic pedagogical approach this approach makes reference to an ongoing pedagogy explored after the 1980s, where their home language proficiency is used to learn the new language, and their social realities are taken in consideration as content to develop literacy.

Through this revelatory process, I learned first what not to do. Afterwards, I began to figure out how I should teach these first-and-second-generation Hispanic students coming to my class with specific needs while maintaining their parents' language and using it in their future professions. My current courses consist of guiding students in a self-discovery process of their biculturalism and bilingualism. Students love to talk about their home routines, their parents' beliefs, family celebrations, food they eat and music they dance to; so, I make them talk and then write about their own private, family customs. Students re-discover themselves and their parents' migration struggles through a language that used to be passive and private. I leave the grammatical explicit explanations for last and discuss mechanics of language as they arise from their own fluent writings. Initially, students' essays are full of oral discourses that they re-write using monolingual dictionaries for the first time and analyzing syllables' stresses as a game with words and sounds. I avoid using negative judgments about their Spanish and when they say "Yo hablo un español malo" (I speak bad Spanish), I ask them to elaborate on their own appreciation of their language. The pedagogical approach is to use their fluency first and then transform it into a standard use of the Spanish language which they can use publicly, professionally, and proudly.

Some students come to me for the first time with enormous linguistic insecurities, others express that they know Spanish well since they only speak Spanish at home, and their only need is to learn how to place accent marks, and others find the class by luck browsing for an "easy" elective. The reality is that all find each other in my course and become consciously aware of their Hispanic – American identities. They

teach me about diversity within my own culture and language, a knowledge that I could have never learned from my graduate courses, but from the direct contact with Spanish heritage speakers in the classroom. Every semester is different; each group brings a new discussion and revelation of the Hispanic heritage culture in the United States, and students end up learning more than accent marks, spelling and verb conjugations. Two decades later, I have learned how to teach Spanish to heritage students by observing, listening, and asking questions to them. None of my experienced colleagues, professors or books could have taught me better than my own bilingual/ bicultural students in the classroom.

THE CHALLENGE OF LANGUAGE MINORITIES: LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY, LINGUISTIC IDEOLOGIES IN THE U.S AND THE SCHOOL INSTITUTION

Linguistic Ideology

An ideology consists of collective ideas that reflect social needs and aspirations of an individual within a group, a social class, or a culture. An ideology imparts group norms that develop elaborate cognitive systems rationalizing group behaviors from a set of doctrines or beliefs without individual consciousness. Ideologies are spread among members of a community through covert and overt messages broadcasted through news, popular culture (music, film, television), and political events (local, state-wide, and national) such as local board of education meetings or congressional hearings. A **language ideology** may develop based on a sentiment of pride of a culture or a nation. For example: "The English only movement" imparts the parallel of "one nation-one language" in terms of unification. This ideology becomes exclusive of others who are not part of the **speech community**/group in power who speak the dominant language. This language ideology also tends to ignore the many disparate Englishes, variation, and dialects of English that become pathologized as "bad" or "incorrect" because of difference in grammar and pronunciation, e.g., African American Vernacular English and Appalachian English, which are complete, full languages with their own rich grammar and history.

Language ideology
values and belief systems regarding language in general, use of specific languages and its varieties, including community practices. Language ideologies are interconnected with social phenomena which become reflected in educational settings affecting the teaching and learning of heritage or immigrant langauges.

Speech community
also may be referenced as "language community" formed by those people who use a given language within a specific cohesive geographical area. One language integrates all community members by playing an important role in their interaction and having shared values and meanings that are part of that language and its culture.

To better understand how a linguistic ideology is formed, first, it is important to differentiate the concepts between Cultural Diversity and Cultural Pluralism. Cultural Diversity is a descriptive concept to say there are different groups in a society with distinctive cultural practices, dialects and languages spoken. There is no judgment associated with the term, and speech communities are diverse in various ways. Cultural Pluralism, on the other hand, is a concept that carries a set of positive values in a diverse setting. In cultural pluralism, diversity is valued, respected, and encouraged. In U.S. history, there have been three types of ideologies shaping human behavior regarding cultural and linguistic diversity: 1.Assimilation/Amalgamation; 2. Insular Cultural Pluralism; and 3. Modified Cultural Pluralism (Reagan, 2009). In the U.S.multiple languages have always been in contact with each other. Linguistic diversity has not

increased; it has evolved in response to historical events. Therefore, the change in linguistic diversity is how it has been viewed historically. Those in power making public policy have determined the institutional and societal language used in this nation. English dominated over other European languages in times of colonization and independence; however, language diversity was "inclusive" in constitutional writing and there was never one official language institutionally imposed to the new formed United States of America (Baker, C. & Prys Jones, S.,1998)

Assimilation/Amalgamation

Even during European colonialism, multiple languages co-existed with each other. At this time, Indigenous languages were in contact with the languages of the European colonizers (English, German, French, Dutch, and Spanish). Our Independence period supported multilingualism and bilingual education towards dual maintenance. English was the dominant language in government leadership, "language in power", and other European languages were embraced as well, yet only for the colonizers' languages. The same cannot be said about the American Indigenous languages. First Nations peoples, as discussed in an earlier chapter, were subjected to a systematic ethnic cleansing campaign that sought to erase their languages and cultures through forced assimilation in Indian residential and boarding schools.

The second half of the 19th century was a period of great immigration. At this time, there was a growing **ethnocentrism** amongst the political and social elite encouraging English hegemony. Early stages of the "one language-one nation" ideology emerged, and new immigrants were not encouraged to retain their native languages. If they tried, it was viewed as a lack of assimilation and pride for the new country that was welcoming them and providing opportunities. Children of immigrants were urged to learn English to accomplish the "American Dream", the heritage language was not necessary for success. This ideology turned, with time, the U.S. into an English monolingual speech community. New generations born of immigrants from multiple backgrounds and languages were becoming monolingual and struggling to understand their new identities. The other two main ideologies, "Insular Cultural Pluralism" and "Modified Cultural Pluralism" do not propose any significant approach to valuing linguistic diversity at the structural level.

Ethnocentrism
to define this term, first depart from the wide definition of "Ethnic Identity" which refers to a shared history, descent, belief systems, practices, language and religion, all associated with a cultural group. In the United States history there was a period where immigrants were encouraged to assimilate to the ethnic identity understood as being "American", this notion at the center for unification and exclusion of any other who manifested a difference in beliefs, values, history or language use.

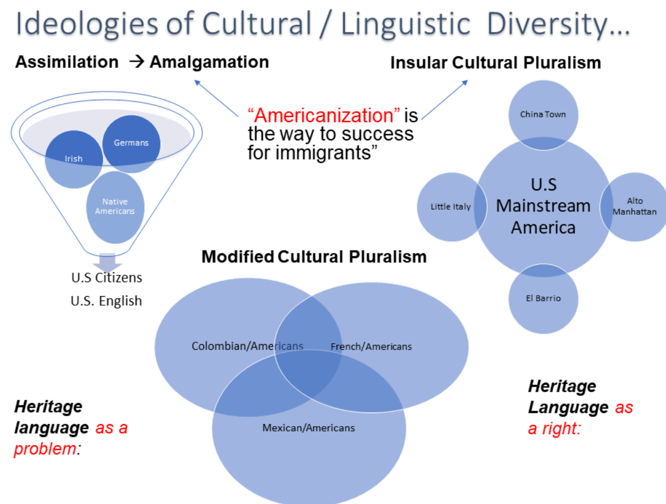
Insular Cultural Pluralism

Insular Cultural Pluralism consists of various linguistic communities co-existing with each other, but they are separated by physical areas where each ethnic linguistic group resides. They are at the periphery of mainstream English speech communities. These speech communities only crossover for legal matters or for work. When younger generations learn English, they may integrate for periods of their day, but then return to their own speech community with families and elders, who are first-generation immigrants and remain in areas where their language is spoken, and their cultural products and practices are allowed publicly. Examples of these communities in New York, are found in upper Manhattan for immigrants from the Dominican Republic,

Queens for various ethnic groups that divide by streets and sectors of the borough; China town is one that has remained historically isolated in the middle of the great city, and other ethnic areas of the Bronx and Brooklyn just to name a few within the urban New York. Recently more of this insular cultural societies have moved to upstate New York, populating entire areas with Mexican and other central American communities who arrive to work in agricultural jobs and seek to find better places to educate their children and afford better life quality (Leung, H. & Montoya, M., 2016).

Modified Cultural Pluralism

Modified Cultural Pluralism is a progression of the Insular Cultural Pluralism in the sense that dual identities are recognized for the second-generation immigrants. Those born in the U.S. of immigrant parents who have attended schools in the United States, grow up speaking two languages, consuming products from various cultures, including English mainstream mass and social media. These younger generations follow standards for social practices that allow them to be included into the "American" way of life; However, these people are still close to their immigrant parents and have not completed the entire assimilation demanded by English-centric communities at large. By the third generation, it is expected that their heritage language is lost, and the process completed to cross entirely to mainstream America. (See ideologies, Figure #1)



Immigration waves have continued and only through economic globalization at the end of the 20th century is when educational policy makers began to question the lack of cultural and linguistic understanding by new generations in the U.S. While the rest of the world spoke more than one language, in the U.S., youth were mostly fluent in one–English. Until recently, the larger "American" culture at large has begun an ideological shift that has started to change, moving overall attitudes towards valuing cultural **plurilingualism**. Yet despite this, the U.S. has a long transformation still ahead in practice. Schools are the places to begin such transformation towards linguistic pluralism. Linguistic ideologies have transformed in the U.S. as response to immigration waves and resources becoming available for a demanding society in need for integration. Within the Assimilation/Amalgamation ideology, the view regarding cultural and

Plurilingualism
an environment where multiple languages may coexist without socio-political conflict and valuing linguistic diversity.

linguistic diversity is seen by the dominant culture as a problem. Norms are established according to the dominant group and others are judged inferior. Students from non-dominant cultural backgrounds must attend remedial educational programs to overcome deficits. The alternative proposes that if teachers and schools commit to a quest for accessing quality education for all, then differences may become simply viewed as differences, and not as deficits. If all educational leaders capitalize upon uniqueness in language and cultural backgrounds to teach students more effectively, the result would be genuinely accepting diversity as a new standard for creating a multilingual national unity. Teachers may see themselves guided by three orientations in relation to linguistic diversity in their school settings. First, when the non-dominant language (heritage or immigrant language) is seen as a problem, then assimilation to English and Americanization is favored. Second, when the individual's native language is seen as a right, then bilingual programs are implemented, heritage and immigrant languages are maintained as well as the acquisition of the majority language. Third, when language is seen as a resource, then all school language programs seek to maintain heritage languages and promote second languages to the rest, dominant monolingual students, by the implementation of dual language programs throughout elementary and secondary (K-12) education for all students.

Language Ideology and Perceptions of Bilingual Education.

There are many factors involved in the formation of ideologies regarding bilingual education. First, appraisal of the bilingual classroom is often formed through its opposition with the monolingual classroom, which is perceived by students as their final goal, the ideal. The bilingual classroom becomes a step, a transition, and a remediation necessary to accomplish the goal of adaptation into the English language and society. Therefore the "bilingual" classroom is not about bilingualism, but a transition into monolingualism. Another perspective is that bilingual classes are viewed as inferior compared to the regular classes because of the people who comprise them; a the vast majority may perceive these students as uneducated immigrants belonging to lower socioeconomic classes. Moreover, students in these classes are placed homogeneously, erasing the differences between those who have been born in the U.S and lived within two languages all their lives and the others who are currently experiencing the immigration and acculturation processes. As a result, instructors do not give enough importance to the variety of performance levels within the students and, adding to the problem, in a lot of cases the teachers' inexperience and mediocre knowledge of these students' backgrounds lead them to categorize these students as deficient and problematic learners.

REFLECTIVE TALKING POINT

1. What "Americanization" means to you? Were you encouraged to learn or maintain another language different from English while growing up? Were you encouraged to openly reveal your cultural background and uniqueness?
2. Provide ideas on how to capitalize upon uniqueness in language and cultural backgrounds to teach students more effectively.

Video Resources:

1. No Child Left Monolingual Dr. Kim Potowski at TEDxUofIChicago
2. This is the new generation of Americans under a more open and inclusive ideology: "I SPEAK ... AND ENGLISH, I AM AMERICAN"

Do Speak American? episodes 1-3. These episodes are available on the Films on Demand database. You can access the database via your school's library. For example, if you are a SUNY Oneonta student, you can login at https://suny.oneonta.edu/milne-library and enter the title in the search bar.

BRIEF HISTORY OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The U.S. has always been diverse linguistically. However, ideologies and beliefs behind this language contact have been shaped according to historical and political periods. Baker and Jones (1998) divided the historical moments of linguistic ideologies in the U.S. into three main periods: the independence period, the restrictive period. and the opportunity period. The independence period supported multilingualism and bilingual education towards dual maintenance. English was the dominant language in leadership, but other colonial languages were embraced. The same was not the case, however, for the indigenous languages of Native Americans, which the institutions of power sought to erase as part of an ethnic cleansing campaign of assimilation or removal. In The 18th and first half of the 19th century a permissive period of multiple languages followed; linguistic diversity was generally accepted and encouraged through religious practices, some emerging mass media (print), and within private and public educational settings.

Towards the second half of the 19th century in response to mass immigration into the United States, there was a sharp cultural turn towards ethnocentrism and English hegemony. This turn led to the restrictive period, which continued during the first half of the 20th century due to the great influx of new immigrants. These speech communities inundated the schools with multiple linguistic backgrounds and there was a national call for integration among the new arrivals. Integration and assimilation around the English language was presented as a symbol of loyalty to the receiving country. After the first world war, there was an anti-German sentiment, and English monolingualism became the response to this apparently Germanic threat. Linguistic intolerance strengthened and schools became the places where diverse people assimilated

and integrated to the dominant speech community. The interest to learn foreign languages diminished considerably. Some institutional policies reinforced this need for integration. In 1919, the education system adopted a resolution that recommended all schools, private and public, to make English the language of instruction (Baker & Jones, 1998). Schools began to make English the dominant language of instruction for all content areas in the years that followed. By 1923, thirty-four states decreed that English must be the language of instruction in all schools. This first half of the 20th century, emphasized compulsory attendance to public schools. Financial government assistance to private or parochial schools, which may have had some bilingual programs, was eliminated completely. Despite these policy changes, there were conflicting messages top- down regarding linguistic tolerance. This same year, the Supreme Court declared unconstitutional a law in Nebraska that prohibited foreign language teaching to elementary school children and declared that learning and acquiring knowledge in a foreign language would not affect the health, moral development, or comprehension of the learner. Nevertheless, the Supreme Court did not extend its ruling to support bilingual education or the use of bilingualism for communication in the public-school context. Colonial European languages were not perceived as "ethnic immigrant languages", but as "foreign languages." These languages were incorporated into the curriculum as another school subject. Schools and curriculum did not attach any ethnocultural value of these languages to the history of the U.S., and the Indigenous ethnolinguistic speech communities were perceived as unconnected/external to the dominant mainstream culture wherein First Nations, or Indigenous, peoples were not considered as truly American citizens. During the second world war, Jewish and Italian immigrants were integrated into the English dominant school system. Additionally, these two immigrant groups were granted a special permit allowing the use of their native languages for content instruction as a transitional model as the students assimilated into the English-centered curriculum; however these transitional models did not foster bilingualism and biliteracy. Students' success was measured by how rapidly they embraced the English language and the new U.S. cultural practices.

The second half of the 20th century shifted to an opportunity period in terms of including multiple languages in the school curriculum. After 1957, when the Russians sent their first spaceship outside of the planet, the U.S. political leaders began to question the country's capacity to compete in an international market and technology. A debate that questioned quality of education, scientific creativity, and recognition that other languages must be learned quickly followed. As mentioned in an earlier chapter the federal government mobilized funding for the National Defense Education Act of 1958. As a result, U.S. national defense agencies promoted foreign language teaching, and multiple pedagogical strategies to teach other languages rapidly became popular, mostly during the Cold War period. This mostly highlighted the need for other languages in terms of national security, but not much for the overall population.

This restrictive period continued until the 1960s and became an important topic thereof for the state policies in the United States. During the 1960s, the issue of bilingual education was brought up for re-evaluation by the human rights movement, as a signal towards ethnic tolerance and a possibility for social integration. The arrival of a large

Cuban population in Florida during the 1960s promoted the re-institution of bilingual education as a temporary strategy to assist the great numbers of students in schools that spoke Spanish and were waiting to return to their homeland after Cuba would become again normalized and Fidel Castro's communism defeated. However, this never occurred and, as a result, bilingual education evolved to serve the linguistic populations in need. These programs became supported by federal policies providing financial assistance for growing bilingual programs in Florida. This usage of Spanish for content instruction in Florida was a transitional model with the purpose of learning English and integrating. By the third generation, Cuban-Americans were slowly losing their proficiency in their heritage language. Following Florida, other states considered the importance of bilingual transitional instruction to assist students that spoke other languages at home and had academic difficulties in various subjects. Bilingualism in schools was implemented as a "crutch" while the students may advance, but soon to be abandoned when the learner became fluent in English.

During the 1970s, educators and parent organizations questioned the equitable access for all students for linguistic minorities. **English as a Second Language** (ESL) programs proliferated to fulfill the needs demanded by immigrant families to access equal quality education. The Supreme Court declared immersion programs founded on "sink or swim" models of education unconstitutional as they put some children behind as a result. Other languages were allowed in school and ESL programs were developed and instituted, however as remedial programs to assist the "issue" of multilingualism in schools. In response to the implementation of **transitional bilingual** programs in the 1970s and 80s, English-only movements became antagonistic into the ideas of equity and the advocacy for unique languages and the cultural assimilation imposed upon minority groups.

English as a Second Language
a term used to classify students who are learning English, who have arrived in schools after having developed their first language for oral communication and, depending on age of arrival to the new country, these students may already be literate in their first language with some years of formal schooling.

Transitional bilingual programs
these make reference to school programs, that although use other languages to teach English language Learners (ELLs), its ultimate goal is not to maintain bilingualism, but to transition into English.

It is important to highlight that scholarly research on the benefits of bilingualism was not advanced during this period and people just supported their opinions on the ideology of bilingualism as a phenomenon, which resulted in confusion and a significant delay in content knowledge of basic schooling for immigrant children. As academic studies started to demonstrate the cognitive benefits of bilingualism, initiatives in pedagogical approaches began to be discussed. Teachers and communities debated: the amount of each language for instruction, the efficacy of pull out versus push in programs, the allocation of resources available, and the need for professional development for teachers that were mostly monolingual. New York schools needed bilingual teachers and programs that sought to recruit Puerto Rican bilingual teachers were implemented . There was a wave of Puerto Rican professionals moving to New York City to fulfill this need of human resources in New York City Public Schools. Other professional immigrants from Latin America took advantage of this opportunity and most of the ESL or Bilingual support was done by adult immigrants from Spanish speaking countries. Nevertheless, this was not guaranteeing a change to a pluralistic view of multilingualism and heritage language maintenance.

On the contrary, the Reagan administration was hostile towards bilingual education arguing that such programs which allowed for heritage language maintenance and use of the heritage language for instruction did not foster integration and

assimilation into the English dominant labor market in the U.S. By 1985, financial support to bilingual educational programs switched to ESL monolingual instruction programs. The issue was mostly a political debate that did not allow teachers to assess and propose effective ways to teach content using the native languages of the immigrant children. In the meantime, there was a surge of linguists and other scholars in the social sciences investigating the cognitive effects of bilingualism and the benefits of using a strong language to access the other language system in order to develop biliteracy. All of theory and research was too new for politicians of the time to understand; therefore,language policies were based on flawed misinformed ideas based on ideologies and not scientific studies. Therefore, the federal government passed the responsibility about the decisions on bilingual education to local state politicians. Finally, after several academic studies began to demonstrate the benefits of bilingual development, a shift in ideologies towards valuing cultural plurilingualism has recently begun in earnest. Nevertheless, there has been difficulty into coming to consensus on best practices in teaching value and maintaining and celebrating multilingualism in the U.S. as well as to teach children from multilingual and multicultural backgrounds.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION AFTER 1980

Brisk (1998) presents one of the earliest extensive works on bilingual education (1998). Her work describes the existing models in English as a second language and bilingual instruction according to learning objectives, type of students served, languages in which literacy is developed, and language of subject matter instruction. Brisk adds that bilingual models are divided between those that strive for fluency in the second language, English, and those that have as a major goal fluency in two languages. When comparing the two models, the English as a second language/ bilingual structured immersion programs are perceived as subtractive because the development of the second language is done at the expense of the native language. The subtractive model's success is measured by how quickly the students exit the program. On the other hand, bilingual programs that support fluency in two languages are additive since they foster development of both, the second and native languages. Additive models focus on dual language development as well as academic preparation. Brisk's analysis of the factors affecting bilingual programs describes contradictory results: students succeed in programs that start in the second language when the students are members of language majority, have a strong basis in their native language and positive language attitudes, hear and see language constantly used in their environment, and eventually take language courses in school. Programs fail when students belong to language minorities with weak literacy background in their native language, limited use of the language in the larger environment, and poor attitudes toward their own language. According to the author, the concern is not a choice of language, but the characteristics of the population served.

Also, in early research on bilingual instruction, Torres (1990) differentiates between the pluralistic and the acculturation models of bilingual education programs: cultural pluralist approaches measure the success of bilingual education programs by the extent to which they help maintain and cultivate native languages and cultures;

supporters of cultural pluralism advocate maintenance of bilingual programs that treat both languages equally so that content subjects are taught in both languages. One of the aims of bilingual education should be to demonstrate that heritage languages are valid instruments of communication, and literacy development, the same as English. Children in pluralistic language models develop more positive attitudes about their cultural heritage, their parents, and their first/home language. In opposition, there are the acculturation models which slowly limit the use of native languages and cultures. Torres argues that these subtractive bilingual education models serve to make acculturations smoother supporting English monolingualism as a norm.

MEET THE THEORIST

Ana Celia Zentella was born in the South Bronx, New York City to a Puerto Rican mother and a Mexican father. Growing up in the 1950s, she was exposed not only to multiple languages but also to multiple varieties of Spanish in New York. She attended Hunter College, CUNY in the Bronx as an undergraduate, obtaining a B.A. degree in Spanish. She went on to complete a M.A. in Romance Languages and Literatures at Pennsylvania State University, and obtained a PhD in Educational Linguistics in 1981 at the University of Pennsylvania, with a dissertation titled "Hablamos los dos. We speak both": Growing up bilingual in el barrio. Dr. Zentella is a linguist well-known for her "anthro-political" approach to linguistic research and her expertise on multilingualism, linguistic diversity, and language intolerance, especially in relation to diverse U.S. Latino languages and communities on the East and West coasts. An early member of the Department of Black and Puerto Rican

Studies at Hunter College, she is now Professor Emerita of Ethnic Studies at the University of California, San Diego. Her 1997 book Growing up Bilingual: Puerto Rican children in New York was honored by the British Association for Applied Linguistics and the Association of Latina and Latino Anthropologists of the American Anthropology Association. Zentella's research adopts a political perspective on linguistic anthropology that places language in its social context and acknowledges that no language exists without being subjected to power. Much of her research focuses on U.S. varieties of Spanish, English, and Spanglish, practices of language socialization in familias latinas, and the societal impact of "English-only" laws. In 2023 she was inducted into the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

The decade of the 90s was fruitful for scholars in the field of bilingualism, and among them Zentella (1990) presented another perspective to the issue of bilingual education vs. monolingual methodology of submersion. This scholar states that the submersion methodology functions well when it is part of an educational experience to expand the linguistic and cultural repertoire of the students of the majority group, but submersion does not work properly when it intends to eliminate the language and culture of the minority group. Another problem acknowledged by Zentella is the role of immigrant parents for language input. It was common, at the end of the 20th century, to hear teachers encouraging parents to speak more English to their children without understanding that it would be of more value if parents spoke the language that they know best. Providing heritage language experience to the child helps them to develop linguistic skills, such as language registers and variations, including the construction of logical arguments. However, this linguistic contribution by parents is not stimulated since in most cases the parents' speech is judged as inferior to the academic standard languages used at schools, therefore not productive for the development of language acquisition.

As teachers' professional development became more linguistically inclusive turning into the new millennium, and assimilation ideologies become slowly replaced by pluralistic views about diversity, schools begun to transform into "affirming classrooms" leading to "affirming societies" in which racism, sexism, social class discrimination, and other biases are no longer acceptable (Nieto, cited in Reagan, 2009). Therefore, previous ideologies underlying many school policies and practices that were based on flawed ideas about intelligence and difference were questioned; curriculums and pedagogical strategies, today, must consider differentiation, multilingualism and multiculturalism in all content areas, and teachers are encouraged to learn about the cultures and languages of their pupils. In addition, if schools support the use of heritage languages, the linguistic loyalty sentiment by parents who would like their children to maintain cultural ties to their origins, adds to the support needed by their children to become and maintain a balanced bilingualism while encouraging their monolingual peers to learn other languages and cultures.

Acquiring languages is not the same for all learners, it depends on many factors from individual aptitudes to contextual situations that may act as emotional filters, which may affect motivation in both directions, negative and positive. Brisk (1998) explains there are multiple situational and individual factors that affect students' school performance. Situational factors, including linguistic, cultural, economic, political, and

social, influence how students of a particular ethnic group are viewed by educators and peers. Families play an important role in language development, identity formation, and positive motivation achievement. Learners' backgrounds such as language spoken at home, cultural practices, and parents' level of education influence how bilingual students' performance in school. Families' perceptions of their children's linguistic needs may oscillate between the perception that bilingual programs may slow down their children's immersion into the community's dominant culture, hence they do not see these programs as beneficial to provide the transitional time. Typically, these are families who already reside within the U.S and would prefer immersion programs that prompt their children to function rapidly among the mainstream culture for their own success, at the expense of losing their home language. Families that seek full immersion into the dominant culture, often see their immigration experience to the U.S. as an opportunity to leave behind any suffering of the past. On the other hand, there are families that view the bilingual education received by their children as the only path for their children to fluent literacies in their heritage language.These fluent literacy practices help children to write and read in their parents' native language and provide opportunities for parents to help with their homework in addition to encouraging maintenance of the heritage language while immersion in English. These families often consider a possible return to their homeland and prefer to maintain strong ties to their culture including their children born in the U.S.

REFLECTIVE TALKING POINT

1. Teachers and parents interactions are necessary for the development of their children's academic knowledge, part of this is biliteracy/bilingual development. How would you approach different parental perceptions about their children's needs to maintain their heritage language while learning English? How can teachers use families to embrace multilingualism and multiculturalism?

LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

Language attitudes are motivated by several instrumental and integrative dimensions. According to Colin Baker (1995) there is the instrumental motivation, which reflects pragmatic, utilitarian motives. Language becomes the catalyst characterized by the desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages. It is self-oriented, individualistic, and would seem to have a conceptual overlap with the need for achievement. On the other hand, integrative motivation is mostly social and interpersonal in orientation including the need for affiliation, and a desire to be a representative member of a speech community. Teachers ought to investigate their students' motivations towards heritage language maintenance or rejection. This often becomes overt after middle school years when there is a concrete academic offer to study LOTE (Languages Other than English) languages, and heritage speakers find themselves questioning their proficiency in the

home language and their desire for improvement or abandonment. It is important to consider when investigating the participants' language proficiency or desire to improve it, their attitude or motivation to learn a new language or maintain their home language is independent of their linguistic aptitude (capacity to easily acquire language). Aptitude relates to the level of difficulty, the ability, that a person has towards learning a new language and becoming a bilingual proficient speaker. This varies among people with diverse learning experiences.

Participants' instrumental and integrative orientations may develop positively or negatively. For example, some statements that reveal instrumental positive are:

> *I want to preserve my heritage language. Knowing Spanish is necessary (good) to find a job later, specifically teaching it or in bilingual school environments.*

On the opposite side, the statements that reveal an instrumental negative attitude are:

> *Heritage languages are not necessary to survive in the U.S., Our parents needed to learn English to help us with schoolwork and social adaptation. Preserving Spanish at home led to confusion in learning and developing English proficiency.*

The integrative positive statements are:

> *Knowing Spanish is necessary (good) to relate to my family; Schools must help to preserve heritage languages and not penalize its use; Parents must demand the use of heritage language at home.*

Integrative negative statements are:

> *A common language, in this case English, is more useful for everyone to learn at school. Having multiple languages in a classroom is chaotic and difficult to deliver content knowledge, it requires more financial resources.*

There are five determinants on the development of language attitudes that are basic for the required observation when encountering heritage speakers in the classrooms. First, age; the various types of language input and experiences, positive or negative, the student has received up to their age while growing up. Second,the child's caretaker while growing up in a multilingual or bilingual setting, who is or was responsible for the child's upbringing, and the kinds of language input received by their mother, father, or other relatives. In addition, there is also the consideration of caretakers' educational levels and their own proficiencies in other languages or dialects spoken. Third, schooling and educational experiences; what kind of formal or multilingual/bilingual integrated curriculum, and extracurricular activities have been part of the students' experiences that may produce favorable attitudes, or may change their language attitudes; therefore, increasing or decreasing proficiencies in home languages. For example, parents' choices of schools and programs available to them within their communities of residence. Fourth, ability; if the learner presents confident ability towards learning languages and literacy development, there is higher achievement proficiency and ability in a language as a result of a more favorable attitude. Often this ability depends on other determinants that influence the linguistic attitude towards multilingualism or bilingualism. Lastly,

there is the linguistic active speech community involvement. This is observed throughout the experiences available in reference to religious services, entertainment, communal activities in which the main language used is the heritage one.

DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH ACTIVITY:

Use the Web and your previous knowledge of an Ethnic Speech Community that resides in New York. Describe which physical spaces exist within these communities where the heritage language is used for interaction and transactions, for example stores "bodegas", churches, financial offices. Describe if these communities have changed the names of streets, and places within their physical environments. Also dig into the availability of mass media in their heritage language (TV, printed news, radio). Find pictures of these examples in the communities you describe and share with classmates.

Festinger (cited in Baker, 1995)contributed to the development of Cognitive Dissonance Theory (CDT), which states that language attitudes must be in harmony; and when inconsistent messages about the importance of their home languages are received, cognitive tensions may rise. Learners may suffer conflicting experiences growing up bilingual that result in contradicting attitudes that eventually end up affecting their biliteracy development and bilingual engagement. The formal education imposition towards standard English or the standard variety of their heritage language, may discourage them to retain home dialects and perceive dual identity upbringing as negative to be successful in mainstream societies. Consequently, young learners may be discouraged at home to use their heritage language actively among parents and extended family. These learners develop a passive proficiency of the heritage language being only receptors, comprehending the home language but not actively using it in speech acts. According to Silva-Corvalan (1997) it is important to consider for the analysis of a bilingual upbringing, and eventually bi-literacy development, the measurement of students' proficiency and comfort level by revealing children's previous exposures of their heritage languages. The language proficiency assessment should question the following to determine if the heritage language is underdeveloped or interrupted; such as, if the home language development was suspended due to an immigration experience to the U.S. or reinstated by returning back to their country of origin, i.e.., back to the parents' country, which stopped the immersion of English. This change of speech community is often experienced with lack of linguistic exposure in one of the languages. Thus, this change results in learners' loss in **expressive language** (speech, gestures, or writing) or simplification of language skills. In other words, losing command of a variety of grammatical forms and/or vocabulary in their linguistic repertoire.

Expressive language also understood in this work as "linguistic expression", which is most typically associated with pragmatics in the speech acts. These are attempts by language users to perform specific actions, such as making statements, asking questions, making promises, expressing gratitude, requesting and apologizing. The expressiveness may be manifested through gestures specific to the speech community's culture, sound intonation, physical proximity...etc.

MEET THE THEORIST

"The ultimate arbiter in educational decision-making must be an informed and concerned local community, a community that values its past, critically examines its present and carefully plans it future, combining in these plans both the local and the supra-local considerations that will inevitably influence the younger generation in its unpredictable odyssey."

Joshua A. Fishman (Yiddish name Shikl) was born on July 18, 1926, and raised in Philadelphia. He died on March 1, 2015. He was an American linguist who specialized in the sociology of language, language planning, bilingual education, language and ethnicity. He attended public schools while also studying Yiddish at elementary and secondary levels. He studied Yiddish in Workmen's Circle Schools, which emphasized mastery of the Yiddish language along with a focus on literature, history, and social issues. He attended the University of Pennsylvania, majoring in history and psychology. Dr. Fishman completed his Ph.D. in social psychology at Columbia University in 1953 with a dissertation entitled Negative Stereotypes Concerning Americans among American-born Children Receiving Various Types of Minority-group Education. From 1955 to 1958, he taught the sociology of language at the City College of New York while he was also directing research at the College Entrance Examination Board. In 1958, he was appointed an associate professor of human relations and psychology at University of Pennsylvania. He subsequently accepted a post as professor of psychology and sociology at Yeshiva University in New York, where he would also serve as dean of the Ferkauf Graduate School of Social Sciences and Humanities as well as academic vice president. In 1966, he was made Distinguished University Research Professor of Social Sciences. In 1988, he became professor emeritus and became affiliated with a number of other institutions. Fishman wrote over 1000 articles and monographs on multilingualism, bilingual education and minority education, the sociology and history of the Yiddish language, language planning, reversing language shift, language revival, language and nationalism, language and religion, and language and ethnicity.

According to Fishman (1997),language shift occurs when exposure and prestige is associated with the dominant language, in case of the U.S. context would be English. However, reverse shift may occur when there is an immersion in the immigrant speech community, either in the U.S. due to immigrant communities from the same linguistic background living in clusters of the similar origins and common varieties of one language, or it may occur if the individual is sent for extended time or yearly visits to the original speech communities outside of the U.S. to their parents' country of origin. An individual may become orally proficient in both languages due to exposure, yet oral proficiency does not transfer easily to literacy. Command of biliteracy depends on educational programs available, support for heritage language maintenance in dual programs since elementary grade levels, as well as the family's determination in preserving their heritage language. There are caretakers that insist in the active use of their home language in the private domains, whereas there are others that prefer that their children immerse quickly into the dominant language to obtain opportunities given to native speakers and avoid discrimination in some areas where assimilation ideologies may be still strong. Recently, globalization has demanded intercultural communication that includes the use of more translingual practices. This demand leads to a societal linguistic insecurity among monolingual speakers in the U.S. where more "nativist" governmental policies may be used to highlight the dominance of English, or in opposition, more pluralistic approaches may encourage the creation of quality bilingual/multilingual education in public schools.

LEARNING APPLIED DESCRIPTIVE ACTIVITY

Find and interview a person who has immigrated to the U.S. before 10 years old, or someone who was born in the U.S. of immigrant parents (any linguistic speech community) and generate a linguistic profile fulfilling the table below:

Dominant language	Language(s) learned at home first	Language learned at school settings primarily	Age of acquisition of a second language or bilingualism early development	Language use domains: home, school community (which language is used where)	Linguistic Ideologies: Messages delivered by people in schools and community members about bilingualism and heritage language maintenance.

Reflective Talking Point:

1. Do you share common experiences with the person you interview? If both of your experiences are different, describe possible inequalities experienced by either person, you or the interviewee?
2. Share your profiles with peers.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF LEARNERS IN THE BILINGUAL OR ENGLISH AS A NEW LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

The definition of the **heritage language learner** and its distinction from the **immigrant child learner** is necessary to clarify for addressing the specific challenges in the classroom. These children's needs differ in terms of new language acquisition or heritage language maintenance. There are two main types of students encountered in the English as a New Language (ENL) or bilingual classrooms: first, there is the heritage language learner, born in the U.S. or brought into the country before school age, and second, there is the immigrant child or native speaker of another language different than English, who arrives in the country after having started literacy development in a monolingual setting outside of the U.S school system. The educational demands of these two types of students vary. The heritage speaker has always been immersed in a dual linguistic context. This child has received English input, passively or actively, through various experiences in different speech communities, mass media and entertainment, and often by older siblings who bring the societal language to the home environment, making it the main language of communication among newer generations. Consequently, English is not considered a "new" language for this learner, and cultural adaptation may not be a traumatic issue for these learners, they have lived within two cultures and languages since birth or early childhood. On the contrary, the immigrant child encounters not only a new language, but a new society that pressures them to adapt and understand, often suffering from cultural shock while they transition. This immigrant child may already bring established literacy in another language that can be a transferred skill, useful in learning a new language; whereas the heritage speaker has received oral input in both languages, but not necessarily may have developed literacy in the home language and cannot use it as support to learn English.

Heritage language learner
refers to a student who speaks a home language, other than English. This person was born in the United States or arrived during early childhood prior to developing literacy in the language of their parents.

Immigrant child learner
A younger student who immigrated to the United States after having completed some years of formal schooling in their native country. The child had already begun to develop communicative proficiency and literacy in their first langauge and recognized, consciously, the change of school setting, often suffering an initial linguistic and cultural shock that demanded adaptation and learning of new practices.

Acquisition of bilingual fluency and heritage language maintenance is experienced differently depending on the child's first contact with the societal language and attitudes held by the community. The students' attitude toward the heritage language and their academic success is deeply related to their perception of the socioeconomic class to which they belong. In addition to academic and linguistic success, attitudes affect the chances for social integration.

"In the United States assimilation is seen as a precondition for social, political, and economic participation. Although most immigrant groups aspire to social and economic incorporation, they do not all have the same options. Some succeed in assimilation into mainstream middle-class America, others are socialized with poor native-born

Americans, and still others choose to incorporate into an established ethnic community" (Brisk, 1998, p. 51).

Integration into the dominant English mainstream communities depends on the ethnic and linguistic diversity encountered in the places the learners reside. There are some parents who purposely moved away from predominantly immigrant and multilinguistic neighborhoods to provide a "better" American environment and education for their children. Nevertheless, some of these families do not neglect the importance of their heritage language as an identity value and use it in the home setting; These families divide the private experience from the public one as a strategy to motivate their children to preserve their native culture and language. However, it may occur that children of diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds find themselves competing with students with more affluence and privilege in these less diverse communities; therefore, the students may become discouraged to succeed, unless they find leaders in the educational system who encourage them to maintain pride in their identity and embrace the language and culture of the majority. On the contrary, other families that decide to remain within their own ethnic community, consider that speech community support is important for their daily survival and the upbringing of their children; for them being around others of similar ethnic backgrounds reinforce cultural values, such as respect for elders, religious rituals, traditions, and heritage language use at home during family reunions. Intertwined private and social communal practices aid families to overcome discrimination from mainstream environments that might discourage their kids from continuing into higher education. Brisk analyzes how social factors affect the interactions between schools and students and ultimately students' performance.

"Unfortunately, most bilingual individuals suffer social prejudices that thwart their aspirations. Societal pressures force immigrants to make difficult choices between home languages and English as well as ethnic and American culture. Individuals with many of these social characteristics that predict failure can still succeed without abandoning home language and culture thanks to personal, family, and school resources that support them in their struggle" (Brisk, 1994a, in Brisk 1998, p. 52)

Educational institutions in the United States need to become spaces responsible for assisting in the constructive and creative development of linguistically diverse identities. Therefore, the relationship and understanding that educators establish with multilingual learners and young immigrants is extremely important. Linguistically diverse students arrive to the U.S educational system with a distinctive cultural background. These learners need to achieve literacy fluency in the community language, English, and use their native/heritage language proficiencies to advance, to encode (read) and encode (write) text in order to not fall behind in various contents in elementary and secondary classrooms. Teachers ought to become more sensitive to cultural manifestations and identity construction while allowing bilingual acquisition to evolve naturally and strengthening mental connections in their learning process. Zentella (1990) added that in early times of bilingual advocacy, schoolteachers played an important role in students' maintenance of their home languages and to help their students understand that they may still use their native language while learning English, emphasizing that doing so will not be detrimental to them.

Sociolinguistics
The study of how language and discourse is influenced by social and cultural factors.

Early development in bilingualism and biliteracy presents a complex issue for professionals who perhaps are not prepared for such an instruction and who suddenly have to adapt their classes for individuals who are linguistically diverse. Many school districts in various parts of the country, such as New York and California, responded to the impact of this population shift by implementing transitional bilingual education programs as well as special ENL instructional programs. The secondary and post-secondary institutions have also been affected by this population shift in linguistically diverse students. This has encouraged educators to re-design teaching strategies that are inclusive to linguistic diversity, encouraging new teachers to learn other languages themselves or use technology available to be able to help their students. Linguistic diverse classrooms nowadays, include a main classroom teacher assisted by a certified ENL or Bilingual teacher. Schools differ in their approaches due to demographics of immigrant populations and the human resources available. Another challenge is counting on textbook publishers to develop bilingual/multilingual materials. School linguistic practices are also influenced by the language used at homes. If heritage languages use is strong outside the school, educational policies cannot ignore such a reality and must include language programs that address the **sociolinguistic** dynamic of the community. Brisk (1998) adds the "status of languages and their speakers, status of dialects and subgroups within ethnic groups, socioeconomic level, race, gender, and reasons for being in the United States shape attitudes and expectations of teachers toward bilingual students" (p. 49). Language educational policies must consider the preparation of teachers to understand such reality of language minority students.

The difficulty to maintain bilingualism across generations is well assumed, even when societal bilingualism is stable. Many scholars and students are pessimistic about the maintenance of heritage languages in an environment surrounded by societal pressures and misconceptions of the benefits of bilingualism, or multilingualism, in our society. The classroom by itself is limited in accomplishing this goal; therefore, it is important for educators to listen to what parents believe and how they see their children's future in the country where they had immigrated as well as their own children's well-being. Silva-Corvalán (1997) describes important findings of her research about the Spanish spoken in Los Angeles and its sociolinguistic aspects. She observes the situation of Spanish maintenance or shift to English. For example, there are more publications in Spanish, more TV programs for Spanish speaking audiences, numerous companies publicize in Spanish and a great deal of institutions and organizations provide special services in Spanish. Within the family domain, older children are most likely to preserve the home language; however younger children experience language contact earlier in life and due to the less strict strategies by parents to encourage language maintenance, the younger children prefer English over Spanish during their language development. Silva-Corvalán confirms these patterns based on her studies. Generally, the linguistic attitudes by Hispanics to preserve their home language and culture is positive, but their positive attitude becomes conflicted with a lack of concrete compromise to do something for the Spanish language and the ancestral culture. On the other hand, recent immigrants have

stimulated the frequent use of Spanish in the work environment. These cases motivate second-generation speakers to re-learn their home language.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND EMERGENT BILINGUALS, WHO ARE THEY?

English Language learners (ELLs), or emerging bi/multilinguals (EBs), have many variations depending on their bilingual upbringing, dialect variation, home language linguistic ideology status, linguistic background, parents' level of education and immigration history. However, Escobar & Potowski (2015) have identified two main types of emerging bilinguals. First, there are the interrupted/reduced bilinguals: students who immigrated to the U.S during sometime in early childhood and adolescence (ages 7-15). They were immersed in a different culture and linguistic environment at early schooling, and were not encouraged to maintain their home language. Second, the balanced/additive bilinguals: students who were born in the U.S of foreign language speaking parents. They have lived within a different language and cultural environments between home and school. Some of these children are encouraged to maintain their home languages because they became language brokers for their immigrant parents or because of linguistic loyalty in their households and immigrant communities. The experiences that these two types of students have in schools add to the pedagogical research on ideologies regarding bilingual education. One study (Montrul, 2013) implies bilingual educational programs are not about maintaining bilingualism, but, rather, a transition to monolingualism, which sacrifices heritage languages. Moreover, students belonging to these bilingual classes are not only part of the disadvantaged social class, they are perceived as citizens which necessitates their assimilation into the mainstream society. However, this becomes troubling because, within the norm and academic development in the school system, the problem remains with the students and not in the implementation of the bilingual program.

Another interpretation of what occurs inside the bilingual classroom is **erasure**. Students in bilingual classes are placed homogeneously, erasing the differences between those who have been born in the U.S. and lived within two languages all their lives and the others who have experienced the immigration and acculturation processes upon immigration arrival. In addition, places of origin, as an important factor of uniqueness, are erased to form one distinct cultural group among most of the school population, homogenous within themselves. As a result, instructors do not give enough importance to the variety of languages, dialects, and proficiency levels within this student population. Adding to the problem, often teachers' inexperience or perfunctory knowledge of these students' backgrounds lead to the deficit approach which categorizes these students as deficient and problematic learners. The diversity within the students in these bilingual classrooms is lost to hidden curriculum to assimilate these students into a dominant homogeneous society. ELLS and EBs are not homogenous at all. They differ by the manner their languages were acquired. There are three main types of bilinguals according to input exposure (Romain, 1995): the coordinate bilingual who learned the

Erasure
A systematic removal of a group of people or aspects of a culture to make it seem the people or culture never existed or exists currently. One example of cultural erasure is most depictions of Indigenous peoples have been romanticized historical narratives, while current narratives ignore Indigenous peoples or act

two languages independent in separate environments, and whose fluency vary according to intensity of input in various settings and topics discussed; the compound bilingual describes individuals whose languages are interdependent and learned in the same environment allowing for intense **code-switching**; lastly, there is the sub-coordinate bilingual for whom one of the languages is dominant and acts as a filter for the other one. This last type of bilingual interprets words of their weaker language through the stronger one, and it is mostly known as a passive bilingual.

In terms of bilingual behavior, children initially develop **functional grammars** combining the two languages to communicate. The first stage of development is pragmatic and semantic. In other words, meaning relations occur first where words are interchanged (codeswitched) to express communicative needs. Children want to express messages and do not have the syntactic structures, so they would create their own bilingual mixed grammar to communicate their needs. Then syntactic development, structures, occur later when children begin to separate the two languages, and this does not occur until the child initiates the literacy development process and awareness of their two bilingual settings is more obvious, often when they are registered in formal schooling. Bilingual children start their speech production later than a monolingual child, yet cognitive development is the same as a normal monolingual child. Grammar in both languages is creative while learning the rules and depends on input from various domains. Here is a speech example of a four-year-old child, just before entering formal schooling; mother and child are arriving at the public library early reading program:

Mom-¿dónde llegamos Ozzy? [where are we?]

Ozzy-The story house

Mom- Y en español? [in Spanish?]

Ozzy- House de stories [English vocabulary is combined with Spanish structure]

As this youth of second-generation immigrants develop bilingualism and maintain their parents' native language, they develop a new variety of this heritage language in the United States, which differs from the monolingual dialects from their countries of origin. This new multilingual variation in the U.S. is formed by language and dialect contact in the new country (Escobar-Potowski, 2015). In youth, it becomes an interesting code-switching output, with its own grammar, not in violation of the syntactic rules of the languages involved. Language code-switching becomes a unique marker of identity for these speakers in mainstream societies.

as if they no longer exist in the present.

Code-Switching
The ability to alternate between two or more languages or even dialects in a spoken conversation.

Functional grammars
refers to Michael Halliday's view that language is "a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning." Linguistic utterances are shaped, based on the goals and knowledge of natural/ native language users. Each language having their own syntactic, pragmatic, and semantic functions attached to cultural practices shaping the interaction among specific speech communities.

REFLECTIVE TALKING POINT

Children that use minority/heritage language at home, experience their first encounter with the majority language at school. For heritage languages to be maintained and balanced bilingualism encouraged, it needs an opportunity to be fostered at the home environment and support from the school setting and communities at large.

1. Do you think it is important to maintain heritage languages? Why?

2. What could you do as a teacher or a professional to ease the impact of the change experienced by the immigrant child or 2nd generation heritage speaker?
3. How could you support heritage language maintenance from your position in the school?

LANGUAGE DOMAINS AND FAMILY INPUT IN BILINGUALISM

Domains are understood as the environments where individuals receive language input and interact within speech communities. Wide domains include home first. In this domain it is necessary to analyze relationships and family roles among mother, father, siblings, and other relatives in the household. Birth position in the family is important since the older child usually receives more heritage language input, and the younger children are exposed to the mainstream language as the older ones attend public schooling first and bring it to the home environment using it with younger siblings. Second, there are the schools and the community of residence domains. These two impact the interactions that an immigrant or heritage speaker, born in the U.S. child, has with the institutional language. If the community has a large population of immigrants from the same linguistic background, then the heritage and the dominant language compete, fostering bilingualism. On the contrary, if the community is anglophonic and there is less language diversity, the child most likely will transition. There are other types of communities within urban multicultural/linguistic communities, these are encountered in the boroughs of New York City. In these areas, residents separate in their own ethnic clusters to network and find support from each other. On the streets, multiple ethnic products are found mediated by multilingual interactions bridged by English usage as the community language. Young heritage speakers in these urban areas have a more rigid use of their languages making one private and the other public. The heritage language becomes part of the private domain and English takes the public domain.

In recent research on rural upstate New York communities of Hispanic agricultural immigrants (Montoya, 2015, Montoya & Leung, 2016, & Living Bilingual Blog, 2024). This research observed an interesting phenomenon of heritage language maintenance within communities where Hispanic immigrants live in clusters surrounded by anglophonic monolingual communities. This occurs due to the need to maintain ethnic identities where these identities survive from mutual support from each other and affirmative pride in their country of origin, which strengthens their community network. In these communities, inserted in rural NY, groups of people from the same origins are found, sharing public communal religious practices, cultural entertainment brought by them to the wide anglophonic community during Mexican holidays (public dances and food selling at public markets). This phenomenon, if embraced by the mainstream English speakers, integrates heritage speakers' dual identities. For more

positive outcomes, it is usually the role of teachers in these rural areas who have been observed providing care and support.

There are cultural symbolic markers that serve to foster dual language development. The music industry and social media is foremost the piece in fostering heritage language maintenance as it provides a unique skill to the children growing up with two languages that differentiates them from other young members of their mainstream communities, serving as identity markers that teenagers use to feed their networks of bilingual/code switchers friends. Along with the influences that these domains may have in a heritage child, there are the motives for retention: first, "root" identity passed by immigrant parents who are loyal and proud of their ethnicities; second, need for association with networks of friends that are multicultural/ multilingual, and lastly, recognition of the heritage language as an important skill to later secure a unique position in the job market. Language retention is observed to happen when there is fluid communication with extended family members and others in the community who are new immigrants into the U.S. Zentella (1997)revealed from her studies of the Puerto Rican community in New York, that those who favor the retention of Spanish are children who have both parents belonging to the group of first-generation adult immigrants. Nevertheless, there are other factors that relate to parents' support of their children's bilingualism; for example, if there is an assumption that if their ethnicity and language is retained, their children's social advancement may be penalized.. This preoccupation is factored by parents' level of education and their own and other family members' experiences of discrimination. Any kind of unpleasant or unjust situations that parents may have experienced by their lacking English fluency, will possibly perpetuate their own negative attitudes about immigration and bilingualism, which affects their assimilation into the U.S society, linguistically and culturally.

REFLECTIVE TALKING POINT

Families are so different from another in composition, cultural beliefs and practices, routines, levels of education, and access to products and services, and documented immigrant status in the U.S. All these factors may determine their capacity to assist their children to improve and take opportunities.

1. How can teachers support families to help their children succeed considering the diversity within them? Provide concrete examples.

MODELS OF EDUCATION FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Sonia Nieto (2017) defines multicultural education as a five-stage process (The five levels of multicultural education.) It departs at the monoculture level when one is only familiar with an immediate cultural input similar to self; then difference is noticed and

tolerance is civilly required by institutions such as schools so humans may cohabitate with one another. Not until authentic and honest interaction occurs, one comes to experience acceptance of the Other; respect ought to follow by learning about the others' perspectives and histories until affirmation and solidarity are reached.

The ideologies underlying many school policies and practices are based on flawed ideas about intelligence and difference. If we want to change the situation, it means changing the curriculum and pedagogy in individual classrooms, as well as the school's practices and the ideologies undergirding them. That is, we need to create not only affirming classrooms, but also an affirming society in which racism, sexism, social class discrimination, and other biases are no longer acceptable." ~ Sonia Nieto (cited in Reagan, 2009)

Through our U.S. educational history, immigrant children, or U.S born children of immigrants have been labeled many terms: "Non-English Speakers", "Minority Language Students", "Potentially English-Proficient Students (PEPs)", "Limited English-Proficient Students (LEPs)", "English as a New Language (ENLs)", "English Language Learners (ELLs)" and Emergent Bilinguals (EB). Definitions and understanding of this type of population have evolved to consider these students' learning more positive. Although teachers still struggle today to see them as comprehensive case studies with specific stories and needs. Pedagogical strategies transform as the increase in immigration demographics demand schools and communities to address this student population and the teaching/learning requirements. There have been two main curricular paths schools take to teach English to these second-generation speakers of other languages. The first and most popular in the U.S consists of transitional models where the goal for the learner is to become proficient in English; the second model targets dual-language learning and development of bilingualism. The latter is only implemented in areas where there are enough speakers of one language to balance classroom enrollment with half English monolinguals and the other half with a common immigrant language, which targets the entire school population to become bilingual. Tables 1 and 2 below summarize the models within transitional, maintenance or dual approaches, their goals, target populations, language literacy used and content-based language (Brisk, 1998).

Table #1 English – only approach in multilingual environmentsNomenclature: E.L.D. English Language Development L1= native language; L2 = second language; L3 = third language

Models	Goals	Target Population	Language Literacy	Distribution Subject Matter
1.ESL	ELD	Minority	In English	Content-based ESL (some programs)
2.Structured immersion	ELD	Minority	In English (Some limited L1)	Sheltered English for all subjects

Table #2 Bilingual Education approach in mostly bilingual environments, communities of immigrants from one linguistic background.

Bilingual Education Model	Goals	Target Population	Language Literacy	Distribution Subject Matter
3.Dual language	Bilingualism	Majority, international	L1 and L2, or L2 and L3	All in L1 and L2; or all in one, and some in the other
4.Canadian immersion	Bilingualism	Majority	L2 first, English later (early)	All subjects in L2 for 2 years; in English and L2 remainder of schooling
5.Two-way	Bilingualism	Majority, Minority	L1first for each group or L1 and L2 for both	All subjects in L1 and L2 distributed equally over the grades
6.Two-way Immersion	Bilingualism	Majority, Minority	First in minority's L1then in English	All subjects in minority's L1first, increasing use of English over the grades until it reaches 50%
7.Maintenance	Bilingualism	Minority	L1 literacy first, then in English	All subjects either in both languages or/and some subjects in native language others in English
8.Transitional	ELD	Minority	L1 literacy first, then in English	Most subjects in L1with ESL instruction; gradually to all subjects in English
9. Submersion with L1 support	ELD	Minority	English literacy, limited L1 literacy	All subjects in English with tutoring in L1
10. Bilingual immersion	ELD	Minority	L1 and English literacy from the beginning	Concept development in L1; sheltered English for all subjects
11. Integrated Transitional Bilingual Education	Partial bilingualism, ELD	Minority with Majority participation	L1 literacy first, exposure to English from the beginning	All subjects in L1 and in English, but assignment by student suited to language needs, and particular program structure

STRATEGIES TO MAINTAIN HERITAGE LANGUAGES REGARDLESS OF THE MODEL

Variations of models above guide teachers' strategies to teaching. However, as technologies present us with more tools into learning content, educators must transform their practices considering multi-literacy pedagogies and this includes the practices used for teaching speakers of other languages. Literacy pedagogy has transformed as a new generation of students enter classrooms with different perspectives about reading and writing. For instructors that have experienced technological changes early in their careers, but were educated with outdated pedagogical theory, it becomes challenging to engage the "app generation" (Gardner and Davis, 2014) with traditional approaches to teaching grammar and written composition. Teaching the heritage language speakers, today, requires adapting and merging their multifaceted diversity, their experienced technological skills, language proficiencies, and funds of knowledge (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005) students bring into the classroom. These new approaches to teaching literacy within bilingualism must be attentive to the students' interest in shifting their use of an oral-private language into a written-public one. For this purpose, the development of a sociolinguistic teaching methodology, where teachers prompt students to explore aspects of their own identities through oral narratives and written autobiographies in the classroom (Potowski, 2005). This becomes essential for analyzing

Digital Natives
A reference to people who were born into the age of the Internet and were immersed in digital technologies and new media at a young age.

retrospectively and reflecting about their students' linguistic and cultural diversity, while acquiring academic literacy proficiency in their heritage language . However, this alone does not address the way that "**digital natives**" learn. The work of multiliteracies pedagogy (Cope and Kalantzis, 2009) reveals that it is not only about the textbook or the sociolinguistic approach to instruction, but also the development in understanding there is a multi-literate world [that digital native]students more proficient in new media navigate with ease where the instructor is less proficient. This often detaches teachers' more traditional, or print centered, understanding of literacy development. A teaching proposal to address linguistic diversity departs from the private reflection, personal stories that may inspire conscious re-construction of students' bilingual – bicultural identity. Digitizing oral and written autobiographical discourses through devices beyond the pencil and paper and allowing students to code-switch, or translanguage, between their languages in digital communication as it is naturally reproduced by their bilingual proficiency, would give these students a voice in a web-connected world. One example of this process is in the Living Bilingual blog, where SUNY-Oneonta students share their stories of growing up bilingual and bicultural. Using these digital spaces to promote multilingualism will help develop global citizenship and give visibility to speech communities that have been invisible due to the influence of ideologies of the dominant culture and language (Montoya 2009). New educators' research has suggested that if heritage speakers ought to maintain their home languages and make use of it in public domains, it may provide students with key elements to be active members in the advancement of their communities. This analysis posits how human migration affects the use of language among communities and observes how the maintenance of heritage languages is used in social networks for survival, adaptation, and conservation of an ethnic identity. (Milroy, 1980; Mines & Massey, 1985; Grim-Feinberg, 2007; Paris Pombo, 2006).

In addition, Beaudrie and Fairclough (2012) analyzed new trends in maintenance of Spanish as a heritage language, its complexities, and the role that educational programs have in supporting positive attitudes toward bilingualism in the U.S. For example, Rivera-Mills (2012) presented multiple studies that have demonstrated the shift into English for the Hispanic community has differed slightly from previous immigrant groups. However, the case of maintenance of Spanish as a heritage language in rural areas presents a more complex phenomenon. This is seen in the lack of public places where the language is used, the costly access to Spanish mass media and the slower arrival of new immigrants – making the case that maintenance of Spanish as a heritage language is more challenging. The growing Hispanic population nationally, their attachment to language as an important identity factor and the children's roles as linguistic and cultural brokers for their Hispanic parents have all served as integrative motivators for second and third generations of Hispanics to recover and/or maintain Spanish as a heritage language. Other scholars like Dresser (2013) advocate for best practices where the integration of social-emotional learning (SEL) and academic learning is determinant to achieve important social tasks. As a result, this integration would promote self-confidence, and assists students in their understanding between goal setting, self-efficacy, and success. Ideally, this quality education through critical teaching pedagogies is offered to all speech

communities, dominant, not dominant, minority, majority, first, second, new, heritage and these may thrive together to achieve social justice that includes linguistic diversity. The New York State Education Department (NYSED, 2024) has expressed the concrete need for bilingual teachers in various regions of the state:

We, educators, understand that it is not only about being bilingual and a teacher, but also to be able to comprehend the complex realities of immigrant families and their journey to the "American Dream" ...their immigrant or/and U.S. born children.

CONSOLIDATING ACTIVITY

Reflective Talking Point:

1. How a differentiated approach to teach heritage speakers, their home language academically, may be implemented? What do you understand by a "sociolinguistic pedagogical approach"?

People's awareness of different cultures and languages bring great potential for more pluralistic ideologies about linguistic diversity.

1. Explain how you as an individual, and as a future teacher, aid in the transformation of ideologies towards linguistic pluralism?

GLOSSARY

Digital Natives: A reference to people who were born into the age of the Internet and were immersed in digital technologies and new media at a young age.

Sociolinguistics: The study of how language and discourse is influenced by social and cultural factors.

Code-Switching: The ability to alternate between two or more languages or even dialects in a spoken conversation.

Language ideology: values and belief systems regarding language in general, use of specific languages and its varieties, including community practices. Language ideologies are interconnected with social phenomena which become reflected in educational settings affecting the teaching and learning of heritage or immigrant langauges.

Speech community: also may be referenced as "language community" formed by those people who use a given language within a specific cohesive geographical area. One language integrates all community members by playing an important role in their interaction and having shared values and meanings that are part of that language and its culture.

Ethnocentrism: to define this term, first depart from the wide definition of "Ethnic

Identity" which refers to a shared history, descent, belief systems, practices, language and religion, all associated with a cultural group. In the United States history there was a period where immigrants were encouraged to assimilate to the ethnic identity understood as being "American", this notion at the center for unification and exclusion of any other who manifested a difference in beliefs, values, history or language use.

Plurilingualism: an environment where multiple languages may coexist without socio-political conflict and valuing linguistic diversity.

English as a Second Language: a term used to classify students who are learning English, who have arrived in schools after having developed their first language for oral communication and, depending on age of arrival to the new country, these students may already be literate in their first language with some years of formal schooling.

Transitional bilingual programs: these make reference to school programs, that although use other languages to teach English language Learners (ELLs), its ultimate goal is not to maintain bilingualism, but to transition into English.

Growing up Bilingual: situation when a child is born in the United States of immigrant parents who decide to maintain their native language use with their children, facilitating cultural and communal practices. Zentella in her book "Growing up Bilingual" describes this family language loyal decision as a political act of resistance to the United States hegemony.

Expressive language: also understood in this work as "linguistic expression", which is most typically associated with pragmatics in the speech acts. These are attempts by language users to perform specific actions, such as making statements, asking questions, making promises, expressing gratitude, requesting and apologizing. The expressiveness may be manifested through gestures specific to the speech community's culture, sound intonation, physical proximity...etc.

Heritage language learner: refers to a student who speaks a home language, other than English. This person was born in the United States or arrived during early childhood prior to developing literacy in the language of their parents.

Sociolinguistic pedagogical approach: this approach makes reference to an ongoing pedagogy explored after the 1980s, where their home language proficiency is used to learn the new language, and their social realities are taken in consideration as content to develop literacy.

Immigrant child learner: A younger student who immigrated to the United States after having completed some years of formal schooling in their native country. The child had already begun to develop communicative proficiency and literacy in their first langauge and recognized, consciously, the change of school setting, often suffering an initial linguistic and cultural shock that demanded adaptation and learning of new practices.

Erasure: A systematic removal of a group of people or aspects of a culture to make it seem the people or culture never existed or exists currently. One example of cultural erasure is most depictions of Indigenous peoples have been romanticized historical narratives, while current narratives ignore Indigenous peoples or act as if they no longer exist in the present.

Functional grammars: refers to Michael Halliday's view that language is "a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning". Linguistic utterances are shaped, based on the goals and knowledge of natural/native language users. Each language having their own syntactic, pragmatic, and semantic functions attached to cultural practices shaping the interaction among specific speech communities.

FIGURES

Ana Celia Zentella by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

Joshua Fishman by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

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7

From Slavery to the School to Prison Pipeline: A Call for Restorative Justice

Nicole Waid

Before We Read

Look at the image below. What message do you think the creator of this image was trying to make? How might the increase in people being sentenced to prison impact schools in disadvantaged communities?

Census Billboard by Lord Jim is shared with Creative Commons Attribution License.

Critical Question for Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions:

- How have centuries of systemic oppression, from the era of slavery to modern-day institutionalized discrimination, shaped the trajectory of education for marginalized communities in the United States?
- What measures can be taken to address the pervasive issue of the school-to-prison pipeline and what steps can be taken to implement restorative justice to dismantle this cycle of injustice?

The United States' education system has been scarred by historic inequities, tracing back to the era of slavery and persisting through various forms to the present day, best exemplified by the school-to-prison pipeline. From the establishment of segregated schools during the **Jim Crow** era to present-day disparities in school funding and disciplinary practices, marginalized communities have historically faced systemic barriers to educational opportunities. Many critical theorists like Gloria Ladson- Billings and Kimberle Crenshaw argue that these inequities are deeply rooted in historical injustices, such as the denial of education to enslaved African Americans and the establishment of separate and unequal schooling systems. This introduction sets the stage for an exploration of the multiple issues underlying educational inequality in the United States, underscoring the importance of understanding historical contexts and their enduring impacts on educational outcomes today (Anderson, 2017; Alexander, 2012; Krenshaw 2015).

Jim Crow
State and local laws that enforced racial segregation, primarily in the Southern United States, lasting from the post-Civil War era until around 1968.

This chapter is rooted in the work of Kimberle Crenshaw's critical race theory (1989) and Gloria Ladson- Billings's (1995) **culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP)**. **Critical Race Theory (CRT)**, as described by Kimberlé Crenshaw and other legal scholars, is a framework that examines the ways in which race intersects with systems of power and privilege, particularly within the context of law and society. CRT emphasizes the structural and institutional nature of racism, highlighting how it is embedded within societal norms, laws, and practices. Central to CRT is the recognition that racism operates not only on an individual level but also at the systemic level, perpetuating inequality, and injustice. CRT emphasizes the importance of understanding how race intersects with other social categories, such as gender, class, and sexuality, to produce unique forms of oppression and marginalization. Overall, CRT seeks to challenge dominant narratives, reveal hidden power dynamics, and advocate for social justice and equity (Krenshaw, 1989; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017).

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy (CRP)
An approach to teaching and learning that acknowledges and embraces students' cultural backgrounds, identities, and experiences

Critical Race Theory (CRT)
A framework that examines how race intersects with systems of power and privilege, particularly within the context of law and society

Restorative Justice
An approach to school discipline that emphasizes repairing harm through processes that include all stakeholders, aiming to build community and

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy (CRP), as defined by Gloria Ladson-Billings, is an approach to teaching and learning that acknowledges and embraces students' cultural backgrounds, identities, and experiences. Ladson-Billings emphasizes the importance of incorporating students' cultural references, values, and norms into the curriculum and instructional practices to make learning more relevant and engaging for diverse learners. By centering students' cultural identities and perspectives, CRP aims to foster a sense of belonging, empowerment, and academic success among marginalized and minoritized students (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Gay, 2018). Ladson-Billings has been a longtime advocate for social justice and has described a more just system of discipline

address the root causes of misconduct.

called **restorative justice** where student discipline problems are addressed within the classroom in a way that is responsive to the classroom culture (Ladson-Billings, 2015).

MEET THE THEORIST

Gloria Ladson-Billings (1947-) is an American pedagogical theorist and teacher educator known for her work in the fields of culturally relevant pedagogy and critical race theory, and the pernicious effects of systemic racism and economic inequality on educational opportunities. Her book *The Dreamkeepers: Successful Teachers of African-American Children* is a significant text in the field of education. Ladson-Billings is Professor Emerita and formerly the Kellner Family Distinguished Professor of Urban Education in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Wisconsin–Madison.

Thirteenth Amendment

Section 1

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof

the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Defining Freedom (youtube.com)

How does the exception clause of the 13th Amendment, which abolishes slavery 'except as a punishment for crime,' intersect with modern incarceration practices, and what are the social, economic, and racial implications of this intersection?

HISTORY OF INCARCERATION OF DIVERSE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

The history of law enforcement in the United States is linked to the history of slavery and colonialism in early American history. Since the emergence of policing in the modern era, law enforcement measures have characterized people of color and other marginalized populations as "the other" and established a racial hierarchical social order across the United States. Slaves gained emancipation when the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolished slavery. After Reconstruction policymakers undermined the constitutional extension of equality to black citizens and enacted new laws known as the **Black Codes** to regulate people of color and other peoples (Hinton & Cook, 2019). A quarter of freedman attended schools set up by the Freedman's Bureau in 1870. Freedman were people who gained their freedom from the 13th Amendment (Teaching Democracy, Nd.)

Black Codes
Laws enacted after the Civil War to regulate and restrict the newly freed Black population.

The schools in the Jim Crow era were inferior to the school districts white people attended. Southern schools were racially segregated because laws were enacted to ensure students attended different schools. The separate school systems were not equal. Schools for white children received more public money. Black students were often not sent to school because they were needed for farm work, and it was common for black students to only go to school for fourth grade well into the 1900's. Jim Crow laws were any state or local laws that enforced or legalized racial **segregation**. Jim Crow laws lasted for almost a century, from the post-Civil War era until around 1968, and their main purpose was to legalize separate but equal public facilities after the Plessy v. Ferguson decision in 1896.

Segregation
The enforced separation of races, as practiced in the United States between the late 19th century into the 1960s. This included segregated facilities like schools, transportation, restrooms and more under policies like Jim Crow laws, requiring Black people and white people to be separated in most aspects of public life.

Congress established the **Freedmen's Bureau** in 1865 to aid formally enslaved African Americans and impoverished whites in the South during the Reconstruction era. The bureau played a crucial role in providing education to freed slaves through the establishment of schools. The Freedmen's Bureau established several schools throughout the Southern states, providing education to thousands of formerly enslaved individuals. While specific statistics vary by source and region, historical records indicate that by the end of its operations, the bureau had established hundreds of schools and employed thousands of teachers, both black and white, to educate freedmen and their children. For example, according to a report by the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands (1872) by 1870, the Freedmen's Bureau had established over 4,000 schools, educating approximately 250,000 students across the Southern states. These schools provided basic education, vocational training, and other essential skills necessary for

Freedmen's Bureau
Established in 1865 to aid formerly enslaved African Americans and impoverished whites in the South during the Reconstruction era, playing a crucial role in

providing education to freed slaves.

the economic and social advancement of freemen (Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, 1872).

"Carte-de-visite of a Freedmen's School with students and teachers" by John D. Heywood, American is marked with CC0 1.0.

The following is an excerpt from a January 1866 Freedmen's Bureau report on education for freed people in the South, written by Freedmen's Bureau inspector John W. Alvord.

Not only are individuals seen at study, and under the most untoward circumstances, but in very many places I have found what I will call "native schools," often rude and very imperfect, but there they are, a group of all ages, trying to learn. Some young man, some woman, or old preacher, in cellar, or shed, or corner of a negro meetinghouse, with the alphabet in hand, or a torn spelling-book, is their teacher. All are full of enthusiasm with the new knowledge The Book is imparting to them . . .

A still higher order of this native teaching is seen in the colored schools at Charleston, Savannah, and New Orleans. With many disadvantages, they bear a very good examination. One I visited in the latter city, of 300 pupils, and taught by educated colored men, would bear comparison with any ordinary school at the north. Not only good reading and spelling were heard, but lessons at the black board in arithmetic, recitations in geography and English grammar. Very creditable specimens of writing were shown, and all the older classes could read or recite as fluently in French as in English. This was a free school, supported by the colored

people of the city. . . All the above cases illustrate the remark that this educational movement among the freedmen has in it a self-sustaining element. I took special pains to ascertain the facts on this particular point, and have to report that there are schools of this kind in some stage of advancement (taught and supported wholly by the people themselves) in all the large places I visited—often numbers of them, and they are also making their appearance through the interior of the entire country. The superintendent of South Carolina assured me that there was not a place of any size in the whole of that State where such a school was not attempted. I have much testimony, both oral and written, from others well informed, that the same is true of other States. There can scarcely be a doubt, and I venture the estimate, that at least 500 schools of this description are already in operation throughout the south. If, therefore, all these be added, and including soldiers and individuals at study, we shall have at least 125,000 as the entire educational census of these lately emancipated people.

This is a wonderful state of affairs. We have just emerged from a terrific war; peace is not yet declared. There is scarcely the beginning of reorganized society at the south; and yet here are a people long imbruted by slavery, and the most despised of any on earth, whose chains are no sooner broken than they spring to their feet and start up an exceeding great army, clothing themselves with intelligence. What other people on earth have ever shown, while in their ignorance, such a passion for education? (Facing History & Ourselves,n.d.)

Question to Consider

What does the passage suggest about the educational movement among the freedmen?

THE GREAT MIGRATION AND THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Between 1900 and 1970, approximately 6 million black people migrated from the South to the North. Jim Crow laws in the South reduced employment opportunities, which prompted waves of black men North in search of better opportunities. In the 1st wave of the **Great Migration**, about 1.5 million Black migrants moved between 1910 and 1940 (Baran, Chyn & Stewart, 2023). Research suggests that moving to the North brought more opportunities for black people, but there was also a higher probability of incarceration (Eriksson, 2019).

Great Migration
The movement of over 6 million African Americans from the rural Southern United States to the urban Northeast, Midwest and West between 1910 and 1970, motivated by factors like escaping Jim Crow laws and seeking better economic opportunities.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

The Great Depression, which began in 1929 and persisted throughout the 1930s, was one of the most significant crises in the history of the United States. The Great Depression had a profound impact on all aspects of American society, including education. During the Great Depression, black people experienced disproportionately elevated levels of unemployment compared to the general population. While official government statistics on unemployment rates specific to African Americans during the Great Depression may not be as comprehensive as contemporary data, historical accounts and studies provide insights into the extent of unemployment among African

Americans during that period. According to Wilson (2009), African American unemployment rates during the Great Depression often exceeded those of white Americans. Some estimates suggest that African American unemployment rates reached as high as 50% or even more in some urban areas heavily affected by economic downturns, such as Harlem in New York City and the South Side of Chicago. These high unemployment rates among African Americans during the Great Depression were greatly impacted by discriminatory hiring practices, unequal access to relief programs, and systemic racism prevalent in the workforce and society at the time. African Americans faced significant barriers to employment, including racial segregation, lower wages for the same work as white Americans, and limited opportunities for advancement (Wilson, 2009).

There were many racial disparities in the criminal justice system in the 1930's. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, by 1939, the incarceration rate reached 137 people incarcerated per 100,000. This incarceration level was not obtained in the United States for the next 41 years (US Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics, n.d.). In 1930, the white-black disparity in incarceration rates was 4.1 times higher for blacks than whites (Wagner, October 7, 2001).

The discriminatory practice of **redlining** emerged during the Great Depression, leading to several negative consequences. Redlining is a practice where the Homeowners' Loan Corporation (HOLC) assigned A-D security ratings to neighborhoods across the United States between 1935 and 1940. HOLC maps have had lingering adverse effects on modern outcomes such as credit scores, family structure, home values, household income, neighborhood segregation, and incarceration (Aaronson et al. 2020). Redlining also impacted other important neighborhood features, like education and a healthy environment. Businesses were less inclined to do business in redlined areas because they were deemed hazardous, meaning residents often had to travel outside their communities for things like groceries (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2022).

Redlining
A discriminatory practice where the Homeowners' Loan Corporation assigned security ratings to neighborhoods, often denying services to areas with significant minority populations.

When HOLC was created in 1935 and worked with the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) to ensure loans under New Deal legislation. The HOLC would deem black communities a hazard leading to denial of home loans, and housing covenants excluded black people from buying homes in their neighborhoods. Lukes and Cleveland (2024) examined school funding disparities that have occurred and reached the conclusion that schools and districts located today in historically redlined D neighborhoods have less per-pupil revenues, larger shares of Black and non-White student populations, and worse average test scores relative to those located in A, B, and C neighborhoods. These findings suggest that policymakers need to consider the historical implications of redlining and past neighborhood inequality on neighborhoods today when designing modern interventions focused on improving the life outcomes of students of color and students from low-socioeconomic backgrounds.

Grant (1993) presented educational statistics to highlight the number of students aged 5-20 from 1850-1955 who were enrolled in schools. The statistics show that over time the number of black students enrolled in schools increased dramatically in the period 1850-1955. Due to the Supreme Court decision in Plessy v. Ferguson in 1896, schools were legally segregated in "separate but equal" conditions.

SPOTLIGHT ON ALBANY'S HISTORIC PROBLEM WITH REDLINING AND ITS IMPACT ON SCHOOLS

In 1938, Albany, New York the HOLC map was created. During this time,here was an influx of black Americans moving north to get more opportunities during the Great Migration. The map designated four sections of the city as rated-D zones. These zones were occupied by Black communtities, with some foreign-born immigrants also residing in the area. Jasmine Higgins' ancestors moved to Albany during the Great Migration from the South while the Black population doubling every year from 1950 to 1980 (Mikati & Medina, June 6, 2021). According to Mikati and Medina, while one-third of Albany identifies as Black, they are mostly condensed into three neighborhoods located in the heart of Albany; Arbor Hill, West Hill, and South End had been redlined in 1938. Albany's racial inequities closely reflect the 1938 map. Only 20% of Black residents from Albany are homeowners with an overall poverty rate is 22% compared to 10.5%nationally. According to Silberstein (December 27, 2019), students of color, immigrant students, and those from single-parent households have historically concentrated in underfunded, declining neighborhoods, resulting in fewer opportunities for many socioeconomic factors like good schools. Silberstein noted that according to researchers at Brandeis University, Arbor Hill ranks amongst the lowest opportunity areas for children. Using 2015 census data from neighborhoods around the country and compared the level of opportunities such as graduation rates, percentage of immigrant and single-parent households, income, and the availability of stable housing and green spaces to produce a "Child Opportunity Index." These areas were rated from 1 to 100, with the highest numbers for places with the most opportunity. Arbor Hill ranked an opportunity score of 1 in the study.

Looking at present-day Albany, an observer can see the lasting impact of redlining in today's schools. Albany school discipline records paint an alarming portrait of the racial divide in school suspensions. According to the Center for Civil Rights Remedies (2015), Albany suspended 44% of Black male secondary students with disabilities at least once in 2011-12. All Black male secondary students face a high suspension risk of 40%.

The nationwide systemic impact of redlining on schools has left enduring disparities in educational opportunities and outcomes (Massey & Denton, 1993). Redlining, a discriminatory practice in the mid-20th century, systematically denied services, including quality education, to neighborhoods based on their racial or ethnic composition (Rothstein, 2017). During the Great Depression, Franklin D. Roosevelt proposed the New Deal which was a series of new programs that were proposed to provide relief, recovery, and reform to both the government and the American people. One program that was initiated under the New Deal was the National Industry Recovery Act, which allowed Roosevelt to sign executive orders that would set up industrial cartels that made it illegal to hire people below a minimum wage, which led to approximately 500,000 black people losing their jobs. The New Deal policies made it more difficult to hire new workers, making home ownership out of reach for many Black Americans (Powell, 2003).

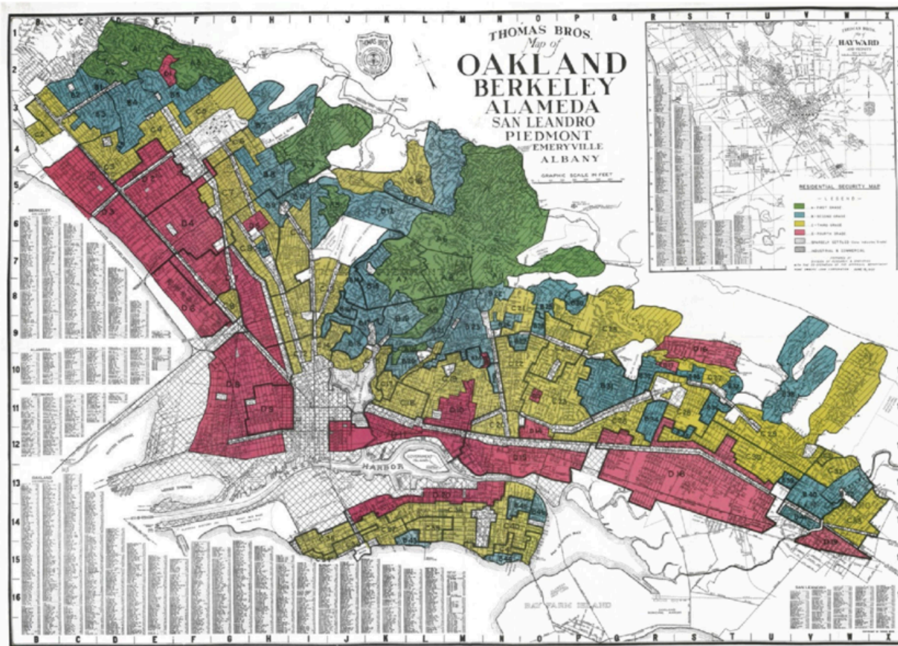
According to Brandt (2020) the structure of home mortgages varies from the

mortgages we see today. In the 1930's it was customary to require 50% of the home's cost as a down payment and forced the homeowner to pay off the remaining balance in monthly installments for a term of 5 to 10 years. To address the fact that approximately 1000 people per day were defaulting on their mortgages the New Deal set up the HOLC and FHA to federally insure mortgages. While this action did invigorate home ownership, the program was set up in an era that did not recognize the civil rights for black people, so the efforts for relief excluded many black people from home ownership (Brandt, 2020).

One of the most significant effects of redlining was the increase of racial segregation in schools (Orfield & Lee, 2007). Schools in redlined neighborhoods attended by marginalized populations often face chronic underfunding. Lukes and Cleaveland (2024) studied the link between HOLC maps and current school funding and found that schools mapped to HOLC D grade areas have the highest shares of students qualifying for free and reduced-price lunch, making them eligible for Title I funding, and have worse school-level average math and reading scores than their more highly rated A, B, and C peers, nationally and regionally. This disparity in funding perpetuated unequal access to quality education, perpetuating cycles of disadvantage and inequality (Renzulli & Evans, 2005).

The legacy of redlining continues to impact educational opportunities for marginalized communities (Frankenberg & Lee, 2002). Generations of students from redlined neighborhoods have experienced barriers to academic achievement and socioeconomic mobility (Reardon & Owens, 2014). Limited access to quality education restricts opportunities for higher education and economic advancement, perpetuating intergenerational cycles of poverty (Hill, 2018).

Efforts to address the systemic impact of redlining on schools necessitate comprehensive strategies aimed at promoting equity and addressing historical injustices (Welner & Carter, 2013). Targeted investments in under-resourced schools, along with policies aimed at addressing segregation and inequality in housing and communities, are essential to promoting educational equity and opportunity for all students (Noguera, 2003).



HOLC map of Oakland, CA. Published by the Mapping Inequality project [7] under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/).

BROWN V. BOARD OF EDUCATION AT 70: THE PROBLEM WITH SEGREGATED SCHOOLS

In the early 1950s, racial segregation in public schools was still widespread in many parts of the United States. Many states in the Jim Crow South were legally segregated under the 1896 Plessy v. Ferguson supreme court case. These laws enforced racial segregation in schools, with African American students attending separate schools that were often inferior in terms of funding and quality of education. In May 1954, the Supreme Court overturned Plessy v. Ferguson in the Brown v. Board of Education ruling. The Brown v. Board of Education led to the legal **desegregation** of schools. This ruling was met with resistance and was followed -up by the 1955 Brown II decision that stated that desegregation must proceed with “all deliberate speed.” Despite the legal rulings, many schools resisted desegregation, most notably in the case of the Little Rock Nine in Little Rock, Arkansas. This incident prompted President Dwight D. Eisenhower to send in the 101st Airborne in and federalized the Arkansas National Guard troops to assist in the desegregation process.

Desegregation
The process of ending the segregation of races, especially the separation of Black and white students in public schools as mandated by the Supreme Court’s Brown v. Board of Education ruling in 1954. The ruling declared segregated schools unconstitutional and called for their desegregation.

Achievement Gap
A term used to describe differences in educational outcomes between students.

Even with the monumental strides Brown v. Board of Education and Brown II court decisions, schools continue to be segregated for assorted reasons well into the 21st century. According to Pendharkar (June 7, 2023), suggested that school segregation has increased in the past three decades. Pendharkar highlighted a May 2023 report released by the United States Department of Education which stated that research indicated that racially and socioeconomically isolated schools often have less access to the necessary resources and funding needed to ensure that equitable educational opportunities are provided for all students. Metlzer, (May 6, 2024) predicated the notion that there are two main factors driving the increase: the end of most court oversight that required school districts to create integrated schools, and policies that favor school choice and parental

preference. According to Metlzer (2024), "between 1991 and 2019, black-white segregation increased by 3.5 percentage points in the 533 districts that serve at least 2,500 Black students, an increase of 25% from historically low levels. But in the 100 largest school districts, which serve about 38% of all Black students, the analysis found segregation increased by 8 percentage points — a 64% increase". Scholars have argued that **achievement gap**, a term used to describe differences in educational outcomes between students, can be explained at least in part by differences in opportunity driven by inequitable distribution of resources and funding (Milner, 2013).

Racial isolation in schools has persisted well into the 21st century. According to the enrollment data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported in 2022 white students now make up 45% of all students enrolled in public schools. While the overall school population has become more racially and ethnically diverse, some research suggests that divisions among races have increased in the last 30 years (US Department of Education, May 2023). The US Department of Education report on the state of school diversity in the United States highlights that racial inequities are often exacerbated by societal factors such as poverty, opportunity gaps, and inequitable funding. Adverse societal factors often lead to lower-performing schools in urban areas having higher incidences of school disciplinary actions among marginalized communities. Since 1970, these factors have contributed to **zero-tolerance policies**, which include rigid responses to breaking the rule and resulted in automatic severe penalties, such as suspension or expulsion, sometimes for minor infractions. These policies resulted in an increase in the number of school suspensions and expulsions, particularly among marginalized communities. (US Department of Education, May 2023). Thus, the results have created a constant funnel of students from schools to prisons, or what many label the **school-to-prison pipeline**.

Zero-Tolerance Policies
Harsh disciplinary policies in schools that lack administrative discretion and often result in automatic severe penalties, such as suspension or expulsion, for rule violations.

School-to-Prison Pipeline
A phenomenon where school disciplinary actions, such as suspensions and expulsions, contribute to funneling students, particularly from marginalized communities, into the criminal justice system.

> In 1973, the Supreme Court heard San Antonio v. Rodriguez (Rodriguez, 411 U.S. 1, 1973). The case dealt with the issue of school funding. As you watch, ask yourself if you agree with the Supreme Court's three standards that were set forth in the majority's decision to make an equal protection claim? Why or why not?
>
> https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=B-2NebSwMpU

RICHARD NIXON'S WAR ON CRIME AND ITS IMPACT ON SCHOOLS

President Richard Nixon's war on crime, which emerged in the late 1960s, had far-reaching consequences for the United States education system. Nixon's war on crime was officially announced in 1969 and was a significant shift in federal policy towards criminal justice. The war on crime was driven by concerns about rising crime rates and social unrest present in the late 1960's in the United States, the initiative aimed to increase law enforcement capabilities, enhance punitive measures, and prioritize the fight against crime as a national priority (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and

Administration of Justice, 1967). According to Alexander (2010), the war on crime laid the groundwork for the militarization of school discipline. Federal funds were allocated to hire school resource officers to maintain order within schools. The presence of law enforcement in schools introduced a punitive element that shifted the focus from education to control, contributing to an environment where minor disciplinary infractions were often treated as criminal offenses.

Zero-tolerance policies emerged in schools when the war on crime was instituted. Students, especially those who come from marginalized communities, became part of a cycle where school disciplinary actions became a precursor for involvement in the criminal justice system (Nellis, 2011). This criminalization of students under Nixon's policies led to a sharp increase in expulsions instead of addressing the root causes of the students' misbehavior through supportive school environments. This approach perpetuated the school-to-prison pipeline, funneling young individuals from schools into the criminal justice system (Sughrue, 2013).

RONALD REAGAN'S WAR ON DRUGS AND ITS IMPACT ON THE SCHOOL-TO-PRISON PIPELINE

Reagan's war on drugs in the 1980's played a significant role in fueling the school-to-prison pipeline, creating a cycle of youth incarceration that disproportionately affected marginalized communities. The establishment of mandatory minimum sentences, increased school resource officers in schools, and the racial disparities inherent in the policies led to many negative consequences. Alexander (2010) discussed the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1986, which established mandatory minimum sentences for drug offenses. These punitive measures disproportionately affected marginalized communities, leading to an increase in the incarceration of nonviolent offenders. The implementation of mandatory minimums exacerbated the school-to-prison pipeline by removing youths from the school system and funneling them into the criminal justice system. Reagan's war on drugs also prompted the expansion of school resource officers in schools which led to a more oppressive school environment. Under zero-tolerance policies even routine disciplinary issues that once were handled within the school transformed into police involvement, funneling students into the juvenile justice system, and setting them on a path towards incarceration (Nellis, 2016).

There has been a growing number of suspensions since 1973 in the United States. In 1973, the overall U.S. suspension rate was 4%. By the 2009–10 school year, suspensions had increased to 7%, with particularly sharp increases from the mid-1980s through the 1990s. (Leung-Gagne, McComb, Scott, C., and Losen, September, 2022). Zero tolerance policies that were in place impacted black students disproportionally higher than their white counterparts.

The 1994 Crime Bill

The 1994 Crime Bill inadvertently accelerated the school-to-prison pipeline by

increasing punitive disciplinary measures in schools. The Clinton Administration instituted a three-strikes policy, which mandated life sentences for individuals convicted of a violent felony after two or more prior convictions, promoted and expanded zero-tolerance policies, and increased police presence in schools. Keeping with patterns of school suspensions in previous time periods, The Crime Bill disproportionately impacted marginalized communities, contributing to the overrepresentation of minorities in the criminal justice system. Growing rates of incarceration impacted neighborhoods, causing many social-emotional concerns (Alexander, 2020).

The Unintended Consequences of No Child Left Behind

On January 8, 2002, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) was signed into law. No Child Left Behind placed enormous pressure on administrators to improve student achievement and address disruptive students from schools. The strict guidelines set up by NCLB led to many school districts adopting zero-tolerance policies to address discipline issues that were plaguing schools nationwide. When problems occurred in the classroom mitigating circumstances were not considered and prompted a growing number of schools to adopt discipline plans that included suspensions and expulsions (Klehr, 2009).

There were many actions taken to achieve the harsh standards that were enacted into law under NCLB. The legislation emphasized standardized testing and tied school funding to the performance of student test scores from grades 3-8. Opponents of NCLB felt that the move to standardized testing is that teachers would often narrow the curriculum to teach to the standardized test. Schools that did not meet the **Adequate Yearly Progress** (AYP) outlined by state and federal law would be labeled a school in need of improvement. School funding was tied to a school's AYP. Opponents felt that taking funding away from low-performing schools would stigmatize schools and would make meeting the more rigorous standards more difficult.

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)
Outlined by state and federal law under No Child Left Behind, schools that did not meet certain AYP standards would be labeled a school in need of improvement.

One of the most controversial elements of NCLB was the movement toward zero-tolerance policies that were punitive in nature. Some of the characteristics of zero-tolerance policies include harsh disciplinary policies, lack of administrative discretion when implementing discipline policies, and it has a negative impact on students (Klehr, 2009).

Every Student Succeeds Act

The Every Student Succeeds Act (Pub. L. No. 114-95, 129 Stat. 1802 (2015) undid some of the more controversial provisions under NCLB. Every Student Succeeds Act emphasizes the importance of promoting safe and supportive school communities. The law encourages the use of evidence-based practices for school discipline and encourages schools to implement **positive behavioral interventions and supports** (PBIS) to improve student behavior and overall school climate. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2016) civil rights data collection, the school suspensions, and expulsions in K–12 public education displays major racial disparities. African American K–12 students account for 1.1 million of the 2.8 million out-of-school suspensions administered in School Year 2013–14, making African American students 3.8 times

Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS)
An approach encouraged by the Every Student Succeeds Act to improve student behavior and overall school climate.

more likely to be suspended and 1.9 times more likely to be expelled than their white peers. Title II of ESSA (Every Student Succeeds Act) encourages states to provide support more effective instruction of their teachers with in-service training to identify students in need of intervention and support and help educators how to refer for intervention students who may have been affected by trauma in their communities or who are at risk for mental health issues.

BREAKING THE SCHOOL TO PRISON PIPELINE WITH RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

Restorative justice is an approach to school discipline that emphasizes repairing harm through processes that includes all stakeholders in the process. Restorative justice aims to build community and address the root causes of misconduct through practices like circles, conferences, and mediation. The ACLU of Washington (December 9, 2009) advocated for a shift away from zero-tolerance policies in schools established under Richard Nixon, arguing that such approaches disproportionately harm marginalized communities. The ACLU pointed out the negative impacts of zero-tolerance policies on students of color and those with disabilities, leading to higher rates of suspension and expulsion. It highlights the need for a restorative approach to discipline, focusing on understanding the root causes of behavior and addressing them constructively. They called for the implementation of alternative approaches to school discipline such as restorative justice, which prioritizes dialogue and reconciliation over punishment. The ACLU emphasized the importance of community engagement in shaping school policies and encourages a comprehensive approach to student well-being.

According to Payne and Welch (2013), schools with punitive discipline policies are prevalent in schools after decades of the school-to-prison pipeline's creation and are trying to transition to a community-building approach to discipline. During the latter part of the 20th century, domestic policies took a hardline approach to crime and those punitive policies spilled beyond the schoolhouse doors. Over time, the zero tolerance policies under the Nixon, Reagan, and Clinton administrations have led to many harsh punishments in schools such as suspensions and expulsions. This phenomenon has pulled students out of the classroom and into the criminal justice system. The goal of schools is to educate students; pulling students out of the learning environment and into the criminal justice system makes it impossible to achieve our goal as educators.

THE FIVE RS OF RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

There are five Rs that serve as the foundation of restorative justice practices in schools; relationships, respect, responsibility, repair, and reintegration (Title,2007).

Relationships

Relationships lie at the heart of the restorative justice process. The person who caused harm has negatively impacted the lives of members of the school community. Without strong relationships, it becomes increasingly more difficult to create communities that students want to be a part of. As caring classroom teachers, we can attempt to repair these relationships. Once the person who caused harm to the classroom community starts to accept responsibility that leads to the beginning of the restorative process (Title, 2007).

Respect

Every relationship cultivated in the classroom must be nurtured with respect. Teachers must set an expectation for exhibiting and modeling respect for their students. During a restorative practice intervention, all stakeholders must be committed to showing not only respect for others, but also respect for themselves. All members of the restorative process must engage in listening to all perspectives, reserving judgement. Respect in the restorative process helps to make the process less adversarial and more about repairing the relationships that have been damaged because of an infraction in the classroom. When the restorative process is well-defined as being a more proactive approach, classroom discipline takes on a whole different approach that places emphasis on trusting relationships (Title, 2007).

Responsibility

For restorative justice to be an effective process, all stakeholders in the process must address their own responsibility in an infraction. Honesty is paramount when taking responsibility for their actions that cause harm. Even if the harm was unintentional, the person who caused the harm needs to take responsibility for their actions. Deciding to take responsibility is a personal choice and cannot be imposed on someone unwillingly (Title, 2007).

Repair

Once the persons involved have accepted responsibility for their destructive behavior and they have heard in the restorative process about how others were harmed by their action, they are expected to make repairs. Starting the process with the goal of repairing the situation allows us to set aside punitive thoughts of revenge and punishment. It is essential that all stakeholders in the event be involved in identifying the harm and having a voice in how it will be repaired. It is through taking responsibility for one's own behavior and attempting to make amends that students may regain or strengthen their self-respect and the respect of others (Title, 2007).

Reintegration

To complete the restorative justice process, the stakeholders in the community allow the person who caused harm to accept responsibility for their actions and begin to reintegrate into to the classroom community. Reintegration encourages including all members of the classroom community and the person who caused harm in the restorative process. This process is less harmful than isolating or removing the student. One of the benefits of this stage of the restorative process is that it accentuates the positive things the student brings to the classroom community. Unlike the more punitive outcomes of zero-tolerance policies, restorative justice places an emphasis on what the student who caused harm has learned through the restorative process. By accepting responsibility and agreeing to repair the harm, the

student who caused harm rebuilds the trust to be reintegrated into the classroom community (Title, 2007).

INTEGRATING RESTORATIVE JUSTICE IN SCHOOLS: A CASE STUDY APPROACH

Considering traditional discipline measures failing our students, especially among marginalized groups of students, alternative approaches to zero-tolerance policies of the past have been adopted across the nation. A study of 485 middle schools in California examined schools over a six-year period and noted the outcome and impacts on schools and who had integrated restorative justice principles into their disciplinary practices. The key findings of the study showed that schools that adopted restorative practices have less school suspensions and expulsions. Additionally, schoolwide school discipline and school climate improved because of using restorative practices (Darling-Hammond, 2023). Weaver & Swank (2020) also conducted a case study in the southeastern United States and examined 1000 middle school students, 60% of whom were marginalized students. The findings revealed that stakeholders representing various groups, including administration, instructional staff, and students, reported success in implementing a restorative justice approach to their discipline (Weaver & Swank, 2020).

Jones (June 16, 2022) highlighted Fremont High School in Oakland, California. In 2017, Fremont High School faced high discipline rates, low attendance, frequent fights, and a low graduation rate, with only 1 in 4 graduates qualifying for public college in California and 1 in 3 dropping out. With a newly rebuilt campus and a dedicated effort to enhance a positive school climate, Fremont has experienced a 20% increase in enrollment, contrasting with the districtwide decline. Additionally, the number of students eligible for college admission has tripled. The transformation is attributed to a restorative justice program that was initially aimed at dispute resolution but has since evolved into a comprehensive overhaul of the school's culture (Johnson, June 16, 2022). Schools like Fremont High School are emblematic of the vision for a more culturally responsive approach to classroom discipline. The research points to addressing restorative practices school-wide, and not in a single classroom. Teachers can model respect and focus on building inclusive environments without fear of punishment.

Traditional Discipline v. Restorative Justice Practices
University of San Diego Professional and Continuing Education, n.d.

Traditional	Situation	Restorative
The school security guard breaks it up and the students are sent to the principal's office for punishment.	**Brad is shoved in the hallway and a scene ensues**	Students and teachers intervene, de-escalate the situation and a time to meet is scheduled for that day.
Brad is suspended for 3 days and will have to serve detention when he returns to school.	**Brad learns his fate**	Facilitators, Brad, and the other student meet in a restorative justice circle to discuss the fight, come to find it was a misunderstanding and each student agrees to write a letter of apology
Brad is not in school, missing valuable learning opportunities and a scheduled session with a tutor.	**The next day ...**	Brad meets with his tutor; gets help on an assignment he has struggled with and is more invested in the restorative school community.

Benefits of Implementation of Restorative Justice Programs in Schools

Restorative justice practices have grown in popularity and are seen as an effective approach to address disciplinary issues in schools, promoting a positive and inclusive school environment. Unlike traditional zero-tolerance punitive measures, restorative justice focuses on repairing harm, building relationships, and promoting a sense of responsibility. There are many benefits of implementing a restorative justice program. Restorative justice programs contribute to the creation of a positive school climate by emphasizing communication, empathy, and understanding. According to a study by Morrison, Vaandering, and Cunningham (2018), schools that adopt restorative justice experience improved relationships among students and between students and staff, fostering a sense of community. This community building approach focuses on building a culture of respect and limits students causing harm to others.

One of the key advantages of restorative justice in schools is its ability to reduce repeat offenses in the school community. A study by Hopkins and Keene (2016) found that restorative justice practices are associated with lower rates of repeat offenses compared to traditional punitive measures. By addressing the root causes of misbehavior and promoting self-reflection, restorative justice helps students develop a greater sense of responsibility in the community.

Restorative justice practices align with the principles of **social and emotional learning**, fostering the development of crucial life skills. According to a report by the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2017), restorative justice enhances students' social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. New York State has implemented the Social Emotional Learning Framework as a guide to assist school leaders on how to promote positive social interactions in the school community.

Social and Emotional Learning (SEL)
A framework that aims to foster the development of essential skills and competencies necessary for students' social, emotional, and academic success, according to the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL).

Social-emotional learning (SEL) encompasses a set of key principles aimed at fostering the development of essential skills and competencies necessary for students' social, emotional, and academic success. According to CASEL (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning), a leading organization in SEL research and practice, SEL is grounded in five core competencies: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. These

competencies serve as the foundation for promoting students' emotional intelligence, interpersonal skills, and positive behavior. Self-awareness involves recognizing one's emotions, strengths, and weaknesses, fostering a sense of identity and confidence. Self-management encompasses strategies for regulating emotions, setting goals, and persevering through challenges. Social awareness emphasizes empathy and understanding of others' perspectives, promoting inclusivity and respect for diversity. Relationship skills focus on effective communication, collaboration, conflict resolution, nurturing healthy interpersonal connections. Responsible decision-making involves considering ethical implications and consequences, making informed choices, and taking responsibility for one's actions. By integrating SEL principles into educational settings through explicit instruction, supportive environments, and meaningful opportunities for practice, educators can empower students to develop essential life skills that contribute to their overall well-being and success in school and beyond (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2017).

The process of restorative justice empowers students by involving them in the problem resolution process. Students have a voice in shaping outcomes of an infraction and are afforded the opportunity to take responsibility for their actions. This empowerment fosters a sense of autonomy, as it is shown by Riestenberg and Phelps (2019). This practice attempts to keep students in the classroom rather than writing a discipline referral or removing students from a classroom. Stressing discourse as a way of solving problems in the classroom leads to richer relationships between teachers and their students. Restorative justice practices strengthen the bond between teachers and students. By promoting open communication and understanding, teachers become better equipped to address the underlying causes of disruptive behavior. This can lead to improved teacher-student relationships, as discussed in a study by Thorsborne and Blood (2013).

Barriers to Implementing Restorative Justice in Schools

While restorative justice has gained recognition as a positive alternative to traditional punitive disciplinary measures, there are multiple barriers to the effective implementation of restorative justice in schools nationwide. These barriers can hinder its potential impact on creating a more inclusive and supportive learning environment in the classroom. Considering the domestic policies that were enacted throughout the 20th century, many schools use traditional measures because educators lack proper training in and knowledge of restorative practices (Morrison,2016). Due to the lack of knowledge about how restorative justice works, implementing it in schools is met with great resistance. Because restorative practices are a departure from traditional discipline measures, some administrators meet the implementation of restorative justice with great trepidation (Gregory, Clawson, Davis & Gerewitz, 2016). Without buy-in from administrators and faculty resources, implementing restorative practice may be limited. Limited resources like funding and time to implement restorative practices make it difficult for schools that service students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

Take a Stand- Restorative Justice in Schools

You have read about multiple benefits and barriers to implementing restorative justice practices in schools. What are some of these barriers and benefits? After weighing the benefits and barriers do you believe that restorative justice should be implemented in schools or not? Be sure to cite reasons and/or examples to support your position.

RESTORATIVE JUSTICE PRACTICES FOR SCHOOLS

When adopting restorative justice practices in schools, there are multiple strategies educators can employ to diffuse situations before they rise to the level of removing a student from the classroom through suspension or expulsion. All restorative practices in schools share a common framing of interactions used to address behaviors in schools;

1. All involved parties discuss the incident in question.
2. The victim and the accused both are given equal opportunity to speak.
3. Teachers act as facilitators, where they ask open-ended questions to promote reflection.
4. Questions posed to students often include: What can you do to address this situation? How would you feel if the same thing happened to you? How did your behavior impact your fellow students?
5. All involved parties decide on a course of action, and all parties work together to carry out that plan (University of San Diego Professional and Continuing Education, n.d.)

Circles

One of the most popular restorative justice strategies used in schools is the use of circles. Circles involve the whole class and are designed to help the classroom community set their own expectations and standards of behavior for the classroom. During the circle activity, all stakeholders in the classroom participate by sharing their perspectives and the potential causes for misbehavior. By employing the circles strategy, all stakeholders in the classroom are afforded the opportunity to assume a sense of ownership over the rules that shape classroom procedures and rules (University of San Diego Continuing and Professional Education, n.d.).

There are many benefits to using restorative circles in schools. Sherman and Strang (2007) suggested that research shows that schools that use restorative practices like circles experienced declines in disciplinary issues. Through the structured nature of restorative circles students hone their social skills and practice effective communication skills. Restorative circles also require active listening skills to be used by all stakeholders in the classroom. By actively listening to all stakeholders' perspectives, the class works

towards finding the root causes of an infraction. Active listening often leads to increased levels of empathy towards others and better communication skills (Hopkins, 2016). Lastly, restorative circles have the potential to reduce bullying in the classroom. This occurs because when students actively listen to their peers, they start to see the perspectives of others and that might lead to heightened levels of empathy towards others in the classroom community (Smith, 2016).

Learning for Justice, a project of the Southern Poverty Law Center, created a toolkit to assist educators in developing restorative justice principles to address classroom infractions. According to the toolkit restorative justice practices are inquiry-led and either have the goal of social restoration or self-restoration. Whatever the desired outcome is, the process is driven by a series of questions to examine classroom problems from many perspectives. Open-ended questions such as the following are helpful when addressing problems for the purpose of social restoration:

- Tell me what happened.
- What was your part in what happened?
- What were you thinking at the time?
- How were you feeling at the time?
- Who else was affected by this?
- What have been your thoughts since?
- What are they now?
- How are you feeling now?
- What do you need to do to make things right? Repair the harm that was done? Get past this and move on?
- What can we do to support you?
- What might you do differently when this happens again? (Learning for Justice, n.d.).

Similar open-ended questions are asked when the goal of the restorative circle is self-restoration. Questions such as the following are helpful when conducting a restorative practice for self-restorative purposes:

- Tell me what has been happening.
- What do you think about this situation?
- How are you feeling about this situation?
- How is this getting in the way of your learning? Feeling okay about school? Being the person, you want to be at school?
- What do you need to learn/to do to make things better? Make things right? Reset and get back on track?
- What can we do to support you?
- What might you do differently the next time you find yourself in this situation (Learning for Justice, n.d.)?

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How have historical policies and practices like redlining, segregation, and punitive disciplinary measures contributed to the perpetuation of educational inequities for marginalized communities? Provide specific examples from the chapter.
2. Evaluate the role of critical race theory (CRT) and culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP) in understanding and addressing systemic racism and inequities in the education system. How can these frameworks inform approaches to creating more equitable learning environments?
3. Discuss the implications of the "school-to-prison pipeline" phenomenon. What are the potential long-term consequences for individuals, communities, and society as a whole? How can this cycle be effectively disrupted?
4. Analyze the pros and cons of restorative justice practices in educational settings. What are the potential benefits and challenges of implementing these approaches? How can restorative justice be effectively integrated into schools?
5. Reflect on the role of educators in promoting social justice and educational equity. What specific strategies or actions can teachers and administrators take to create more inclusive and supportive learning environments for all students, especially those from marginalized backgrounds?
6. Examine the intersectionality of race, socioeconomic status, and other factors in shaping educational experiences and outcomes. How can an understanding of intersectionality inform efforts to address disparities and promote equity in education?
7. Discuss the role of community engagement and collaboration in fostering positive change in the education system. How can schools, families, and communities work together to dismantle systemic barriers and create more equitable educational opportunities?

ACTIVITY

Watch this PBS video.

Inside California Education: Restorative Justice

What restorative strategies did you notice in the video?

GLOSSARY

Achievement Gap: A term used to describe differences in educational outcomes between students.

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP): Outlined by state and federal law under No Child Left Behind, schools that did not meet certain AYP standards would be labeled a school in need of improvement.

Black Codes: Laws enacted after the Civil War to regulate and restrict the newly freed Black population.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy (CRP): An approach to teaching and learning that acknowledges and embraces students' cultural backgrounds, identities, and experiences

Critical Race Theory (CRT): A framework that examines how race intersects with systems of power and privilege, particularly within the context of law and society

Desegregation: The process of ending the segregation of races, especially the separation of Black and white students in public schools as mandated by the Supreme Court's Brown v. Board of Education ruling in 1954. The ruling declared segregated schools unconstitutional and called for their desegregation.

Freedmen's Bureau: Established in 1865 to aid formerly enslaved African Americans and impoverished whites in the South during the Reconstruction era, playing a crucial role in providing education to freed slaves.

Great Migration: The movement of over 6 million African Americans from the rural Southern United States to the urban Northeast, Midwest and West between 1910 and 1970, motivated by factors like escaping Jim Crow laws and seeking better economic opportunities.

Jim Crow: State and local laws that enforced racial segregation, primarily in the Southern United States, lasting from the post-Civil War era until around 1968.

Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS): An approach encouraged by the Every Student Succeeds Act to improve student behavior and overall school climate.

Redlining: A discriminatory practice where the Homeowners' Loan Corporation assigned security ratings to neighborhoods, often denying services to areas with significant minority populations.

Restorative Justice: An approach to school discipline that emphasizes repairing harm through processes that include all stakeholders, aiming to build community and address the root causes of misconduct.

School-to-Prison Pipeline: A phenomenon where school disciplinary actions, such

as suspensions and expulsions, contribute to funneling students, particularly from marginalized communities, into the criminal justice system.

Segregation: The enforced separation of races, as practiced in the United States between the late 19th century into the 1960s. This included segregated facilities like schools, transportation, restrooms and more under policies like Jim Crow laws, requiring Black people and white people to be separated in most aspects of public life.

Social and Emotional Learning (SEL): A framework that aims to foster the development of essential skills and competencies necessary for students' social, emotional, and academic success, according to the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL).

Zero-Tolerance Policies: Harsh disciplinary policies in schools that lack administrative discretion and often result in automatic severe penalties, such as suspension or expulsion, for rule violations.

FIGURES

Census Billboard by Lord Jim is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution License.

Gloria Ladson Billings by Natalie Frank is shared with a Creative Commons Attribution License

"Carte-de-visite of a Freedmen's School with students and teachers" by John D. Heywood, American is marked with CC0 1.0

HOLC map of Oakland, CA. Published by the Mapping Inequality project [7] under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License

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8

Making Good Trouble: Advocacy and Activism

Kjersti VanSlyke-Briggs

Before We Read

Think about your own high school and local community, perhaps even expand that thinking to include your state. What challenges do you see that impact instruction from both within the school and from efforts outside the school? How did the students and educators respond to those challenges, if at all? Talk with a peer from class about the challenges and see if you experienced similar obstacles or controversy in your districts.

Critical Question for Consideration

As you read, consider this essential question: How can we create empowering school environments in the face of pressing national issues and trends such as **censorship**, limiting access to information, and the hardening of schools as a result of school violence?

Across the United States there is a push to restrict public schools. This restriction is prevalent through the gatekeeping of knowledge and the limitations of information access such as evidenced by efforts to challenge or ban books and by limiting what teachers can speak about in the classroom or how they speak about specific topics. This restriction is also a physical restriction as schools employ barriers literally limiting access to the school as a response to external threats of school violence that occur across the country such as school shootings.

In an effort to respond to restrictions through censorship and access on schools and the mitigating events, both teachers and students have embraced **activism**. This activism ranges from individual efforts illustrated by activities such as speaking out at a school board meeting, to larger collective activism such as organized movements designed by grassroots initiatives (e.g. March For Our Lives) or driven by teacher's unions. There is also an interesting dichotomy between the measured and calculated responses driven by organizations like unions and the more passionate and spontaneous actions by students primarily in the **Generation Z** and Alpha populations.

This chapter will explore several key examples of the restriction or "hardening" of schools including physically as a reaction to school violence, the restriction of literature in classrooms and libraries through both challenging of books and book bans, restriction of knowledge through items such as the "Don't Say Gay" bill, and other examples on restricting **intellectual freedom** such as through the district/state-wide adoption of **scripted curriculum** thus diminishing the role of the educator. Included in each investigation is a discussion of how **critical theorists** would respond, an illustration of activism through documentation of a case study responding to the issue, and an investigation activity to engage you in exploring current issues and responses.

Activism
The policy or action of using vigorous campaigning to bring about political or social change. The excerpt discusses different examples of teacher and student activism in response to educational policies and issues.

Generation Z
The generation born between 1997 and 2012. The excerpt contrasts Generation Z activism with other age groups.

Intellection freedom
The right to seek, receive, and express information and ideas freely. The excerpt suggests limits to intellectual freedom in schools by controlling curriculum.

Scripted Curriculum
Pre-developed lesson plans and materials that teachers are required to use. The excerpt suggests scripted curriculum diminishes teachers' roles.

TEACHER AND STUDENT ACTIVISM IN MOMENTS OF HISTORY IN THE UNITED STATES

There is a long history of activism in relation to educational settings and in response to educational policies. Perhaps some of the most well-known examples that you are familiar with include names such as Ruby Bridges, Kent State, Columbia, and East L.A.

One of the oldest and largest student protests in the United States was in 1925 at Fisk University in response to an overreaching campus president. This protest gained significant momentum and attention in large part due to the involvement of W.E.B. Du Bois (his daughter was a graduating senior that year). In this case, the campus had cut extracurricular activities, required all remaining activities to have a faculty chaperone, eliminated the student paper, and put in place a very strict dress code for the female students. The college administration responded to the peaceful protest by the Black students by calling in an all-white police force to come and stifle the protests. Public opinion sided with the students and the college president resigned.

Jumping forward in time to 1960 is another notable moment regarding student activism. Ruby Bridges was just a six-year-old child when she was thrust into the spotlight of activism in response to Brown v. Board of Education and the Civil Rights Movement. She was one of a small group of students to leave their segregated schools and attend a previously all white school. Her enrollment at the school marked a significant moment in the fight against racial segregation in schools. The now iconic image of her walking the steps to the school escorted by U.S. Marshals represents a turning point in the United States. While she did not set out to lead a movement, her participation fueled further activism and progress. She faced enormous opposition from white supremacists and segregationists in angry mobs protesting her attendance. Ruby displayed immense

resilience and bravery by walking past the crowd and entering the school. Ruby Bridges serves as a powerful reminder that student activism can be a catalyst for change. Despite her young age, she showed the world that individuals, regardless of their size or age, can have a significant impact on social and political issues.

Another key moment in history for student activists that was also captured by photo was the May 4th, 1970 Kent State protest that ended tragically in the shooting and killing of four Kent State students and wounding of nine other students by members of the Ohio National Guard. The Kent State students were protesting the Vietnam war when the shooting occurred (although not all the students killed were active participants). This event sparked student protests nationwide. Students walked out of hundreds of colleges, universities, and even high schools in support of the Kent State students in a massive strike across the country. While this protest was not about educational policy, it did mark a significant event in student activism during this time period. The Kent State massacre was a pivotal moment in American history, symbolizing the severe consequences of political unrest and the clash between student activism and authority. The event underscores the importance of peaceful protest, the protection of civil liberties, and the need for effective dialogue between protestors and authorities to prevent such tragedies from occurring again.

Multiple student protests were documented at Columbia University in the 1960s, but perhaps one of the most famous is the 1968 take over by students of the

administrative offices in part in response to university involvement in Department of Defense initiatives to support the Vietnam War and student demands for educational justice. This outrage on campus was largely fueled by reactions to a controversial university policy. The protests began in April 1968 when a group called the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) initiated a demonstration against the university's plans to construct a gymnasium in Morningside Park, which was seen as an act of gentrification (when a poor urban area is impacted by wealthier people that both improve the neighborhood, but also displace the previous residents and create a situation where they can no longer afford to live there) that would further marginalize the local community.

As the protests at Columbia intensified, students occupied several buildings on campus, including Hamilton Hall, which housed the administration offices. The event was documented in The Strawberry Statement, a nonfiction book by James Simon Kunen that documented firsthand his experience during this student takeover. The occupation lasted several days during which negotiations took place between the student activists and the administration. The legacy of the Columbia protests can be seen in the lasting impact they had on university governance, student activism, and the concept of educational justice. The events served as a catalyst for ongoing discussions about the role of universities in society, the relationship between academia and activism, and the importance of student voices in shaping educational institutions.

Around the same time in 1968, the East Los Angeles student walkouts occurred where thousands of Mexican American high school students walked out of school in L.A. to protest the inequity in the public schooling system. The East L.A. walkout, also known as "The Chicano Blowouts" were a series of protests organized by students to demand educational equality and an end to systemic discrimination in the public school system. At the time, the educational experiences of students in East L.A. were characterized by inequality, racial segregation, and cultural marginalization. Students faced overcrowded classrooms, outdated textbooks, low expectations by administration, and a lack of access to college preparatory courses. Additionally, the curriculum often ignored or misrepresented Mexican American history and culture. These protests were in part sparked by teacher Sal Castro, a Mexican American history teacher that invited students to have pride in their culture and question the quality of education they received. These students first approached administration and when shut down, the larger movement took off. The impact of the East L.A. walkouts extended beyond the local community. The protests inspired and influenced other student movements throughout the country, leading to similar demonstrations and demands for educational equity among marginalized communities.

WHAT TERM SHOULD I USE?

The terms "Latinx," "Latine," "Hispanic," "Chicano," and "Chicana" all relate to different aspects of ethnic and cultural identity within the context of the United States. "Latinx" is a gender-neutral term used to encompass individuals of Latin

American origin or descent."Latine" is also a gender-neutral term used as an alternative to the masculine "Latino" or feminine "Latina" when referring to people of Latin American cultural or ethnic identity in the United States. The term aims to be more inclusive and acknowledge the diverse gender identities and expressions within Latin American communities. It moves away from the traditional gender binary of the Spanish language's -o/-a endings."Hispanic" refers to people with a connection to Spanish-speaking countries or cultures, emphasizing the Spanish language as a common thread. "Chicano" specifically refers to individuals of Mexican descent, particularly those born or raised in the U.S., and it emerged during the Civil Rights Movement as a way to assert Mexican American cultural and political identities. "Chicana" is the feminine counterpart to "Chicano," specifically representing Mexican American women within the Chicano movement.

It's important to respect individual preferences for self-identification and to recognize the evolving nature of language and cultural understanding. When in doubt, it's always best to follow the lead of the individual or community in question and use the terms they prefer for self-identification. Different individuals may have different preferences based on their personal experiences, cultural background, and generational differences.

If you're unsure, it's generally considered respectful to use broader, more inclusive terms like "Latinx" or "Hispanic" when referring to individuals or communities of Latin American origin or descent. These terms provide a more encompassing and gender-neutral approach.

Each of these examples of student activism occurred in a time when the United States was on the cusp of change. Students recognized inequity and they responded to efforts to silence. There were many protests across the country at the time in a wave of activism. While activism is almost always at play somewhere in the country, there are times when it swells as a response. During the 1980s, there were swells in response to **bilingual education** and equity, and the 1990s saw activism to address issues such as racial inequality and disparities in educational opportunities. In the 1990s, activism emerged to support LGBTQ students and efforts to establish **gay-straight alliances** (GSAs). When looking at educational activism in more recent years, we can see other large swells that we will explore later in this chapter.

Bilingual education
Teaching students in two languages, often their native language and English.

Gay-straight alliances
Student organizations found in some high schools to promote gender and sexuality acceptance.

Activism is a tool in the arsenal for students and teachers alike to respond to injustices, restrictions, and other problematic educational policies enacted. This activism may not be as dramatic as a walkout by students and may be quieter, such as through letters to our representatives, or wearing Red for Education on Fridays (a union-led initiative). In more recent years, this activism often takes the form of rallies at state education buildings, or the signing of web-based petitions. It manifests in the publication of white papers (a researched based paper focused on a single issue or problem), and with a contemporary shift even takes the form of a meme or social media-based call to action. We will explore some contemporary approaches to activism with the key issues to follow.

As you read, think about where you might fit into each issue. Where do you stand? How might you respond with action?

SCRIPTED CURRICULUM AND HYPER-STANDARDIZATION: NEOLIBERAL OVERREACH INTO EDUCATION

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)
The measure used under No Child Left Behind to determine if schools and districts were successfully educating their students. Schools had to meet AYP goals or face consequences.

Receivership
A process where chronically underperforming schools are placed into receivership, leading to state takeover and restructuring.

In 1983, Ronald Regan's administration commissioned a report titled A Nation at Risk and with it an assault on public education began, which has been written about in more detail in earlier chapters of this book. This report blamed faltering economic conditions on American education. As a result, a series of educational laws were enacted aimed at improving schools. Following presidential administrations continued this work of a policy shift under a rebranding of each iteration with the same effect – blaming public education for the faults of the country. Included in this sequence of reform through politics was the Goals 2000 Education Act in 1994 signed into law by Bill Clinton that introduced the idea of standards-based education with a focus on measurable outcomes followed by No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001 signed by George W. Bush. The focus on NCLB was to continue standardization efforts by linking federal dollars to demands to create annual assessments and public reporting of school success. With NCLB, schools now had to document that they made **Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)** with a focus on reading and math. This resulted in designations such as "schools in need of improvement" and consequences for repeated offenders that could include school takeovers through a process known as **receivership**. These efforts highlighted the inequities in our schools and predictably those schools with the least resources suffered the most. Often, the school takeover is managed by a for profit charter school.

NCLB was just the beginning of presidential education initiatives. Race to the Top (RttT) was put in place by President Obama and overseen by Secretary of Education Arne Duncan in 2009. Whereas NCLB asked states to establish their own standards, RttT aimed to develop one set of standards to be implemented across the country named The Common Core State Standards (CCSS). Once again, the education initiative was tied to federal dollars and states that did not adopt this initiative lost federal funding opportunities. As a result, 46 states and the District of Columbia signed onto the initiative. Prior to this endeavor, curriculum "had been adopted through often vigorous debate and compromise between citizens of states and their elected officials. In this brave new world, however, curriculum and its attendant assessments are purchased from private corporate entities" (Bloom, 2015, p. 5). States such as New York adopted complete modules of scripted instruction which school administrators purchased to help ensure teachers would be successful on the accompanying annual standardized assessments if instructed with "fidelity", meaning that there are no deviations from the script. To accompany this shift in education, schools evaluated teachers based on student success on the standardized exams under an evaluation system known as Annual Professional Performance Review (APPR). In 2015, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was signed and included only superficial changes to the reauthorization of previous initiatives.

This shift in educational policy tied to funding and hyper-standardization led to

backlash across the country. Prepackaged scripted curriculum does not take into consideration the community of learners in a particular classroom in a particular environmental context. It does not recognize the variety of learners and presents materials in a rigid and formulaic approach designed to benefit the private company profits rather than the creative minds of youth and teachers ready to respond in the moment. It does not allow for the differentiation (instruction and assessment of students based on their individual learning needs), that strong educators know they must bring in order to meet the needs of particular students. When coupled with high stakes standardized tests, it lends itself to a climate of fear and classrooms divorced from a lived reality responsive to the immediate events lived by students. As noted by Giroux and Schmidt (2004), "under such conditions, teachers are excluded from designing their own lesson plans…worksheets become a substitute for critical teaching and rote memorization takes the place of in depth thinking" (222). This limited intellectual risk taking, led to declines in teacher education program enrollment, and shifted attitudes of preservice teachers by limiting their agency and creativity (Bloom & VanSlyke-Briggs, 2019).

MEET THE THEORIST

Henry Giroux is an American-Canadian scholar and theorist. Musch of his work centers on cultural studies and media studies, but he is perhaps best known as one of the founders of critical pedagogy. While he has published many books, one that

stands out as a pivotal text is one co-authored with Peter McLaren, Between Borders: Pedagogy and the Politics of Cultural Studies. It is this text where they assert that in order to be effective critical pedagogy must move beyond the classroom.

As a result of the growing concern for high-stakes testing across the country, multiple grassroots actions began to emerge. Parents began to "opt out" and remove their students from the testing population for exams such as the grades three through eight math and English standardized exams. Parent and educator partnership groups for activism formed across the country including New York State Allies for Public Education (NYSAPE) and smaller regional groups including examples such as Oneonta Area for Public Education (OAPE). More notably though was the development of the Badass Teachers Association (BATs), which quickly grew to over 52,000 members in 2013.

BATs was (and still is, although they are less active today) committed to contesting negative reform initiatives and provided "a counter narrative, based on strong scholarship as well as experience that warned that reform policies are likely to widen educational disparities rooted in race and class and weaken the nation's schools by driving out the most committed teachers" (Naison, 2014, p. 51). The organization, and others like it, grew so quickly in large part due to the use of social media and calls to action that were straightforward and included short commitments. While critics such as Malcolm Gladwell point out that social media platforms are based on "weak ties," there can be strength in numbers in weak ties within social networks as pointed out by Granovetter (1973). Sharing across wider acquaintances allows for a quicker spread and the opportunity for someone who would not otherwise engage to now have an opportunity to connect (VanSlyke-Briggs, 2015). The smart mob, or the collection of individuals acting in concert for a common goal, develops into a "mobile tribe" (Rhinegold, 2003, p. 17). BATs created a hierarchy of leadership to manage calls to action and utilized social media to promote offline actions. They partnered with regional groups across the country and held letter writing campaigns, rallies, published media releases to gain even more national attention and capitalized on "the ethical spectacle" (Duncombe 2007) in which they used popular culture for the purposes of furthering an activist agenda. They made excellent use of memes and trending as a successful strategy to make content shareable and clickable. These calls to action contained a sense of urgency, purpose, and personal benefit. They knew that they needed to move beyond a keyboard or run the risk of developing "slacktivism" responses where individuals feel that just clicking like is participating in change.

Watch for More Information

To learn more about BATs watch https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vXWd6dk-ycc
9-year-old Asean Johnson speaking out against forced school closings in Chicago
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oue9HIOM7xU&t=1s

As a result of this grassroots activism, BATs and other related organizations brought attention to the damaging policies impacting public education. Across the country, voices responded and change began to slowly develop. There was turn over in educational leadership at both state and national levels, some states began to retreat from use of the Common Core State Standards and states like New York rebranded them and brought teachers in for conversations about changes. Other changes like restricting the selling of student data to private organizations were curtailed (at least in New York State) and teacher evaluation systems were reexamined. But as Mark Naison, one of the founders of BATs states, the battle will never be over, "this will require constant mobilization, creative organizing, and the multiplication of individual acts of courage and resistance" (2014 p. 92).

CHALLENGING LITERATURE AND CURRICULUM: LIMITING INFORMATION ACCESS FOR STUDENTS

While challenges to literature or book bans in schools are not new phenomenon, in recent years the issue has become a national fight to protect one's right to literature, especially literature representing diverse voices. In large part, this trend to restrict access to literature has developed out of conservative agendas to limit literature in large bundles as opposed to the typical one book, one school example of challenges that were previously more common.

The national trend of challenges or bans on literature in public schools is often linked to the discussions surrounding **Critical Race Theory (CRT)**. CRT is an academic framework that examines how race and racism intersect with various social and institutional structures, such as law, education, and politics. It is typically a concept reserved for instruction in graduate school work such as in law schools. It seeks to analyze how historical and systemic racism continues to impact individuals and communities today. The opposition to CRT and the push to challenge or ban literature in schools are often intertwined. Some individuals and groups, such as Florida based Moms for Liberty, argue that CRT promotes divisive ideologies, fosters a negative view of America, and perpetuates a victimhood narrative. They believe that the teaching of CRT in schools leads to the demonization of certain racial or ethnic groups and undermines the principles of equality and unity. Parent led groups like Moms for Liberty, pressure districts to remove books often without ever even having read them. It is important to note that CRT is rarely ever employed in a public school setting.

Critical Race Theory (CRT)
An Academic framework analyzing how systemic racism continues to impact society.

Bans against literature in schools and libraries have increased nationally since 2021 (Mazzei, Harris, & Alter, 2023). States such as Florida have moved beyond conservative parent groups to state legislation that limits what can appear in a classroom. Three new state laws were passed in 2022 in Florida that restrict access to literature and violators can be charged with a third-degree felony. These laws went into effect in January of 2022 and caused educators across the state to pull books from shelves. Florida is second only to Texas as the state with the highest number of banned or challenged books (Meehan and Friedman, 2023) according to PEN America, an organization that advocates for freedom

of expression and the protection of writers and journalists. Other states with high rates of book banning include Missouri, Utah, and South Carolina.

One book banning that received national attention occurred in 2022 in Tennessee. In this case, the McMinn County School Board voted to remove Maus, a graphic memoir by Art Spiegelman about the Holocaust from the eighth-grade curriculum. Community residents and students protested the removal of the book and even called upon the author to speak to the defense of the text. In the minutes from the school board meeting, board members acknowledge that they had not even read the book. Ostensibly, the banning was due to a scene in which the mother commits suicide and language use such as in one instance where the word "bitch" is used. In response, books stores and individuals from around the country donated copies of the book to those who wanted them.

To read the full minutes from the McMinn County School Board meeting visit

https://www.tcj.com/transcript-of-the-mcminn-county-board-of-educations-removal-of-maus/

You can learn more about recent banned books at https://www.ala.org/bbooks. Take a look at recent bans and explore each for common themes and trends. Discuss with classmates the trends they also notice.

In an interesting reaction to nationwide bans, Illinois has become the first state anti-book banning legislation by tying library funding to access of materials. In June of 2023, the governor of Illinois signed legislation that protects public schools and libraries. The law withholds library funding from institutions that do not adopt the American Library Association Bill of Rights or a similar self-designed policy that protects materials in the collection. It also seeks to protect institutions in their efforts to add additional materials to the collection by prohibiting external influences. This is an important step in attempting to protect public institutions from private manipulation. This is especially important given data presented by the American Library Association for 2022. In 2022, the ALA recorded the highest number of book bans since it began collecting annual data twenty years prior. The number of challenged and banned book titles was nearly double that of 2021 (American Library Association, 2022).

To read the ALA Library Bill of Rights visit

https://www.ala.org/advocacy/intfreedom/librarybill

Students need access to diverse literature. They need to see themselves represented in text and they need to be exposed to complicated moments in history in order to learn how to better their future worlds. As Maxine Greene (1988) notes, students "need to be empowered to reflect on and talk about what happened in its varying connections with other events in the present as well as in the past. And they may be brought to find

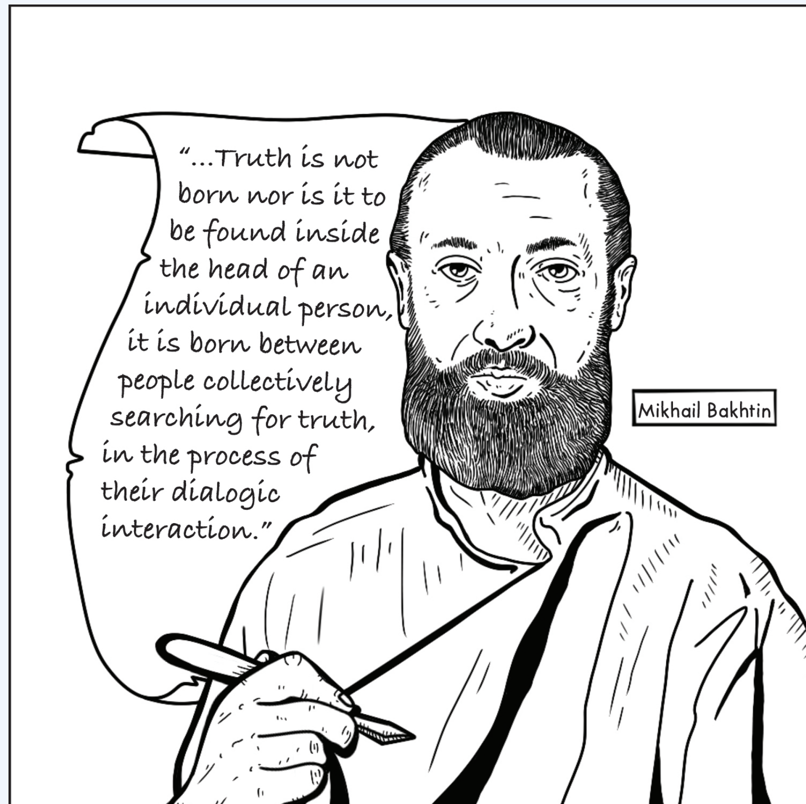
out that a range of informed viewpoints may be just as important when it comes to understanding" (p. 127). We do an injustice to our students by hiding away aspects of our past that are unsavory or that do not represent particular populations positively.

In 2022, the Florida legislature led by their governor approved a law that aims to do just that. The "Stop WOKE Act" bans curriculum and instruction in public schools that identifies people as being privileged or oppressed based on race. As a result, the Florida Education Department determined that an AP African American Studies course developed by the College Board "lacked educational value" and will no longer be available to Florida students. In response, the College Board released an updated curriculum that stripped some key authors and concepts from inclusion and listed others as "optional." Florida's aim here was to present a single side to history, a side that rejects any negative views and sanitizes our history. It shuts down any contradictory voices and by limiting the authors that students can interact with, this legislation denies what Bakhtin (1981) calls "**dialogism**" or "**heteroglossia**" in which a literary text can be seen as a space where multiple voices and perspectives can be heard and interact. Students need to hear these multiple voices. As noted by Greene (1988), "when people cannot name alternatives, imagine a better state of things, share with others a project of change, they are likely to remain anchored or submerged, even as they proudly assert their autonomy" (p. 9). Students need to see our past for what it was in order to imagine better futures. We need to refrain from silencing those voices that speak to the realities of our past; because by continuing to do so, we only continue to marginalize and oppress. Educators must advocate for an education that encourages students to think critically, reflect on their experiences, and develop a sense of agency to challenge social inequalities.

Dialogism
A concept from Mikhail Bakhtin referring to the interaction of different voices and perspectives within a text.

Heteroglossia
Bakhtin's term meaning the diversity of voices, styles and viewpoints within a text or society.

MEET THE THEORIST



Mikhail Bakhtin (1895-1975) was a Russian scholar and literary critic. His work informed much of the later work of theorists across many fields including education. He is best known for his work *The Dialogic Imagination* which was comprised of four essays. It is in this seminal text where he introduced the term heteroglossia.

In response to Florida's wave of oppressive legislation, teen activists organized. Walkout 2 Learn (https://www.walkout2learn.org/) developed a day of action utilizing several key lessons learned from previous activist movements. They kept the agenda simple and direct, but also layered. It asked students to walk out at a specific time on a specific day, it asked them to pledge to vote to defend student rights, and listen to a short banned history lesson from a peer. In order to prepare for the day, the organization asked for student leaders to volunteer to be trained and deliver the short lectures. As a follow up, students were also invited to enroll in a virtual college level African American history course that would award them a certificate at completion. Students across the state of Florida (from more than 300 schools) signed up to participate in the action.

Another example that has gained traction across several states in the nation is efforts to deny students from learning any information regarding LGBTQ peoples. Once again, Florida emerged as a frontrunner in this effort to censor discussion on gender and sexuality. In 2022, Florida passed the controversial "Parental Rights in Education" bill known popularly as the "Don't Say Gay" bill. This law limited the ability for school

educators to discuss sexual orientation and gender identity. Prior to grade three it is completely prohibited and post grade three discussion must be "age-appropriate or developmentally appropriate for students in accordance with state standards." The vague language utilized here crafts situations in which educators can be challenged at any point due to concerns about who determines what is "age appropriate." Violations could mean suspensions for teachers or even a revoked teaching license. In efforts to inform teachers of their right and the risks aligned with this law, the National Education Association (NEA), which is a teacher labor union, released the "Know Your Rights: A Back to School Guide" guide for teacher members https://www.nea.org/nea-today/all-news-articles/know-your-rights-back-school-guide.

Following on the heels of Florida's example, by April of 2022 more than a dozen additional states proposed "Don't Say Gay" legislation including Alabama, Ohio, Louisiana and Texas. While there is a variety to the approaches by each state, the basic premise is the limitation or prohibition of schools from teaching or discussing topics of gender identity or sexual orientation. This goes beyond direct classroom instruction and could even include for instance a banning of GSA (Gay Straight Alliance) clubs or other student clubs that are purposely designed to be inclusive for LBTQ students. These efforts to curtail conversation are rooted in exclusionary ideologies and it silences students. As Girox (1992) notes, "equally important is the need to provide safe spaces for students to critically engage teachers, other students, as well as the limits of their own positions as border-crossers who do not have to put their identity on trial each time they address social and political issues" (p. 33). Legislation such as "Don't Say Gay" do the exact opposite of what Giroux suggests. It fosters a hostile environment where students do not feel safe or comfortable sharing details about themselves or their families. It will foster an environment that will breed hate and intolerance.

Perhaps the youngest example of student activism occurred as a response to this national trend to silence discussion of gender identity and sexuality in schools. Generation Alpha students, students born after 2010, responded in an action known as the IPS walkout. These young 4th and 5th grade students walked out of school in protest in March of 2023 to bring attention to Indiana's version of this bill and was organized by three 5th grade students. While only 100 young students joined this particular walkout, it did gain national attention and paralleled other school walkouts across the country (including Florida) where thousands of students walked out to bring attention to the issue.

HARDENING OUR SCHOOLS AND OUR CHILDREN RESPONDING TO GUN VIOLENCE

Gun violence in schools in the United States has become such a common occurrence that a shooting no longer holds the same shock value when reported by the media. While previous shootings had occurred in schools, perhaps the one which people most think of when reflecting back to one of the first is the Columbine shooting in 1999. And while gun violence as a mass shooting event in schools only accounts for a small portion of

overall firearm deaths that occur a year, it is one of the most senseless and tragic. In the years since Columbine, the rate of these incidences has increased dramatically.

School shootings are what author Keel (2021) identifies as a "wicked problem" and one that is multidimensional and complex. "Wicked problem" is a concept coined by planning theorists Horst Rittel and Melvin Webber in the 1970s. This concept refers to complex social or policy issues that are difficult to define, have multiple interrelated causes and consequences, involve numerous stakeholders with diverse perspectives, and lack clear solutions. In order to attempt solving one aspect of the problem, one must consider other interrelated aspects that cannot be separated from the issue. With school shootings, one cannot just examine the incident and the particular shooter, but must consider other aspects such as mental health services, access to firearms, a culture that celebrates violence, and other social impacts. There is no straightforward solution to the issue. The causes and motivations behind such acts vary, making it challenging to predict and prevent them with absolute certainty. Furthermore, the effectiveness of different interventions and policies is often debatable, contributing to the uncertainty surrounding this issue.

Americans are all too familiar with these names: Sandy Hook, Parkland, Uvalde, Oxford. It is difficult to even add current statistics as the number grows outdated so quickly. For an updated total on this unique American epidemic, refer to a database that is consistently updated such as the K-12 School Shooting Database (https://k12ssdb.org/) maintained by The Violence Project, a nonprofit and nonpartisan research center, or consider the Center for Homeland Defense and Security (CHDS) School Shooting Safety Compendium (https://www.chds.us/sssc/) which tracks multiple sources including not just statistics, but also recent publications for the purposes of assisting officials and researchers. According to the Education Week School Shooting Tracker (https://www.edweek.org/leadership/school-shootings-this-year-how-many-and-where/2023/01) as of June 15th, 2023 there have been 23 school shootings with injuries and/or death. The Violence Project, which has a wider description of what counts as a school shooting incident, cites 184 incidents in 2023 (and this is only from January to June, so the second half of the school year). The k-12 School Shooting database indicates that as of May 2024 there were 344 shootings so far in the year. This database "documents when a gun is fired, brandished, or bullet hits school property" (p. 1).

The issue of school violence is wrapped up alongside cultural challenges such as attitudes about guns, toxic masculinity, ostracism, and mental health. These interwoven aspects also connect to other linked concerns such as online intimidation and social antagonism (e.g. cyberbullying). As a result of this violence nationwide, schools and policy makers responded by "hardening" our schools. This hardening refers to changes such as limiting access to the school, gates, closed foyers with double lock doors, buzzing in systems, metal detectors, shatterproof glass windows and doors or "bulletproof" glass, and other physical barriers to limit the ability to enter a school. It may also include procedures such as requiring visitors to sign in or show an identification such as scanning a state issued license to enter or requiring that visitors be walked to the destination location. In many cases it has led to the addition of security cameras and the presence

of additional school resources officers during the school day. This hardening has led to a capitalization of school violence and a multi-billion dollar industry aimed at protecting schools and making money from tragedy, what author Matthews (2019) calls macabre money (p. 89). This includes everything from bullet resistant partitions for classrooms, to prevention training experts hired to set up school response drills for lockdown and active shooter drills.

"We can have all the walkouts we want, but if we don't walk to that ballot box and make our voices heard, these politicians aren't going to listen." - David Hogg

Other program responses include less costly or even free resources such as those provided by Sandy Hook Promise, a national nonprofit organization that emerged as a response after the 2012 Newtown, Connecticut shooting in an elementary school. Sandy Hook Promise has multiple programs including their Start with Hello program to minimize social isolation, cultivate empathy in schools, and create a more inclusive culture. They also have the Say Something anonymous reporting system, and a Know the Signs prevention program to educate students and adults. These programs aim to be proactive rather than reactive and all begin with students as empowered.

Reactions to school violence include active shooter or lockdown training such as one widely used program, ALICE (Alert, Lockdown, Inform, Counter, Evacuate), which has a steep training cost. The FBI has additional training models such as the Run.Hide.Fight model that has gained popularity (to review a short video on this method visit https://youtu.be/TeOdxKozra0). While these trainings do vary in cost, there is also a human cost associated with them. Both the National Association of School

Psychologists (NASP) and the National Education Association (NEA) have released statements about the personal trauma for students experiencing drills and have released guidance in a joint white paper on how to minimize any potential emotional or mental impact. This guidance includes always announcing a drill both to students and notifying families, having faculty and staff on alert to recognize traumatic stress reactions, and allowing students to opt out.

There is a familiar cadence to school shootings. After a shooting, the media cycle begins. News coverage is dedicated to the incident, public interest grows, perhaps some activism is sparked, the media attention wanes and with it, the momentum to enact change. Occasionally, there is a wave of additional violence that feeds from the initial occurrence that will lengthen the cycle but eventually national attention fades. With some shootings, spontaneous protests may extend the discussion in the media longer or grassroots organizations with more longevity manifest with a stronger commitment to change fuels some national conversation.

After the 2018 Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School shooting in Parkland, Florida, students responded almost immediately by organizing. This group of dedicated students organized the March for our Lives (https://marchforourlives.com/) protest that has since grown into a movement. Teaming up with Everytown for Gun Safety this student-led group marched on Washington, D.C. in 2018 calling for gun control legislation. This group was joined by other more local gatherings across the United States in support (estimates around 800). The long-lasting organization that emerged after this initial wave of action is still active today as a student-led political action group that advocates for gun legislation. They held a second march in Washington, D.C. in 2022, have held countless meetings with legislators, and have crafted some creative visual responses in protest such as installing 150+ body bags on the National Mall reading out the now familiar slogan, "thoughts and prayers," a common platitude said by many post mass shooting. In addition to direct protest and political action such as meetings with legislators, this group has crafted a policy agenda to shape action.

After the 2023 Covenant Elementary School shooting in Tennessee, thousands of students took to action across the state. While some of the students walked out of classes in smaller local protests, Everytown for Gun Safety also helped coordinate action through Students Demand Action (https://studentsdemandaction.org/). In addition to the protest at the Tennessee State Capital, there were "sibling" protests at locations across the United States which prompted some legislators to get involved and speak out (which resulted in a vote for expulsion that was later overturned with a reinstatement).

Despite vocal calls for action, the United States has made little ground nationally to curtail gun violence in schools. This is a uniquely American problem. In contrast, in the UK for instance, there has only ever been one mass school shooting. Thisoccurred in 1996 in Dunblane, Scotland where an adult shooter killed 16 children and one teacher before killing himself. The government took immediate action as a result of this rampage shooting through a series of two firearms acts.

In addition to calls for action regarding gun restrictions, others have called for a return to a community school approach in which schools are responsive to local neighborhood needs rather than restrict access to school via a hardening. This way,

schools work together with the community stakeholders establishing additional resources such as feeding programs, health services, mental health services, literacy programs for adults and other response based programming. This can include early intervention, restorative justice efforts, building empathy, and even outreach services.

Having Difficult Conversations

You may find yourself in a position where you need to have a difficult conversation with students in your classroom. Perhaps an incident of violence has occurred in your community or students are responding to larger national political issues, no matter the case, students often seek safe spaces to have conversations with trusted adults. Some tips to consider include: setting a respectful tone in the classroom daily to facilitate the opening for these conversations, listening with compassion to our students and allowing time for them to express themselves, acknowledge the stress, or concern that students display and do not be dismissive of their emotions, counter possible feelings of isolation by helping them see how they are situated in a community that is supportive (sometimes this means helping them redefine what we mean by community), validate useful contributions to the conversation, acknowledge a range of perspectives but keep emphasis on facts, and most important, create path forward with students. Not all students will react to situations the same and we need to note that there is not always one course of action.

For more guidance on having difficult conversations review the document crafted by Cornell University titled, “Guidelines for Acknowledging and/or Discussing Incidents of Public Violence, Racial Tension, and Extreme Expression” at https://cpb-us-e1.wpmucdn.com/blogs.cornell.edu/dist/8/6767/files/2016/12/Suggested-Guidelines-for-Facilitating-Classroom-Discussions-on-National-and-Global-Violent-Events-updated-18avlqf.pdf

You will learn more about having difficult conversations in Dr. Nicole Waid’s chapter of this text.

TEACHER UNIONS: A LONG HISTORY OF ADVOCACY AND ACTIVISM

Teacher unions have played a significant role in shaping education policies and protecting teachers in the United States. The two major teacher unions in the country are the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). In addition to these larger umbrella organizations, each school district that participates with a union will have a local union chapter.

The NEA originally began in 1857 as the National Teachers Association (NTA), but in 1870 it merged with the National Association of School Superintendents and the American Normal School Association to form the National Education Association. Initially, the NTA focused on professional development, curriculum standardization, and teacher training. It also advocated for public education and the establishment of

state departments of education. Throughout the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the NEA lobbied for educational reforms, including increased funding, compulsory attendance laws, and standardized testing. In the 1960s, the NEA became more involved in political activities, pushing for social justice, racial equality, and educational equity. Over time, the NEA came to become the largest labor union in the United States. Current membership according to the NEA is around three million members.

The AFT was founded in Chicago with just eight members in 1916. One of the AFT's early successes was its involvement in the Chicago Teachers' Federation strike in 1919, which led to improved salaries and working conditions for teachers. In the 1960s and 1970s, the AFT gained prominence under the leadership of Albert Shanker. Shanker advocated for teacher rights, **collective bargaining**, and increased teacher involvement in decision-making processes. Even today, the name Shanker is recognized as a force in education. Through the Albert Shanker grant program, New York State teachers may get assistance in paying for National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) certification – an excellent way for teachers to be recognized for excellence in the field and, for many, a way to increase their salary (to learn more about this program visit https://www.nysed.gov/postsecondary-services/albert-shanker-grant-program). The AFT has been actively involved in political advocacy, endorsing political candidates and promoting education policies that align with its members' interests. The AFT also commits itself as a champion of educational equity by fighting for increased funding for disadvantaged schools and advocating for the rights of special education students. Currently, membership as reported by the AFT is around 1.7 million members.

Collective bargaining
Negotiation process between union representatives and employers to determine contracts. Strengthened by unions.

While the NEA and AFT have different historical origins and organizational structures, both unions have worked towards similar goals, such as improving teacher working conditions, advocating for educational reforms, and ensuring quality education for all students. They have had a significant influence on education policies at the national, state, and local levels, and continue to be influential voices in education debates and discussions.

In 2018, unions faced a Supreme Court decision that changed interactions between employees and the unions making membership optional. The Janus v. AFSCME (American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees) ruling determined that union dues must now be optional. Previously, union membership dues were collected of all employees in union schools as a way to fund collective bargaining activities given the understanding that all employees would benefit from the success of collective bargaining and stronger contracts.

Teaching unions fight for much more than just fair contracts and good working conditions. They also take on advocacy roles on issues that impact the life of educators. Recent advocacy efforts include protecting the rights for intellectual freedom in the classroom and protecting teachers in the face of censorship and literature bans. The AFT and the NEA have been vocal in opposing anti-diversity, equity and inclusion (DEI) bills, which seek to restrict or prohibit teaching. In addition to releasing statements about the need to protect teachers and quality education for all, the organizations have also mobilized members to seek change. One tool for doing this is through simple uses of social media including Twitter postings by AFT and the current President of the

AFT, Randi Weingarten. Other areas of advocacy have included speaking out against the overuse of standardized testing, support of community schools, and calls to defeat "Don't Say Gay" bills (for a comprehensive list of resolutions visit https://www.aft.org/about/resolutions). The NEA has a similar history of advocacy and their resolutions are centered around ten goal areas (https://www.aft.org/about/resolutions). Resolutions in each organization can be proposed by the membership.

Unfortunately, not all states embrace unions within their school districts and many are what are known as "**right to work**" actively working against union activity. Teachers in these states do not benefit from union protections or collective bargaining agreements. In addition, many of these same states have restrictions on **tenure**. Tenure is a safeguard that protects teachers from unfair termination. It guarantees a teacher a hearing in most cases and in cases where positions are being eliminated it gives them first hiring back to a school when a position reopens. In addition, it provides some protections to teachers that speak out about injustices or poor practices at the school. The union at the local district negotiates tenure protections for the faculty through collective bargaining. Four states (Florida, Kansas, North Carolina, and Wisconsin) have essentially eliminated tenure for teachers and the District of Columbia and North Dakota do not have policies addressing tenure, which leaves the decision of tenure up to the individual districts. (To learn more about what states have tenure policies and the length of time before granting tenure visit https://teachertenure.procon.org/length-of-time-before-tenure-kicks-in-state-by-state/).

Right to work laws
State laws restricting union membership and weakening collective bargaining rights.

Tenure
Policy granting qualified teachers protections from unfair dismissal after a probationary period. Weakened in some state.

When new teachers are hired in a district they should consider the benefits of joining the union as well as how they can get involved. The first step is to become a member of the union. Teachers can sign up for membership by contacting the local or state chapter of the AFT or NEA. Membership typically involves paying dues, which contribute to the union's activities and support services for teachers. This will usually be an option during the hiring process, but it should be noted that teachers can join at any time. Once a member, teachers can regularly attend union meetings as a great way to stay informed about union activities, discussions, and decisions. It also provides an opportunity to network with fellow educators and contribute to the union's work. Many unions have building representatives who act as liaisons between the union and teachers in individual schools or districts. Teachers can volunteer to become building representatives and help to communicate union information, collect feedback from colleagues, and address concerns within their school community. Unions also often have committees and workgroups focused on specific issues, such as curriculum development, negotiations, professional development, or diversity committees. Teachers can volunteer to join these committees and contribute their expertise and perspectives to the union's initiatives.

Unions engage in political advocacy to influence education policies and support legislation that aligns with their goals. Teachers can participate in **lobbying** efforts, campaigns, or voter registration drives organized by the union to make their voices heard on critical issues affecting education. After participating as a member, teachers may also consider contributing to the union by serving in a leadership position. Running

Lobbying
Trying to influence legislatures on policies.

Union engage members in lobbying for education.

for these positions allows teachers to play a more active role in decision-making, policy formulation, and representing their colleagues' interests both locally and beyond.

REWARDING AND CHALLENGING

Hegemonic discourse The dominant cultural beliefs and narratives that reinforce existing power structures. Teachers can choose to reinforce or challenge this through their instruction.

Working in education can be a very rewarding career option for those with the skill and temperament for the field. It can also be a very challenging career and is one that is constantly evolving, which is often in the public eye concerning political and social issues. Teaching is by necessity, a political act according to Freire (1973). From this perspective, all teaching is political and is never a neutral act (Freire, 1973). What we choose to teach can reinforce or challenge **hegemonic discourse**, can spark social imagination in our students, and can help foster more inclusive environments where all people are valued. How we choose to teach can change how students process the world around them and can invite them to question in meaningful ways. Teachers are able to empower students, help them develop agency and voice, and encourage them to respond when they see injustice in the world. Teachers can also be overtly political in our roles as advocates and through activism both, when appropriate, within our school walls and on our campuses as well as outside the classroom as we challenge policy that impacts our work. Most importantly, teachers can advocate collectively. They do not need to do this work alone and can fight for our students and our work with other like-minded, vision building, and passionate allies.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How have restrictions on public schools, both physically and intellectually, impacted the educational environment in the United States?
2. How does activism serve as a response to injustices, restrictions, and problematic educational policies in schools? In what ways can activism bring about change?
3. What role can educators play in creating empowering school environments amidst national issues and trends such as censorship, limited information access, and the hardening of schools? How can teachers support students in becoming engaged and invested in their educational experiences?
4. How does the idea of "hardening" schools as a response to school violence intersect with broader social issues such as systemic inequalities, power dynamics, and marginalization? What potential implications and unintended consequences might arise from this approach?
5. Imagine yourself as an educator faced with challenges related to censorship, restricted access to information, or standardized curriculum. What actions would you take to advocate for change and create an empowering learning environment?

ACTIVITY
IGNITING MINDS, IGNITING CHANGE: EXPLORING EDUCATION THROUGH ACTIVISM

Your Task: After reading about teacher and student activism as a response to educational policies and trends, explore what current issues have an impact on the classroom (either nationally or in your state). As you explore issues consider the following:

1. How does this issue impact classrooms and students? Does this issue limit agency and voice? Does this issue spread beyond one location?
2. What activism efforts have already begun to resist this issue? Where can more be done?
3. What is your response to this issue? Why did you select it? What can you do to contribute to activism efforts in regard to this issue?
4. How is this issue complicated by critical pedagogy or critical education practices?

Be prepared to share out your findings with your classmates. Focus on what you selected and your thinking about this issue using the guiding questions above.

GLOSSARY

Activism – The policy or action of using vigorous campaigning to bring about political or social change. The excerpt discusses different examples of teacher and student activism in response to educational policies and issues.

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) – The measure used under No Child Left Behind to determine if schools and districts were successfully educating their students. Schools had to meet AYP goals or face consequences.

Bilingual education – Teaching students in two languages, often their native language and English.

Censorship – The suppression or prohibition of any parts of books, films, news, etc. that are considered obscene, politically unacceptable, or a threat to security. The excerpt mentions censorship in schools through book banning and restricting what teachers can discuss.

Critical theory – A social philosophy oriented toward critiquing and changing society as a whole. The excerpt states it will discuss how critical theorists would respond to school restrictions.

Critical Race Theory (CRT) – An academic framework analyzing how systemic racism continues to impact society.

Collective bargaining – Negotiation process between union representatives and employers to determine contracts. Strengthened by unions.

Dialogism – A concept from Mikhail Bakhtin referring to the interaction of different voices and perspectives within a text.

Differentiation – instruction and assessment of students based on their individual learning needs.

Gay-straight alliance (GSA) – Student organizations found in some high schools to promote gender and sexuality acceptance.

Generation Z – The generation born between 1997 and 2012. The excerpt contrasts Generation Z activism with other age groups.

Hegemonic discourse – The dominant cultural beliefs and narratives that reinforce existing power structures. Teachers can choose to reinforce or challenge this through their instruction.

Heteroglossia – Bakhtin's term meaning the diversity of voices, styles, and viewpoints within a text or society.

Intellectual freedom – The right to seek, receive, and express information and ideas freely. The excerpt suggests limits to intellectual freedom in schools by controlling curriculum.

Lobbying – Trying to influence legislators on policies. Unions engage members in lobbying for education.

Neoliberalism – A political approach favoring free market capitalism, deregulation, and reduction of government spending.

Receivership – A process where chronically underperforming schools are placed into receivership, leading to state takeover and restructuring.

Right to work laws – State laws restricting union membership and weakening collective bargaining rights

Scripted curriculum – Pre-developed lesson plans and materials that teachers are required to use. The excerpt suggests scripted curriculum diminishes teachers' roles.

Tenure – Policy granting qualified teachers protection from unfair dismissal after a probation period. Weakened in some states.

FIGURES

Ruby Bridges by Natalie Frank is shared with a [Creative Commons Attribution License]

Henry Giroux by Natalie Frank is shared with a [Creative Commons Attribution License]

Mikhail Bakhtin by Natalie Frank is shared with a [Creative Commons Attribution License]

Protest by Natalie Frank is shared with a [Creative Commons Attribution License]

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9

A Guiding Compass: Ethics for Educators

Kjersti VanSlyke-Briggs

Before We Read

Below you will see a series of potential issues in ethics. Before reading the chapter, in your opinion, is each bullet below a red flag for educator ethics or not? Partner with a classmate and chat about your assumptions. Return to this list after reading the chapter and reevaluate each prompt.

- A teacher changes the grade on a student's exam after learning that the student was feeling ill the day of the exam. The teacher added enough points to pass the student on the test.
- A teacher has their own daughter in her class. Another faculty has identified this as a **conflict of interest**.
- A student has told the teacher that they don't have a ride home and it is raining. The teacher sees the student walking and stops to pick them up and give them a ride home.
- During a recent snow day, the school administration decided that teachers should instruct digitally using their Google Classroom rather than having just a day off. The science teacher decided that this would be too difficult for his students so he just posted an announcement that they should enjoy the day and they would catch up when they were back in class.

Critical Question for Consideration

As you read, consider this essential question: How can examining the evolution of teacher ethics codes help current and future educators appreciate the complex interplay of perspectives needed to equitably uphold professional responsibilities in an imperfect world?

Teaching is a profession that comes with great responsibility as educators work with students, who happen to be minors, in situations where educators are given great trust by the public. Teachers serve as role models for students in their crucial developmental years and have the ability to profoundly impact their students' lives, both in positive and negative ways. This is one of the reasons that an educator **code of ethics** is so important for pre-service teachers to understand before they enter the field. Teacher ethics provide crucial guidance that shapes professional conduct and develops public trust in educators. Understanding the evolution and influence of the codes of ethics implemented across the United States is instrumental for new teachers just entering the field and will not only protect one's students, but also ensure a productive and safe learning environment while also minimizing the risk of legal complications.

Code of Ethics
A set of principles and standards that outline the professional responsibilities and conduct expected of individuals within a particular profession. In the context of education, a teacher's code of ethics outlines the expectations for ethical behavior and decision-making.

In addition to an ethical code, there is an expectation that educators will engage with students in a manner that will serve as a role model and create a pathway for students to explore their own ethics creation. Educators expose students to new ideas, craft safe classrooms for students to support each other as they grow and learn, and encourage students to respond to each other with kindness and understanding. Caring for one's students and asking students to care for each other is often viewed as a moral and ethical obligation.

In this chapter, we will explore the importance of professional ethics for educators. First, we will look at some of the earliest forms of a code of ethics and then we will examine some historical events and changes that have led states to develop and adopt codes of ethics for educators. Next, we will explore the common ethical principles highlighted across different codes of ethics. We will examine some research that analyzes the effects ethical standards have had on public k-12 education. Finally, we will examine the societal expectation that educators craft themselves as nurturers of an **ethic of care** in the classroom and will challenge social assumptions about gendered labor. We will also examine a sample code of ethics and utilize those standards to explore some sample scenarios that could happen in a school.

Ethic of Care
An ethical framework that emphasizes the importance of relationships, empathy, and compassion in moral decision-making. In the context of education, an ethic of care highlights the educator's role in nurturing students' well-being and supporting their holistic development.

ETHICS OR MORALS: WHAT'S THE DIFFERENCE

When discussing codes of conduct and values for a profession like teaching, the terms "ethics" and "morals" sometimes get used interchangeably. However, there are subtle differences. Morals typically refer to personal beliefs, teachings, or opinions on what is right and wrong behavior for an individual. They can be informed by upbringing, society, religion, or even culture. Ethics also deal with principles for proper conduct, but focus more narrowly on expectations for a collective professional role rather than individual character overall. Professional ethics provide standards related to duties, practices, and decision-making faced on the job. For teacher ethics, the guidelines center specifically on responsibilities educators have towards students, colleagues, and the integrity of school institutions rather than private life matters outside school settings. This distinction helps frame the purpose and boundaries of what teacher ethics codes aim to address as opposed to broader morality.

THE EMERGENCE OF CODES OF ETHICS FOR EDUCATORS

Elements of ethics codes for teachers have existed in some form for over a hundred years although they did not always align with today's values around equal treatment. In the 1800s through early 1900s, there were extensive restrictions targeting female teachers for anything perceived as less-than-virtuous private behavior. Women often had to agree to not participate in drinking, smoking, gambling or dancing. Even more egregious social policing were bans and punishments for female teachers who chose to marry or get pregnant. In some cases, these rules even extended to extremely specifics rules on behavior. One example from 1872 noted that teachers in an Illinois one-room schoolhouse in Knox County should "spend the remaining time reading the Bible or other good book" after spending ten hours in school; additionally, the teacher coded strictly enforced a policy where "women teachers who marry or engage in unseemly conduct will be dismissed" (Marquardt Blystone, 2014). These rules were expanded and updated in 1915 and reflected no progress in understanding educators as competent adults with full lives outside the classroom. In fact, the updated rules were even more restrictive, noting teachers needed to be "home between the hours of 8 pm and 6 am unless attending a school function."

The origins of such prohibitions were in upholding what was seen at the time as necessary moral authority to instruct students; however, there is a deep double standard embedded in these rules for women. It essentially crafted, "a two-tiered system of employment in education, one in which women did the bulk of the teaching under the supervision of an increasingly authoritative cadre of male administrators" (Smith, 2022). This is what Tyack referred to as the "pedagogical harem" (1974). The rules were less about setting a standard for ethical behavior as they were about controlling women's bodies and dictating what was perceived as "moral" in that community. This language itself subtly advances latent judgments on women's morality rooted in patriarchal, repressed views of female sexuality or duties.

Over time, the teacher ethics landscape has continued to develop and shifted focus away from enforcing traditional morals and disproportionately impacting women, towards upholding the dignity of all persons. This complex history illuminates both how far equitable treatment of teachers as professionals has developed, as well as how recently ethical codes emerged in educational expectations that have aligned with more contemporary ideals. States must continually question normative assumptions and the ever-changing landscape of education as they determine codes of ethics and implement those codes. For instance, with the advent of artificial intelligence tools should the implementation of these codes be considered as teachers utilize those tools to enhance or expedite their own work?

Understanding the development of codes of ethics between the late 1800s and today will assist future educators as they develop their own teaching selves and integrate a strong commitment to ethical practices in their career. While earlier iterations of these codes amounted to little more than a set of rules to abide by, they eventually fell out of fashion as educational landscapes moved beyond one-room schoolhouses and small

NEA

National Education Association, a professional organization for educators in the United States

districts with individual oversight to larger public schools and statewide educational expectations. With more governmental oversight, more modern expectations of educators also evolved. As the teaching profession became more formalized in the late 19th century, there was a growing recognition of the need for standards of professional conduct. The National Education Association (NEA) played a significant role during this time. In 1899, the NEA adopted its first Code of Ethics, outlining principles and standards for teachers' professional behavior. Since that time, the NEA code has evolved, and the current code was adopted in 1975 by the NEA Representative Assembly.

National Education Association Code of Ethics for Educators

To read the NEA Code of Ethics for Educators visit their website at:

https://www.nea.org/resource-library/code-ethics-educators

These codes are built around two principles: Commitment to the Student and Commitment to the Profession

It is important to examine ethical codes of behavior as separate from one's values or personal judgments (Strike & Soltis, 2009). While moral judgements or values may inform our day to day interactions, the ethical codes set by the NEA and the individual states are about legal practices and set a standard for educators to follow in their interactions professionally.

Current ethical codes reflect a shift in how the role of a teacher is constructed in society. During the 1960s and the 1970s teachers were viewed as a "neutral chairman" and then this shifted in the 1980s where the educator's values were viewed as a figure to align with for students (Bergem, 1990, p. 1). This view of educators' roles has shifted once again in the 2000s and most recently to emphasize each parent's value system as most important and the teacher as subordinate.

GENDERED EXPECTATIONS AND AN ETHIC OF CARE

While some ethical behaviors in the classroom are easy to identify (teachers should not strike their students) others are what Krishnamoorthy and Tolbert describe as "mucky" (2022) and less clearly defined. At times, for instance an educator's ethical commitment to intellectual investigation may introduce texts that are not embraced by close-minded parents. Is this an ethical violation due to the mismatch between familial norms and the diversity, equity and inclusion work educators know is important? To complicate this more, another societal expectation is for teachers to be role models for students. Does this mean to extend to all parts of the educator's life. For example, should teachers not be seen in establishments that sell alcohol after school while on their own time?

There are not always clear choices to be made and as Krishnamoorthy and Tolbert point out, educator expectations need to "shift away from colonial and masculinist binaries that produce particular moralistic orientations as "right" or "wrong" (2022, p. 1047). Educators often must make ethical decisions in the classroom that shape how students read the world. Selecting the literature students read, particular teaching approaches to apply, and which moments in history to highlight and how such moments will all shape how students read the world and place themselves within it. These choices may be considered ethical considerations as well as political ones. This is what Krishnamoorthy and Tolbert call an "ethical praxis, even a form of conscientization" (2022, p. 1059) and they note that not only is this mucky work, but that it is "dirty, viscous, unclear, not solidified" (2002, p.1059) work. Educators must continue to explore their role in shaping student discourse and introduce novel ideas that they may not have previously explored.

Praxis
The process of applying theoretical knowledge or concepts into practical action or application. In education, praxis involves the integration of theory and practice in teaching and learning, emphasizing the transformative nature of education.

Another ethical practice in schools to consider is the "ethic of care." As suggested by Colnerud (2006), one discussion emerging during these shifts from early rules setting as ethics and later guiding principles is the "relationship between an ethic of care and ethics based on principles of justice" and the ways "in which benefits and burdens are distributed" (p. 368). Schools are often considered the location where students grow into caring adults and learn not just the content concepts introduced to them, but also ways of being in the world and how to interact with each other. Teachers find that they must, "balance justice and care in their ethical choices and one could say that they are forced to organise care and distribute it justly. Conversely, they must ensure that justice is meted out caringly" (Colnerud, 2006, p. 369).

MEET THE THEORIST

Nel Nodding (1929-2022) was an American educator, scholar, and feminist theorist. She is best known for her work on the ethic of care. She continued to refine her theories late in life and was reflective of her practice. Her text *Caring: A Relational Approach to Ethics and Moral Education* was originally published in 1984 but was reprinted with updates in 2013.

Researcher, Nel Noddings instructs her readers that this ethic of caring is presented through a relational ethic in that it is "tightly tied to experience because all its deliberations focus on the human beings involved in the situation under consideration and their relations to each other" (1994, p. 173). Noddings also notes that this caring and emotional labor is often characterized as feminine labor. This framework for understanding the role of an educator reinforces long held beliefs that schools should be responsible for the growth of students into contributing and thoughtful members of the citizenry. As Noddings indicates, this work if truly embraced changes how schools function and emphasizes dialog and changes, "almost every aspect of schooling: the current hierarchical structure of management, the rigid mode of allocating time, the kinds of relationships encouraged, the size of schools and classes, the goals of instruction, modes of evaluation, patterns of interaction, selection of content" (1994, p. 175). Noddings concludes her key paper on this topic by noting that society does not really want to solve this problem, "as there is too much at stake, too much to be lost by those

already in positions of power" (1994, p.179). The "caring teacher" approach embraced by Noddings (1984), Gilligan (1982), Greene (1995), and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) all support a positionality in which the teacher enacts change through a supportive and nurturing classroom.

MEET THE THEORIST – MAXINE GREENE

Maxine Greene (1917-2014) was an American teacher and theorist. She centered much of her work on the gendered work of teaching and the role of women in the field. She also was an advocate and spoke often on the work of the "social imagination" allowing one to imagine a different future to work toward for social justice. She is best known for her work *The Dialectic of Freedom* (1988).

This early work by theorists to encourage a well-intentioned "ethic of care" and the societal expectation for education to solve all social ills has crafted an untenable situation for educators and in particular one for those educators that embrace a nurturing classroom identity. This is not to say that this should not be a goal of educators, but in recent years educators have been demonized, de-professionalized, and dismissed while also having increased expectations laid at their feet. This is not a new problem. The risk of burnout and personal stress as a result of increased emotional labor by educators that support an ethic of care in their classrooms is high (VanSlyke-Briggs, 2010). In a National Education Association survey conducted in 2022, it found that, "90 percent of members say feeling burned out is a serious problem, with 67 percent saying it's very serious" (Walker, 2022). Educators must consider mechanisms to prevent their own burnout while also attending to the needs of students and working to establish an ethic of care in their classrooms.

ONE STATE'S APPROACH

In New York State a Code of Ethics for educators was established by the State Standards and Practices Board in June of 2002 and voted into effect by the Board of Regents in July of the same year. This came after a call for an ethics code development in 1998 as part of a teaching reform initiative outlined by The State Board of Regents. The current code was developed in partnership and collaboration with teachers, school administrators, higher education representatives, public members and even a teacher education student as members of a 28 person Standards Board. After a draft of the code was completed, it was reviewed by the Board of Regents and sent out for public comment. The Code of Ethics is comprised of 6 Principles which are designed to include new developments and scenarios in education. This code cannot be used as a basis for discipline by an employer. Instead, there is a different mechanism for that process. This is simply a guidance document to assist teachers in understanding best practices in relation to ethical practices in the classroom.

Integrity
Being honest and demonstrating strong moral principles.

Moral Character
Qualities like honesty and integrity that reflect one's ethical values.

The New York State Education Department also has guidance on Educator Integrity including The Office of School Personnel Review and Accountability (OSPRA) which investigates allegations concerning the moral character of those who hold New York State teaching certificates. Any person may file a written complaint with the department. This would include those aware of a criminal offense committed by the educator or "an act that raises a reasonable question about the individual's moral character" (https://www.nysed.gov/educator-integrity/moral-character-actions-part-83). Once a complaint is received, an investigator is assigned to the case.

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATOR CODE OF ETHICS

The following six principles can be found at the New York State Education Department website at https://www.highered.nysed.gov/tcert/resteachers/codeofethics.html Discuss each principle and how it may impact practice.

Principle 1: Educators nurture the intellectual, physical, emotional, social, and civic potential of each student.

Educators promote growth in all students through the integration of intellectual, physical, emotional, social and civic learning. They respect the inherent dignity and worth of each individual. Educators help students to value their own identity, learn more about their cultural heritage, and practice social and civic responsibilities. They help students to reflect on their own learning and connect it to their life experience. They engage students in activities that encourage diverse approaches and solutions to issues, while providing a range of ways for students to demonstrate their abilities and learning. They foster the development of students who can analyze, synthesize, evaluate and communicate information effectively.

Principle 2: Educators create, support, and maintain challenging learning environments for all.

Educators apply their professional knowledge to promote student learning. They know the curriculum and utilize a range of strategies and assessments to address differences. Educators develop and implement programs based upon a strong understanding of human development and learning theory. They support a challenging learning environment. They advocate for necessary resources to teach to higher levels of learning. They establish and maintain clear standards of behavior and civility. Educators are role models, displaying the habits of mind and work necessary to develop and apply knowledge while simultaneously displaying a curiosity and enthusiasm for learning. They invite students to become active, inquisitive, and discerning individuals who reflect upon and monitor their own learning.

Principle 3: Educators commit to their own learning in order to develop their practice.

Educators recognize that professional knowledge and development are the foundations of their practice. They know their subject matter, and they understand how students learn. Educators respect the reciprocal nature of learning between educators and students. They engage in a variety of individual and collaborative learning experiences essential to develop professionally and to promote student learning. They draw on and contribute to various forms of educational research to improve their own practice.

Principle 4: Educators collaborate with colleagues and other professionals in the interest of student learning.

Educators encourage and support their colleagues to build and maintain high standards. They participate in decisions regarding curriculum, instruction and assessment designs, and they share responsibility for the governance of schools. They cooperate with community agencies in using resources and building comprehensive services in support of students. Educators respect fellow professionals and believe that all have the right to teach and learn in a professional and supportive environment. They participate in the preparation and induction of new educators and in professional development for all staff.

Principle 5: Educators collaborate with parents and community, building trust and respecting confidentiality.

Educators partner with parents and other members of the community to enhance school programs and to promote student learning. They also recognize how cultural and linguistic heritage, gender, family and community shape experience and learning. Educators respect the private nature of the special knowledge they have about students and their families and use that knowledge only in the students' best interests. They advocate for fair opportunity for all children.

Principle 6: Educators advance the intellectual and ethical foundation of the learning community.

Educators recognize the obligations of the trust placed in them. They share the responsibility for understanding what is known, pursuing further knowledge, contributing to the generation of knowledge, and translating knowledge into comprehensible forms. They help students understand that knowledge is often complex and sometimes paradoxical. Educators are confidantes, mentors and advocates for their students' growth and development. As models for youth and the public, they embody intellectual honesty, diplomacy, tact and fairness.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why is it important to have ethical standards and guidelines in place for the teaching profession? What purposes do they serve?
2. How do ethics differ from morals? Why is this distinction relevant when examining professional ethics and guidelines?
3. Past ethics codes sometimes reflected problematic assumptions or disproportionately impacted certain groups. How can we ensure contemporary ethics standards align with ideals of equity and fair treatment? What processes help shape this?
4. How might teacher ethics codes need to evolve moving forward to address new issues arising, like the use of artificial intelligence in classrooms? What new considerations might this require?
5. How can educators integrate an "ethic of care" within a **critical pedagogy** framework to address broader societal issues and promote transformative learning experiences for both students and themselves?

ACTIVITY

Ethical or Not: Examining Complex Dilemmas through the Lens of Educator Ethics Codes

Before beginning this activity, review the New York State Code of Ethics for Educators. Below are three scenarios that examine potential ethical violations by educators. After reading each scenario, examine it for potential violations of ethics and consider the guiding question posted after each scenario.

Scenario 1

Emily is a 22-year-old student teacher completing her final field experience at Roosevelt Middle School prior to certification. One day, Emily decides to sneak off to the deserted student bathroom during her prep period to take a few puffs from her e-cigarette/vape pen in order to relax. Unbeknownst to her, a recently installed security camera outside the bathroom catches footage of Emily exiting the bathroom. Later that week, the school's IT administrator detects abnormal levels of vaping residues in tests of the bathroom's air quality sensors during Emily's timeframe.

When the principal calls Emily into his office about these issues, she vehemently denies vaping or even owning an e-cigarette. Once presented with both the sensor data and camera footage evidencing otherwise, Emily changes her defense by arguing that "at least she did it secretly where no students could see, so it shouldn't matter." Was Emily in violation of any components of the professional code of ethics or laws? Why or why not?

Did Emily violate any aspects of ethical or legal standards for teachers based on

this scenario. Make sure to cite specific sections and language from the ethics codes in justifying your arguments. Your response should demonstrate a thoughtful application of the standards to Emily's concerning behaviors and statements.

Scenario 2

Mark is an 8th grade math teacher who through social media befriends Luis, a quiet student new to his school this year. Luis has few friends and seems to struggle with anxiety in Mark's class. Wanting to support him, Mark messages Luis on weekends to see how he's coping, reminds him of class material, and encourages him to join a school dance. While Mark aims to mentor Luis for his benefit, the frequency and familiar tone of the off-hours communications increasingly makes Luis uncomfortable. However, Luis is hesitant to report their interactions or confront a teacher.

One day, a counselor notices Luis' change in behavior and reaches out to see if anything is wrong. Reluctantly, Luis shows her some messages where Mark appears overly invested in his personal issues unrelated to course studies. The counselor finds this concerning and speaks to the principal regarding whether Mark may have crossed internal communication policies or professional ethical boundaries, even though aiming to help Luis.

Did elements of Mark's efforts to support his student potentially violate any components of the Code of Ethics? Why or why not? Analyze Mark's behavior and statements in relation to appropriate educator and student boundaries. Make sure to cite language from the ethics standards in justifying your arguments.

Scenario 3

As online lesson material repositories grew, middle school science teacher Kayla subscribed to several sites offering AI-generated lesson plans aligned to state standards. With 120 students across five periods, manually planning engaging projects every day was challenging. Kayla began assigning the AI-crafted lesson plans after quickly reviewing and approving their quality first. Students were responding well. However, some colleagues felt fully delegating fundamentals like lesson objectives, essential questions and formative assessments violated principles on diligently upholding duties vital to the learning process.

During a district EdTech conference session discussing AI ethics, sharp divisions emerged even among technology staff and administrators. Some argued AI supports teachers in accessing shared best practices by automating routine design tasks. They said just as with teacher toolkits from textbook ancillary materials, the core interaction of creatively guiding activities still comes from Kayla. However, others contended relying on AI algorithms threatened teacher development of contextualized curriculum attuned to students' needs. Debates ensued around whether AI lesson aids should constitute unethical outsourcing of basic teaching competencies – or if emerging assistive technologies will necessitate updating professional standards for modern times.

Is Kayla's use of AI to facilitate lesson planning in conflict with any components of the Code of Ethics? Why or why not? Relate principles in the Code to this case

around responsible use of resources and diligently upholding duties vital to student development.

GLOSSARY

Code of Ethics: A set of principles and standards that outline the professional responsibilities and conduct expected of individuals within a particular profession. In the context of education, a teacher's code of ethics outlines the expectations for ethical behavior and decision-making.

Conflict of Interest: A situation in which a person's personal interests or relationships may potentially influence their professional judgment or actions in a way that could compromise their integrity or impartiality. In education, conflict of interest situations should be avoided to maintain professional ethics.

Critical Pedagogy: An approach to education that emphasizes the development of critical thinking skills, social justice, and equity. Critical pedagogy encourages students to question and challenge societal norms and structures.

Ethic of Care: An ethical framework that emphasizes the importance of relationships, empathy, and compassion in moral decision-making. In the context of education, an ethic of care highlights the educator's role in nurturing students' well-being and supporting their holistic development.

Integrity: Being honest and demonstrating strong moral principles.

Moral Character: Qualities like honesty and integrity that reflect one's ethical values.

NEA: National Education Association, a professional organization for educators in the United States

OSPRA: Office of School Personnel Review and Accountability, investigates educator misconduct in New York

Pedagogy: The theory and practice of teaching, including the methods and strategies used to deliver instruction and facilitate learning. Pedagogy encompasses the educator's role in designing learning experiences and supporting student development.

Praxis: The process of applying theoretical knowledge or concepts into practical action or application. In education, praxis involves the integration of theory and practice in teaching and learning, emphasizing the transformative nature of education.

Principles: Core values that guide ethical decision-making.

FIGURES

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10

What Can U.S. Educators and Schools Learn from Finland?

Ann Fradkin-Hayslip

Before You Read

Before reading, spend some time thinking about how teachers teach. Some profess that teachers teach the way they were taught. It has also been postulated that college faculty teach not only the way they were taught but that their teaching is influenced by past experiences (Hora, 2013). In *The Making of a College,* a blueprint for the inception of Hampshire College, Longsworth and Patterson, propose a school that includes *The Idea of the Student as Teacher*. This philosophy encourages students to act as teachers, such as leading discussions and seminars, and forming collegial relationships between faculty and students. It recognizes that both teachers and learners may switch between those roles. It is about absolving the rigidity of teacher and student roles and recognizing that all of us can be teachers or learners throughout our lives (Longsworth, 1966).

Critical Question For Consideration

As you read, consider these essential questions: In what ways can the United States adopt practices from Finland to improve teacher preparation and schooling for its students? In what ways does equity impact teachers and students? In what ways does teacher autonomy impact learning and teaching? In what ways do the pedagogical and philosophical differences between schooling in the United States compare with those in Finland?

INTRODUCTION: WHY FINLAND?

Walk into any school in Finland and obvious differences from U.S. schools will be immediately recognized. The density of parked bicycles near the entrance may be your first indicator. Depending on the size of the school, you may see hundreds of two and

three-wheelers. This is because students in Finland walk or ride bikes to school. There are no school buses in the country, unlike in the United States, where thirty-eight percent of students ride a school bus. In the United States, students typically qualify for bus transportation if their designated school is two or more miles from their residence. Neighborhood schools in Finland are within three miles of most students' homes and the commute is viewed as safe and an essential part of being outdoors (Pietarinen, 2009). Rarely do parents in Finland drive their children to school, as compared to the fifty-four percent of parents who do so in the U.S. (New York School Bus Contractors Association, n.d.). Even the youngest of children walk or bike throughout the school year, including the winter months when the temperatures may dip below freezing, and the absence of sunlight lasts for months.

Finland is a small country that espouses an education system steeped in equity, teacher autonomy, and quality education. Named the "happiest nation in the world," it is a country that personifies not euphoria, but rather contentment. Its model of learning and teaching supports a belief that teaching is not a one-way street, that learning occurs when equity, respect, and meaning are paramount, and that education extends beyond the physical confines of a building. Finland is a model for the rest of the world.

Even the youngest of children walk or bike to school throughout the school year.

The next notable difference may be the hundreds of shoes arranged within the school vestibule or outside classrooms. Teachers, students, and visitors remove their shoes upon entering any school in Finland. This practice is two-fold. It eliminates debris from the outside and fosters coziness. No-shoe classrooms and hallways encourage students to sit on the floor to collaborate with peers or to engage in projects. The practice also gives the school an inviting feeling. Teachers and students can be seen barefooted, in stocking feet, or clad in indoor shoes or slippers.

Other differences may depend on the size or location of the school or the population of students. Funding is equitable among all schools in Finland and members

of each school may decide how that money is spent. An emphasis on physical comfort and community extends to social interaction for members of the school. Pool tables, video consoles, and rooms for students to lounge, visit with peers, or play board games is a common sight. For teachers, that sense of community can be felt in rooms outfitted with comfortable couches and chairs. The smell of brewing coffee is commonplace and encourages a collaborative and relaxed environment. The minimalistic design sets the mood for a peaceful aura. Warm paint tones and uncluttered walls contrast the institutionalized colors and often poster-plastered walls of American schools. Perhaps the most contrasting element is the absence of jarring announcements, blaring bells, hall passes, and in general, an authoritative, penal design. There is a calmness that permeates the buildings, and yet, an environment that is alive with activity.

Regardless of where schools are located, or the populations they serve, all schools are equitable. Local autonomy determines curriculum, teacher autonomy is paramount, and parents trust their children's teachers. In recent years, Finland has become synonymous with high-quality education. This was not always the case. Decades earlier, the country lagged behind its counterparts in terms of teacher training preparedness and student outcomes. The transformation that took place in the 1990s unwittingly propelled the country into the world spotlight. Unbeknownst to the collaborators, their plan worked; not only for their relatively small nation but as a model for the world to follow.

PISA – FINLAND RANKINGS AND TRANSFORMATIONS – FOR BETTER OR WORSE

Much has been written about educational reform in Finland; its rising PISA ((Program for International Student Assessment) rankings, and most recently, its descent. PISA is an international organization that every three years assesses fifteen-year-old students in the areas of reading, mathematics, and science literacy. The program, overseen by the OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development), began in 2000, and tests for competencies toward the end of the compulsory schooling for students (Overview, n.d.). In 2000, 32 countries participated. By 2018, that number had grown to 79, with a projected participation of 90 countries by 2025 (The Irish Journal of Education, 2023). Due to the COVID pandemic, the 2021 testing date was moved to 2022, thereby moving the 2025 date up one year (PISA Scores By Country, 2023). Since 2000, and the inception of the first PISA, Finland has ranked in the top tiers of reading, mathematics, and science literacy, although scores did decline in 2015 and 2018 (National Center on Education and the Economy, 2023). Has educational attainment declined, or rather, reached a stable point? Do international scores adequately define the worth of an educational system, or do other factors more realistically offer an unbiased view? The Finnish PISA scores from 2000 to 2022, have consistently outperformed the United States; but first, let us step back several decades to trace how this tiny country propelled its name into the news and became a model for educators around the globe.

Table: U.S. and Finland PISA Scores in Reading, Math, and Science
Top 10 scores are highlighted in yellow
Below Average Scores are highlighted in blue

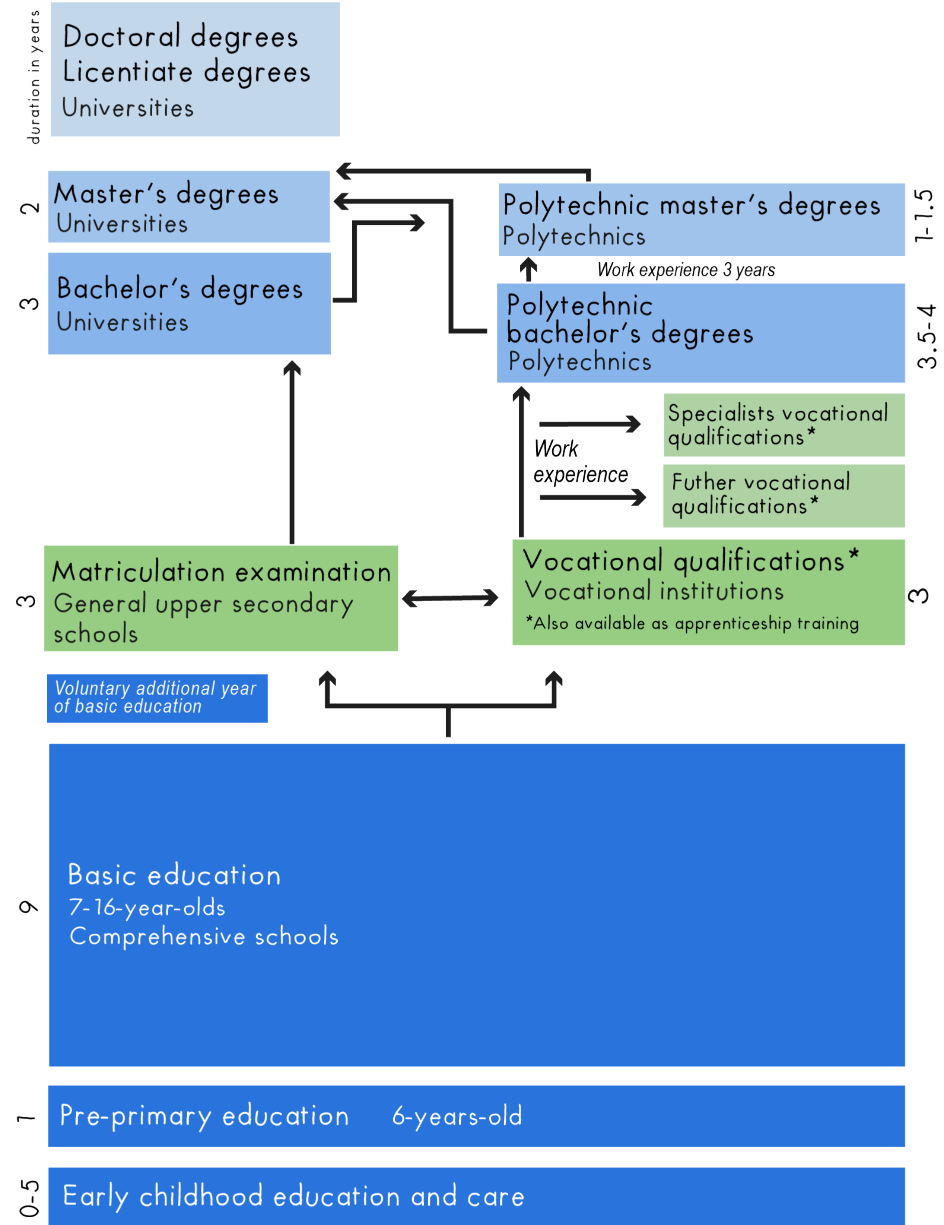
Year	Number Countries	Finland Reading Score (Rank)	U.S. Reading Score (Rank)	Finland Math Score (Rank)	U.S. Math Score (Rank)	Finland Science Score (Rank)	U.S. Science Score (Rank)
2000	43	546 (#1)	504 (#15)	536 (#4)	493 (#19)	538 (#3)	499 (#14)
2003	41	543 (#1)	495 (#20)	544 (#1)	483 (#24)	548 (#1)	
2006	57	(#2)	504 (#)	548 (#1)	474 (#25)	563 (#1)	489 (#21)
2009	75	536 (#3)	500 (#17)	541 (#6)	487 (#30)	554 (#2)	502 (#23)
2012	65	524 (#6)	498 (#24)	519 (#12)	481 (#36)	545 (#5)	497 (#28)
2015	73	526 (#4)	497 (#24)	511 (#13)	470 (#40)	531 (#5)	496 (#25)
2018	79	520	505	507	478	522	502

HISTORICAL CONTEXT – HOW FINLAND BECAME SYNONYMOUS WITH QUALITY EDUCATION

Throughout the late 1970s, students in the small Nordic country of Finland routinely scored near the bottom of the rankings by the OECD. A decade later, the Ministry of Education adopted a common curriculum (National Center on Education and the Economy, 2023). Finnish students began to earn average scores on international assessments, with slightly higher scores in reading (Sahlberg, Finnish Lessons: What Can the World Learn from Educational Change in Finland?, 2011). Still, the scores were not stellar, and no one was taking notice. Then, during the 1990s, a revamping of the curriculum produced a national design focused on a less-is-more approach. This undertaking pared the objectives for each grade, from lengthy pages to concise attributes for student learning. With an emphasis on learning, rather than teaching, educators strove to delve deeper into fewer concepts and focus on encouraging critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The plan also included elevating the teaching profession and by extension, granting teachers the autonomy to make their own choices about what and how they would teach and assess. The transformation that took place in the 1990s unwittingly propelled the country into the world spotlight. Unbeknownst to the collaborators, their plan had worked; not only for their relatively small nation but as a model for the industrialized world to follow. The rankings soared; with Finnish students outscoring their peers in reading, mathematics, and science literacy. Thrust into the world spotlight, educators around the globe wanted to know their secret. How did Finland become the forerunner for academic achievement? What was even more remarkable was that Finnish students and teachers spent less time in the classroom than most others, most notably, Americans. Homework is minimal, if at all, and standardized tests are practically non-existent. Yet, despite these differences, the scores outranked the other nations. Finnish educators widely speculated that there might be a scoring error, but indeed, this was not the case. What was soon realized was that there were

no magical or extreme measures that predicted these results. Instead, a coming together of creating a national curriculum, respecting the rights of individual schools to amend this curriculum, a less-is-more attitude, a healthy respect for all learners, trust in and autonomy for teachers, and a balance between life and school was the prescription that healed a floundering educational system.

The Educational System of Finland



PEDAGOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The framework of the National Curriculum is built on a commitment to ensure that all Finnish students will have "the knowledge and skills" to "remain strong in the future, both nationally and internationally." Student-centered, the fabric of the plan is to encourage students' "interest in and motivation for learning" (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2023). It is a structure intended.

"to enable a reform of school culture and school pedagogy which will improve the quality of the learning process and enhance learning outcomes" (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2023).

This design supports active participation by learners, to intersect knowledge and feelings, with goals and problem-solving skills. Schools are publicly funded, follow a national curriculum, and support a play-based ideology. Teachers are viewed as instructors who facilitate these aims and encourage life-long learning.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum in Finland is rooted in a pedagogy that supports the belief that student-centered and collaborative learning will benefit all learners (Council for Creative Education, n.d.). Regardless of the locations or populations of the schools, all are equitable, and local autonomy enables schools the latitude to adapt the national curriculum to their situations. Unlike the United States, where the emphasis is on teaching, testing, and accountability, in Finland, the focus is on learning, and an ideology that students and schools do not need to be compared to each other. This contrasts with the standards-based curriculum that currently exists in the United States. The notion of an accountability report for all U.S. public schools led to standards-based educational benchmarks for all schools. The premise was for each grade level to articulate the skills and knowledge expected of all students after the school year with the goal of teachers and schools helping students attain these criteria (Alex Spurrier, 2020). At its inception, some professed the system to be equitable and a means to identify lower-performing schools. The latter would enable educators and policymakers to find inducements or enforcement to improve these lower-performing schools. Criticism of the approach points to teaching to the test; a method to teach strategies to pass a test. Time is spent on "using the test in instruction so that the students will have encountered all of the test items before the actual test" (Top Education Degrees, 2023). Opponents argue that the time spent to prepare, take, and remediate after testing would be better spent on engaged learning activities. Currently, thirty-eight states require a standards-based curriculum, and an additional twelve states recommend its adoption (BALLOTPEDIA, 2023). In Finland, learning is fluid, asset-based, and free of threats about not measuring up.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Every child in Finland who is a permanent resident between the ages of six and sixteen is required to attend public or private school, both of which are at no cost to families (Ahonen, 2023). Learning materials, school meals, and health services are also provided free of charge (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2023). Although a national curriculum includes learning objectives and core contents for each grade, schools, and teachers are encouraged to create or adapt the framework (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2023). They may also choose how the curriculum is to be implemented and how teaching and learning will occur. The educational framework is designed to

encourage and support learning from birth through adulthood. Although early childhood education is not compulsory, it is an integral part of the structure. This is followed by a year of pre-primary education for six-year-olds, and basic education for those between the ages of seven and sixteen.

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND CARE

The Early Childhood Education and Care Program (ECEC) in Finland serves children between zero and six years old. Overseen by the Ministry of Education and Culture it supports the belief that all children have the right to quality early childhood care and that parents have the right to choose if and how they will participate in the program(Starting Stong IV Early Childhood Education and Care Data Country Note, 2016). Parents choose whether to stay home with their infant, hire in-home care, or place the child in a public or private early childhood daycare center. If they opt to stay home, one, or both parents may take a leave of absence from their job with a combined total of 320 days of leave coverage. Monetary compensation is also provided. If parents choose a daycare center, ECEC supplements the costs. Family income determines their financial contribution, at a maximum of 300 euros, or approximately $321.18 a month (City of Helsinki, n.d.). Compared to early childhood centers in the United States, the average cost for early childhood care is $1, 230 a month, or approximately $15,000 a year. The flexibility of the Educare Model supports parents to make choices in the best interest of their children. It also prescribes the ideology that children can learn from everyday activities, whether in the home or at a center. Young children learn by serving themselves lunch or putting on their boots. This ideology also encourages independence and fosters a sense of accomplishment. Learning is viewed as joyful, and children are free to develop at their own pace. All early childhood teachers have a bachelor's degree. The teacher-student ratio for the ECEC system is 10 children per teacher. For children under the age of 3, the ratio is 1:3, while for ages 3 to 5 the ratio is 1:8 (Starting Strong IV Early Childhood Education and Care Data Country Note, 2016). By comparison, in the United States, the average ratio is 15.3 students per teacher in kindergarten; with some states employing a 20:1 ratio (State K-3 Policies, 2020).

Play

Embedded in early childhood philosophy is the belief that play is essential for developing minds and bodies. This includes romps outside, communing with nature, overnight trips, even for three and four-year-olds, and breaks to interact with peers. Play-based learning is child-initiated and child-centered. It is open-ended and taps into their natural curiosity and interest in the world around them. Play is not a fun project that a teacher introduces, nor is it a planned, adult-led activity. "Play is the answer to how anything new comes about (Brainy Quote, 2023)." Play contributes to cognitive and social-emotional development as children learn and interact with others. Language and literacy skills are enhanced, confidence and cooperative skills, and physical development are outcomes of play-based learning.

Pre-Primary Education

Learning through playful activities and experiences extends to the pre-primary education year.

At age six, students enter the pre-primary education step, aimed toward providing them with greater opportunities for learning and development. Pre-primary education plays an important part in the continuum spanning from early childhood education and care to primary and lower secondary education. It introduces students to mathematical and reading skills without direct instruction. Instead, learners may play and explore with manipulatives, books, games, and other interactive materials. This year of exploration is designed to prepare youngsters for the following year. Childhood is meant to be stress-free; therefore, students are not pressured to acquire academic skills at a set time. Each child is viewed as an individual. Before 2015, pre-primary education was optional, however, in August of that year, The Ministry of Education mandated the program for all children. The National Core Curriculum for Pre-Primary Education, approved by the Finnish National Agency for Education, guides the planning of the content of pre-primary education and a framework for local curricula (European Commission, 2023). The four-hour day is spent on play-based and interactive activities designed to prepare young children for the subsequent school year. It is typical to observe children working cooperatively as they complete puzzles, engage in vocabulary and number-matching games, and do daily outdoor play. The emphasis is on hands-on, learning-by-doing experiences (European Commission, 2023).

Basic Education

Basic education commences after the pre-primary year, at the age of seven, and extends until sixteen years of age. It is divided into primary and lower secondary education levels. The Basic Education step, like the pre-primary year, is built on a belief that learning should occur within positive environments. One way to achieve this is the relatively short school days. Finnish students spend approximately five hours a day in school, compared to the six to eight hours American students spend in class. To balance the school day, students are given multiple breaks throughout the school day. For every forty-five minutes of class time, students are given a fifteen-minute break, and like play-based learning, this break is student-determined; not teacher-initiated. Students may play a game of pool or video games, depending on the furnishings of their school, or they may sit and visit with friends. The time is unstructured and designed to balance work with free time. Another means of a positive environment is the non-existent or limited homework assigned in Finnish schools. Homework that is assigned typically has a practical intent. It may include planning and preparing dinner for the family as an extension to a home economics class. The Finnish belief is that learners should be given the time and choice after school to pursue sports, hobbies, or interactions with others. This is contrary to the average U.S. student who may spend hours each day completing required homework assignments (Education in Finland, n.d.). When learners reach the age of sixteen, they have the option to add an extra year to their education plan. They also have the choice to pursue an upper secondary general education or vocational education

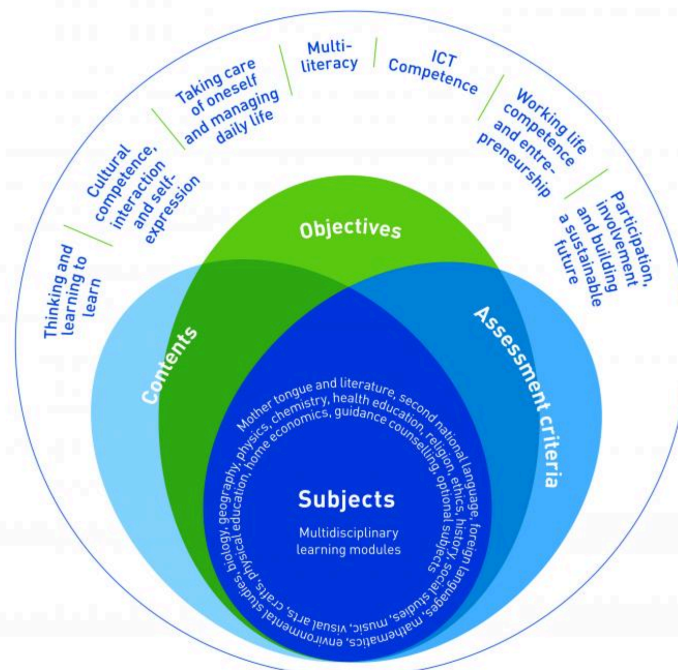
curriculum. The first requires certain examinations and is aligned with preparation to enter a bachelor's degree program. The second requires vocational qualifications in preparation for a technical degree.

Assessment

Ironically, despite the consistently high rankings of Finnish students, the educational framework is a system adverse to assessments. Assessment in Finnish schools can be defined as a system of flexible accountability (Education reform in Finland and the comprehensive school system, 2019). This practice allows teachers to determine how and when to assess their students. Self and peer assessments are common in Finnish classrooms. These methods support self-reflection and constructive feedback, according to the premise that they contribute to a n support life-long learning. There are no mandatory standardized tests for schools and although national tests exist, they too, are voluntary (Education reform in Finland and the comprehensive school system, 2019).

Core subjects for basic education include national and secondary languages, sciences, social studies, arts, technology, mathematics, religion, ethics, and home economics. Disciplines are continually updated to reflect current and best practices, and students are given choices within these disciplines. Multidisciplinary and cross-disciplinary learning often occurs as students learn skills and develop dispositions across multiple disciplines.

Objectives, Contents, Assessment Criteria, Subjects



Transversal Competencies are also included within the education framework. Defined as emotional intelligence and experience, these skills are not associated with a specific discipline, but instead reflect the skills required to effectively navigate in the work environment. Sometimes referred to as soft skills, these competencies can include "critical and innovative thinking, interpersonal skills, global citizenship, and physical and psychological health (Heron, 2019)." At its core, transversal competencies include creativity, collaboration, conflict resolution, communication skills, teamwork, critical thinking, and media and information literacy skills (National Initiative for School Heads' and Teachers' Hollistic Advancement). Transversal competencies are designed to prepare learners for the future and for those jobs that have yet to be created or idealized.

Outdoor Education

Education outside the classroom (EOC) refers to curricula that take place outside the classroom (Jarvinen-Taubert, 2022). Learning may occur in a structure, such as a library, museum, or forest. Finnish culture revolves around a healthy respect and interaction with nature and schools are included in this relationship. Embodied within the country's educational pedagogical framework, it is a given that schools support "learning, interaction, participation, well-being, and a sustainable way of living" (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2023). Outdoor education is essential, beginning with outdoor play in the ECEC program and spanning until the culmination of the basic education year. Communing with nature is regarded as an interdisciplinary approach that promotes cognitive skills and places value on individuals and the environment. Its social-emotional impact includes inquiry-based learning for the student overseeing the process and the teacher acting as facilitator (Finnish student teachers' ideas of outdoor learning, 2021).

Everyman's Right

The emphasis on nature stems from Finnish culture. Everyman's Right is a decree that establishes "the right of every person to use nature regardless of who owns or controls the land" (Finnish Environment Institute, 2023). It is, therefore, not necessary to have permission from a landowner to use said property. Finland is propagated with thousands of wilderness huts and shelters across the nation. Structures range from simple lean-tos to shelters that house bunks and cooking apparatus (GONE71, 2020). Expectations are that users will respect and not alter nature and comply with rules such as staying on marked trails, camping where allowed, preserving water sources, guarding against potential forest fires, and not littering. These structures may serve as the backdrop for daily visits by school children, or for overnight experiences for children as young as three years old. This healthy interaction between school and nature brings learning to real-world contexts including "mathematics, physics, languages, art, physical education, etc." (Jarvinen-Taubert, 2022).

Equity

The equity inherent in the everyman's right is reflected in Finland's education system. Every student in Finland is afforded an equitable education that spans from birth to the university level; and every student has a right to educational support (Ahonen, 2023). Children enter school with varying life situations and the dynamics of their home affect what they see and experience and impact their readiness to learn. Children who positively engage in dialogue and play at home have "higher literacy skills, better peer interactions, fewer behavior problems, and greater motivation and persistence during learning activities" (Families Are the Heart of School Readiness, n.d.). Acknowledging these variances propelled the Ministry to adopt "the equal opportunity principle …" that "…insisted that all students be offered a fair chance to be successful and enjoy learning" (Sahlberg, Finnish Lessons 2.0 What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?, 2015, p. 28). This commitment to equity is not synonymous with equality. Rather than every student being taught the same thing in the same way, learning and teaching would now take the individual into account; however, the overarching similar component would be that all students receive a high-quality education. "People sometimes incorrectly assume that equity in education means all students should be taught the same curriculum or should achieve the same learning outcomes in school… Rather, equity in education means that all students must have access to high-quality education, regardless of where they live, who their parents might be or what school they attend" (Sahlberg, Finnish Lessons 2.0 What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?, 2015). This equity underscores the belief that all students can and should receive the preparation for higher education or a career path (European Commission, 2023). As the familiar cartoon below depicts, equality means that everyone receives the same while equity means everyone receives what they need. The added image of justice addresses the removal of systemic barriers; thus, eliminating many of the resulting needed supports.

MEET THE THEORIST

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Special Education

Special education in Finland is also rooted in a philosophy of equity and inclusivity. The term *special needs* does not exist in the Finnish educational legislation. The belief is that inclusivity is best for learning and social well-being and that learning together benefits all students (Schools, 2022). Infused within the schools, special education support is viewed not as a negative or a distractor, but as assistance to students and teachers. Approximately 30 percent of all students receive special help (Hancock, 2011). Special education services for Finnish students are mostly focused on reading, writing, and mathematics, with an emphasis on teaching and learning rather than on a deficit mentality. In Finland, early identification is key to the prevention of learning difficulties and so more children are identified at younger ages. Compared to children in the United States, special education is defined as a disability that may entail physical, cognitive, linguistic, or other developmental delays (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). Parental permission for special education services is not required in Finland. This enables

specialists and teachers to provide support as needed and as quickly as possible, unlike in the United States, where parental or guardian permission is required and where one academic year can elapse between the time a student is potentially identified, and the time services are rendered. In compliance with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), an initial evaluation must occur within 60 days of the request (Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 2017). In 2004, the reauthorization of IDEA introduced the Response to intervention (RTI) method to identify students. The three-tiered system monitors the progress of a student as interventions are intensified. Tier 1 represents approximately 80 percent of referred students, with Tier 2 and 3 representing approximately 15 and 5 percent respectively (Wiley University Services, 2013). Tier 2 may extend for eight weeks or longer. If progress is not satisfactory, further testing may be initialized. Legally, schools must evaluate students when there is reason to believe that a disability exists and need for special education services (Martin, n.d.). Months of progress monitoring, scheduled meetings, and other procedures can often mean that an identified student receives special education services toward the end of the current or at the start of their subsequent school year, unlike in Finland, where services can be immediate.

Finland also has a tier system of services; however, it differs considerably from the US model. General support refers to the strategies the teacher may provide to all students in the class. These adaptations may include flexible seating, guided practice, and differentiation strategies. Intensified support is when the teacher makes adaptations for individual students. These plans may be in consultation with the parents and or special education teachers. The third tier, special support, is for students who have a "severe disability, illness or developmental disorder" (Finland's Approach to Special Needs & Inclusion, 2022). Even with the most severe needs, the goal is to keep all students in the mainstream classroom, and for all students to interact in and out of the classroom.

No Dead Ends – No Tracking

Tracking, the practice of placing students in classes based on ability, I.Q., or achievement (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2023), does not exist in Finland. Initiated in the United States in the 1930's, the practice places students on tracks, to "provide them with a level of curriculum and instruction that is appropriate to their needs" (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2023). During the late 1960s and early 1970s, students were often tracked for either college-bound or vocational training. This meant that all their school courses propelled them on a trajectory toward college preparation, or lack thereof. In the 1970s, tracking evolved to placement for individual courses (The Brookings Institution, 2013). Students may be deemed to be on a college preparatory trajectory, thereby given a curriculum that includes requisite courses for college admission. Other students may be identified and tracked for a general education, on a path for a trade or job placement. Their track may be classified as general education with basic-level courses. A high school graduate who completed a general education track program might lack the (pre)requisites for college admission. They may then have to play catch-up, take the necessary courses of study

after graduation, or accept a vocational path in life. This in no way implies that one path supersedes another or that one is better than the other. Instead, it calls into question how educators can predict an educational track for a pre-teen that may impose serious consequences on their pursuit of higher education and career options. That a track is based on judgments about perceived abilities and future trajectories is nothing short of alarming. Even with the modification of tracking being course-specific, students may still be denied entry to college if they have not taken the requisite secondary courses. Critics of tracking have also long argued that groupings often reflect SES (socio-economic status), with those at the lower SES levels tracked for vocational training and those at the higher SES levels tracked for college preparedness. Not surprisingly, tracking has come under fire for the past 20 years as being biased against low-income and minority students (The Brookings Institution, 2013). By contrast, in 1985, Finland abolished ability-level and tracking practices. Students were homogeneously grouped with the rationale that grouping students by ability amounted to inequitable practices.

Finland also provides a *No Dead-End* education system, designed to provide choice and access to higher education for all students. The system also allows for avenues to change paths without lapses or interruptions in school. As indicated in (Table), if a Finnish student chooses a general upper secondary school plan, that student may then continue to higher education, earning a bachelor's, master's, or doctoral degree. If they opt to pursue a vocational course at the upper secondary level, they may do so. For the student who decides on a vocational path as their upper secondary school plan, that student may also earn a bachelor's degree from a polytechnic institute. If, at that point, the student chooses to pursue a master's or Doctoral degree at a university, that path is also available. Hence, the term, No Dead Ends has been etched into the Finnish education system to provide choices along with the pursuit of an education.

Higher Education

Institutions of higher education in Finland, are also free of cost to its citizens. Two types of institutions are available: universities and universities of applied sciences (UAS), Both institutions offer bachelor's and master's degrees. Among the thirteen universities, all are public, and extensive programs and courses are offered (Higher Education in Finland, 2023). Universities "focus on scientific research and education based on it" (Fulbright Finland Foundation, n.d.). Admission is competitive and work is deemed to be rigorous. Like the compensatory education system, choice is a fundamental tenet. For example, some courses may allow students to take competency exams in place of class attendance or course requirements. An additional 23 polytechnic schools, also known as (UAS), focus on occupations in business, industry, and service. Degree programs, including professional teacher education programs, are related to the workforce and may include internships and other work experiences (JEDUKA, 2023).

Teacher Preparation

The decision to move teacher preparation programs to research universities was to elevate the profession (National Center on Education and the Economy, 2023).

Standards were raised and by elevating the profession, teaching became a highly respected and revered career (Sahlberg, Vision, sustainable leadership and intelligent educational policies: The Finland story, 2007). By setting the bar high for admission to teacher education programs, less than seven out of one hundred applicants are accepted (Jehlen, 2010), and by establishing a competitive teaching job market, Finland was able to fortify its schools with exceptionally intelligent and capable educators. In doing so, trust was placed in the teachers, and they were granted the autonomy traditionally offered to well-respected professionals. Now, teacher preparation programs are highly competitive, and the profession is revered. Only one in ten applicants are accepted into teacher education programs, and all teachers are required to earn a master's degree. Additionally, the university oversees programs "based on and supported by scientific knowledge" (Sahlberg, p. 75). Programs are consistent and entry is determined by academics, commitment to pedagogy, and a passion for education and teaching. The five-year program encourages creativity and thinking outside of the box. It prepares candidates to become autonomous yet reflective and collaborative teachers. In nations where students rank high according to PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment), teacher preparation is highly selective. Finland has one of the most competitive teacher education programs in the world (Sahlberg, Finnish Lessons: What Can the World Learn from Educational Change in Finland?, 2011). In a country where there is very little variation between schools ... and where "95% of Finnish schoolchildren fulfill the OECD minimum requirements for living in a modern society," the consistency of teacher education programs and enrollment standards is evidenced (University of Helsinki, 2006). Applicants to teacher education programs are required to "pass a rigorous matriculation examination.... possess high scores, positive personalities, excellent interpersonal skills, and (possess a) commitment to work as a teacher at a school" (Sahlberg, Finnish Lessons: What Can the World Learn from Educational Change in Finland?, 2011). Not surprisingly, teachers in Finland are respected similarly to how physicians are respected in the United States (D'Orio, 2008). High standards and a uniform educational philosophy have positively impacted longevity in the field. Finland boasts a 90% retention among its teachers; conversely, fifty percent of U.S. teachers leave the profession in the first five years (Pearson, 2005). "Those with the least training leave at more than twice the rate of those who are well-prepared" (Darling-Hammond, 2011). As Darling-Hammond and other researchers have found, the better the preparation, the greater the likelihood for the teacher to remain in the profession. In Finland, graduates of teacher education programs must pass two levels to be Sahlberghired for a teaching job. They are grouped according to their matriculation scores. This includes college examinations, "out-of-school accomplishments, and a national entrance exam in which questions focus on a wide range of educational issues" (Sahlberg, 2011).

Teacher Autonomy

Once hired, teachers devote half of their time toward "planning with colleagues, collaborating with parents, and taking part in high-level professional development"

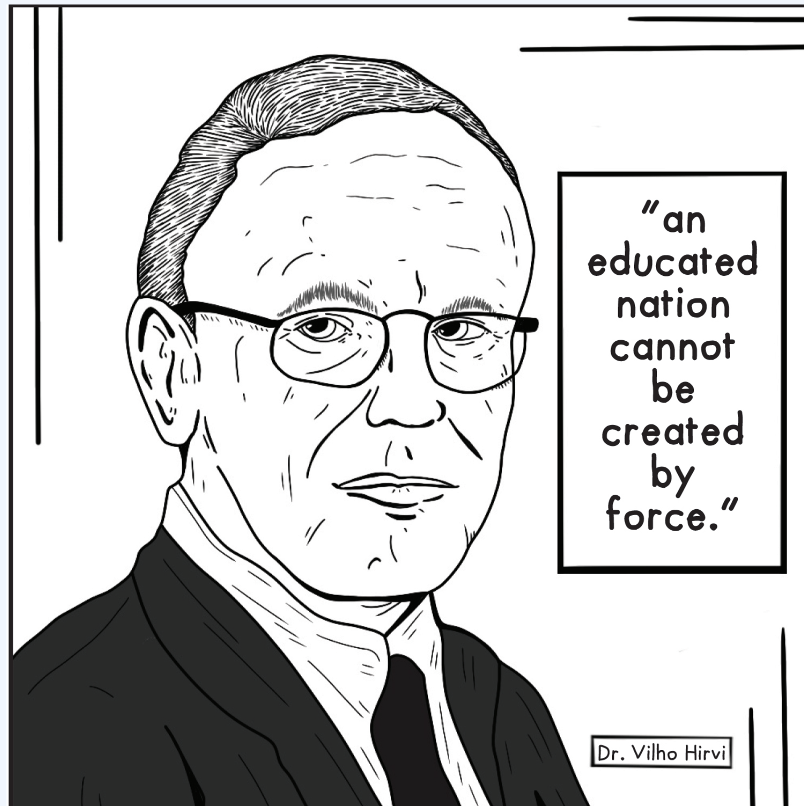
(Frysh, 2011). This lends credence to the notion of the teacher as an autonomous and capable professional. Educational reform advocates within the United States, contend that greater teacher autonomy and decision-making input will result in more informed decisions than those made by district or state supervisors; however, they acknowledge an organization that is deeply rooted in a top-down model. "Autonomy seems to be emerging as a key variable when examining educational reform initiatives, with some arguing that granting autonomy and empowering teachers is an appropriate place to begin in solving the problems of today's school" (Pearson L. C., 2005). The teaching profession in Finland is highly respected, and the curriculum is "deeply thoughtful," creative and cutting edge; it attracts people who lean toward "research, development and design" (National Center on Education and The Economy, 2006). Teachers are encouraged to "push their intellectual and creative bounds, and to "use their judgment" (National Center on Education and The Economy, 2006). This process places the teacher in the role of a leader and abolishes a top-down hierarchical system.

Teacher evaluations were also abolished under the new framework. The autonomy bestowed to teachers resulted in parents placing their trust and respect in the teachers. This healthy relationship establishes a strong home-school connection. Teachers are entrusted to choose what to teach, how to teach, where to teach, how and what to integrate, and how to assess. Parents are supportive of the teachers whom they view as professionals. Therefore, teachers are free to seek support services for students, take students on outdoor and overnight trips, and make choices they deem appropriate.

Autonomy and Efficacy

Teacher autonomy is also linked to efficacy and emerges as a key variable toward student achievement. Autonomy means having control over oneself and one's work environment (Pearson L. &., 2006). Thus, a pecking order is viewed as antithetical to an autonomous work setting. Teacher autonomy is related to collegial relationships within the school setting, shared decision-making, and flexibility and choice as it relates to instructional methods. "…top-down decision making often fails precisely because it lacks the support of those whose (sic) are responsible for the implementation and success of the decision" (Pearson L. &., 2006). Herein lies the polarization of public education in the United States in contrast to education in Finland. To allow one to maintain control implies and is predicated upon the premise that one has the capabilities to do so. Hence, before one can be afforded the trust inherent within an autonomous role, one must be adequately trained, educated, and prepared for the task. It is therefore essential to ensure that teachers are highly qualified before they enter the profession.

MEET THE THEORIST



Vilho Hirvi (1941 – 2001) started his professional career as a Finnish baseball player. After leaving baseball, he trained as a teacher and later received his doctorate. At the time of his death, he was serving as the General Secretary for the Ministry of Education and Culture of Finland.

The Effective Teacher

Teacher autonomy has also been linked to teacher effectiveness; a quality often observed in Finnish schools. Effective teachers believe in a commitment to teach all children and believe that all students can learn. They exemplify collaborative methods within the classroom, contribute to the creation of a shared vision, and practice the art of self-analysis. A plethora of research confirms a significant link between effective teachers and student achievement (Tucker, 2011). This relationship extends to teachers who create higher-quality lessons and who exhibit a high level of self-efficacy. When individuals feel competent, they act confidently. These self-reflective ideologies then impact their behavior. Humans are more inclined to perform tasks in which they feel a level of competency, while their level of efficacy determines the amount of effort expended and the willingness to persevere in the face of adversity.

School Culture

In describing the culture of schools in Finland, despite their geographical differences, a unifying precept is evident. Characteristics that define the culture of a school can often be described in terms of how it is perceived concerning its beliefs and attitudes and how these perceptions impact the behavior of both its students and teachers (Tableman, 2004). Culture is formed by the interactions of "the attitudes and beliefs of persons both inside the school and in the external environment, the culture norms of the school, and the relationships between persons in the school" (SEDL, 1992). These deep-rooted ideologies become embedded and ensconced within the school and help to define its reputation. School culture also influences student behavior achievement. In studies of turnaround schools, it was shown that student behavior correlated with schools that exemplified a positive culture by demonstrating a commitment to "moral character – treating others well….and performance character, doing things well (Character Education Partnership)." The combination of believing and behaving ethically solidified the positive culture of these schools. In identifying the traits of positive school culture, particular patterns emerge. These settings are marked by an atmosphere that includes a "safe and caring environment," an "intellectual climate," a clear set of "rules and policies," and a commitment toward "shared decision making" (Character Education Partnership).

Student Achievement

Not surprisingly, student achievement has strong links within positive classroom climates, marked by those in which the teacher integrates both emotion and the interests of students and where the teacher fosters and maintains interest levels. It is exemplified within a smooth management, student-friendly environment that is permeated by measures of fair evaluations. Rules, procedures, and expectations are clear and just. It is an environment that is culturally responsive and where communication, with individuals, families, and teams of teachers, is in evidence. Hence, the culture of the school directly impacts the achievement of the student, academically, socially, and psychologically. Studies have also supported the claim that effective teachers display high levels of self-efficacy and that these same teachers promote self-efficacy among their students (Hoy A. W., 2009). Effective teachers promote a caring classroom environment in which the beliefs and culture of the students are valued within an atmosphere that fosters a belief that all students can learn (Hoy A. W., 2009).

FINAL THOUGHTS – LEARNING FROM OTHERS

Since 2012, the United Nations Happiness Report has listed the countries in order of happiness and for the past six years, Finland has been ranked as the happiest nation. Like their high-scoring status on the PISA exams, residents at first, questioned these rankings. In conversations with Finns, I have come to realize that happiness is not about euphoria; it is not about walking about with a broad smile or an ecstatic air. Instead,

happiness is about contentment. It is about living in a society that values health and well-being and part of that well-being is the education of its citizens. Happiness, or contentment is about living in a community that exalts equity for the people. It has often been asked how the education system in the United States can attain the level of success as Finland, given our societal and economic differences and the answer remains the same. To make overarching changes, a reconfiguration of values and mindfulness about the framework of education would need to occur. Like the figure (Figure 14) of children watching a baseball game, barriers that prevent access and equitable opportunities need to be removed. Systemic change needs to include a reevaluation of the core curriculum, teacher preparation and autonomy, and authentic assessment. Finland has modeled how students can and do achieve academic and social-emotional success under a system that promotes a less-is-more curriculum, within a culture of equity, founded on the principles of believing that each person can learn, and where the individual is valued and respected. When respect for the teaching profession is respected, and when the absence of threats of evaluations frees teachers and students to think critically, create, and explore in an atmosphere of joy, encouragement, and positiveness, the seeds for lifelong learning will be nourished. Your journey may lead you down the path to cultivate change on a systemic level, or your steps may be closer in stride.

ACTIVITY

Think about your educational journey. What can you do in your future classroom to establish a positive class culture?

How can equity, teacher autonomy, and happiness become embedded in the U.S. educational system?

Predict the trajectory for the next five years, based on the 2000 to 2020 PISA scores for students in the United States.

GLOSSARY

Basic Education: Compulsory schooling in Finland for ages 7-16, divided into primary and lower secondary levels, emphasizing equity and a holistic approach to learning.

Code of Ethics: Set of principles guiding professional conduct in education, outlining expectations for ethical behavior and decision-making among teachers and administrators.

Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC): Finland’s program for children 0-6 years old, focusing on play-based learning and holistic development before formal schooling begins.

Educare Model: Finnish approach integrating education and childcare, allowing parents flexibility in choosing care options for young children with government support.

Equity: Core principle of Finnish education ensuring all students have access to high-quality education regardless of background, with resources allocated based on need.

Everyman's Right: Finnish law allowing public access to nature regardless of land ownership, supporting outdoor education and connection to the environment.

Higher Education: Tuition-free university and polytechnic institutions in Finland offering bachelor's and master's degrees, with a focus on research and practical applications.

Intensified Support: Second tier of Finland's special education system, providing targeted interventions for students needing additional help beyond general classroom support.

National Core Curriculum: Framework guiding education in Finland, outlining learning objectives and core content while allowing for local and teacher autonomy in implementation.

No Dead Ends: Finnish educational philosophy ensuring multiple pathways to higher education and career options, allowing students to change tracks without academic penalties.

Outdoor Education: Integral part of Finnish schooling emphasizing learning outside the classroom, connecting students with nature and real-world contexts across subjects.

PISA: Programme for International Student Assessment, evaluating education systems worldwide by testing 15-year-old students' skills and knowledge in reading, mathematics, and science.

Play-based Learning: Educational approach in Finland emphasizing child-initiated, open-ended activities to develop cognitive, social, and emotional skills, especially in early years.

Pre-Primary Education: Mandatory year of education for 6-year-olds in Finland, introducing foundational skills through play-based and interactive learning experiences.

School Culture: The shared beliefs, values, and behaviors that shape the social and learning environment within Finnish schools, emphasizing trust, respect, and collaboration.

Special Education: Inclusive approach in Finland providing immediate, in-class support for about 30% of students, focusing on early intervention without formal labeling.

Teacher Autonomy: High degree of professional freedom given to Finnish teachers to choose teaching methods, materials, and assessment strategies based on their expertise.

Teacher Efficacy: Belief in one's ability to effectively teach and positively impact student learning, strongly emphasized in Finnish teacher preparation and professional development.

Teacher Preparation: Highly selective, research-based master's level programs in Finland, emphasizing pedagogical skills, subject knowledge, and practical training for future educators.

Tracking: Practice of grouping students by ability or achievement, abolished in Finland to promote equity and avoid limiting future educational opportunities.

Transversal Competencies: Cross-curricular skills emphasized in Finnish education, including critical thinking, communication, global citizenship, and media literacy for future readiness.

Universities of Applied Sciences (UAS): Finnish institutions of higher education focusing on practical applications and close ties with working life, offering bachelor's and master's degrees.

Upper Secondary Education: Post-basic education in Finland, offering students a choice between general academic studies or vocational education and training.

Vocational Education: Career-oriented upper secondary option in Finland, providing practical skills and knowledge for specific professions while maintaining pathways to higher education.

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MEET THE EDITORS

Thor Gibbins is an Associate Professor at SUNY Oneonta and co-director of the Leatherstocking Writing Project. He is an associate editor for Educational Media International. His primary research interests are in digital and critical media literacies and how digital media may be employed by students and educators for inquiry into issues regarding social, ecological, and economic justice. He earned his doctorate at the University of Maryland, College Park. Before earning his doctorate, he was an adolescent literacy specialist and high school ELA teacher for the Los Angeles Conservation Corps, whose primary mission was to serve historically marginalized youth who have already dropped out of high school or were in the process of dropping out.

Ed Beck is an Instructional Designer at SUNY Oneonta. Some of his interests include the scaffolding of digital competencies across the curriculum, and the exploration, adoption, and creation of high quality open resources and tools. He is one of the co-founders of SUNY Create initiative that invites students to build a web presence using open source tools. He is co-editor of Chronicling a Crisis: SUNY Oneonta's Pandemic Diaries. Past awards include the SUNY Faculty Advisory Council on Teaching and Technology Award for Excellence in Instructional Support and the Wells College President's Award for Excellence.

Kjersti VanSlyke-Briggs is a Professor at SUNY Oneonta and is the chair of the Secondary Education and Educational Technology Department. She is a Past President of the New York State English Council and is a past editor of The English Record. Her primary research interests are in the intersection of literacy and social media as well as young adult literature. She is the co-editor of Dress Rehearsals for Gun Violence and A Relentless Threat – both collections examine school shootings in the United States. She was awarded her doctorate at Binghamton University. Her honors and awards include the Chancellor's Award for Teaching.

MEET THE AUTHORS

Ann Fradkin-Hayslip is an associate professor within the Elementary Education & Reading Department at the State University of New York at Oneonta. She has spent nearly 30 years as a teacher in grades pre-kindergarten through sixth grade, in urban, rural, and suburban settings. Dr. Fradkin-Hayslip holds a doctoral degree in educational leadership from the University of Florida and a bachelor's degree in juvenile justice from Hampshire College. Her research interests focus on teacher autonomy and equity in education and has led trips to Finland to observe classrooms that embody these qualities.

Loren Jones is Associate Clinical Professor and TESOL Certification Programs Coordinator in the Department of Teaching and Learning, Policy and Leadership in the College of Education at the University of Maryland, College Park. Her 2023 co-authored book titled Teaching young multilingual learners: Key issues and new insights, outlines culturally sustaining teaching practices that are critical for working with multilingual learners. Some of her other recent work has been published in TESOL Journal, The Teacher Educator, and Computers & Education.

Shannon M. Kane is an Assistant Clinical Professor in Teaching Learning, Policy, and Leadership at The University of Maryland, where her work focuses on literacy and teacher preparation/development. She began her career in international

development, focusing on women and education, before joining the DC Teaching Fellows inaugural cohort. Dr. Kane has worked as a teacher in traditional public and public charter schools in Washington, DC. She has also worked as an instructional coach, curriculum writer, professional developer/consultant, school leader, teacher-researcher, and adjunct professor. Dr. Kane holds a doctorate in Reading, Writing & Literacy from the University of Pennsylvania and Master's degrees in International Development and Elementary Education/TESOL. Her research interests include K-12 literacy instruction, including critical literacy; the development of elementary teachers as literacy practitioners; the influence of identity on literacy practices; classroom discourse and literacy development; and technology & literacy pedagogy/development.

Maria Cristina Montoya has been teaching at SUNY Oneonta for the last 24 years, she has a Ph.D in Linguistics from the State University of New York at Albany. As a native-born Colombian and later an immigrant child in the United States, she experienced two different programs for English Language Learners (ELLs), first a bilingual "pull out" program, and later an ESL full immersion approach. These personal experiences were her introduction into the field of teaching English as a second/new language and multiculturalism in the classroom. In addition to her own experience as an ELL and her professional practice, she is raising two children who are growing up bilingual and although not considered ELL at their school, they are heritage Spanish speakers with different experiences and needs. From different angles, Dr. Montoya is knowledgeable in the field of languages and specifically of the English language learners' population.

Sarah Morris is a former high school English teacher and currently serves as Coordinator for Undergraduate Writing at West Virginia University. Morris's current research focuses on composition pedagogy, Appalachian identity, and place-belonging. These research interests translate directly into classroom practice in her work with undergraduate writers, in teacher training in her role as program coordinator, and in her service work as co-director of the National Writing Project at West Virginia University (NWP@WVU).

Maggie Peterson is Associate Clinical Faculty at the University of Maryland and the Executive Director of the Maryland Initiative for Literacy and Equity, a joint project between the University of Maryland and Morgan State University in Baltimore. Her research is focused on teacher education and K-12 writing instruction in the teacher education space. She has conducted professional development for K-12 teachers, and taught preservice teachers for the past 10 years, centering literacy, writing and discussion as modes of learning.

Elyssa Stoddard is an Assistant Professor of Mathematics Education in the Department of Secondary Education and Educational Technology at SUNY Oneonta. Her scholarly interests include initial and on-going teacher education, teachers' conceptions of doing, learning, and teaching mathematics, and mathematical practices. These interests are informed by her work with future and current teachers and her own experiences as a high school math teacher.

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ILLUSTRATIONS AND ARTWORK

Natalie Frank created the original illustrations of educators and theorists appearing throughout the book as a senior intern in the Faculty Center for Teaching, Learning, and Scholarship. She graduated from SUNY Oneonta in 2024 with a BFA in graphic design. Natalie currently works at Upstate Ink & Thread, a custom design company in Central New York.

Olivia MacGiffert is a junior graphic and web design major at SUNY Oneonta. She is hoping to work in the design world

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