

**SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION**  
**EDUC 790/628/PUBPOL 628**  
**Fall 2011**

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**CTools site** | EDUC 628 001 F11

**Class meetings:** Tuesdays 4:00 – 7:00 p.m. , Whitney Auditorium

**Office hours:** By appointment.

**Class email list:** [educ790@ctools.umich.edu](mailto:educ790@ctools.umich.edu)

*Communications:* We will use email extensively to communicate with you; we encourage you to do the same with us, and with others in the class. Please check your email regularly.

*Format conventions:* To make the management of class files easier and more reliable, please title class documents with a consistent label, i.e.: <**paperdraft1\_lastname.docx**> or <**assign1\_lastname.docx**>. Please use Arial 12-point font and adhere carefully to word limits. Double-spacing is not necessary. Please use standard practices for citation and attribution—either the American Psychological Association (APA) guidelines or the standard or modified Chicago Manual of Style conventions.

*Ethics:* All work must be your own and done specifically for this course. Be sure to provide citations and attribution for any work of others included in your written work. University policy is very clear on the issue of plagiarism. For specific information about this issue please see <http://www.lib.umich.edu/academic-integrity/preventing-cheating-and-plagiarism>

### **Course Focus and Learning Goals (Content and Practices)**

#### **Relations of Democracy and Education**

The design of this course is premised on the view that the structure of democratic government in the U.S. is the central social foundation of schooling in this country. That structure has not only defined the political form of public education but also interacted with other social, intellectual, economic, and political influences. The result gives a distinctive shape to public education and it has played a key role in creating the problems that educators, policymakers, students, and citizens now face. The relations between democracy and education are key to understanding educational problems, policies, and practices in the U.S. Understanding the historical, social, political, and cultural roots and relationships between government and schooling is fundamental to the study and improvement of education practice, and hence, an important domain of inquiry for doctoral students at the beginning of their preparation.

These relations vary in different systems. Although we focus here on the U.S., our investigations and analyses can inform disciplined inquiry into other countries' educational systems.

We sketch four accounts of the relations between democracy and education below. One of our key goals in the course is to understand these four accounts, to weigh the strength of the arguments and supporting evidence for each, to understand the relationships among them, and to scrutinize their relative strengths and weaknesses as accounts of schooling in the United States.

**1. How education could help democracy:** When Americans think about education and democracy, they usually focus on the power of public education to shape politics by improving citizens' political intelligence. Several of the Founding Fathers, working in the 1780s and 1790s, understood the importance of citizens' intelligence to the nation's success, and some proposed to establish schools of one sort or another. More urgent efforts to use schools to promote popular intelligence began in the 1830s and 1840s. The republic was becoming more of a democracy, as the property qualification for voting was dropped and the franchise extended to all men who were free, white, and 21. Once all sorts of men could vote, including many who were not people of "substance," educators, politicians, and intellectuals felt with more force that popular intelligence was essential to democracy. Many, including Horace Mann, saw schools as the solution. Schools would protect democracy against the damage citizens would do if left to their own devices, and they would reduce growing inequality in political influence due to rising economic inequality. Schools would protect against tyrants who preyed on popular ignorance to gain unchecked power, demagogues who used popular gullibility to gain office, and corrupt politicians who deceived uncritical voters and then fleeced them. By cultivating the habits of mind and heart that would make democracy work—*independent judgment to inform intelligent political participation, knowledge of U.S. history to inform citizens about American values and experience, and respect for others to enable civil discourse, tolerance, majorities' respect for minorities, and vice-versa*—schools could save American democracy from the threat posed by uneducated citizens.

These ideas about the schools' saving power were pressed into service to justify state support of schooling on many subsequent occasions, including post Civil War Reconstruction, in the wake of late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century European immigration, Southern black migration north after WWs I and II, and in the Brown decisions. In these cases and others, public education was portrayed as an agency that could make Americans safe for their democracy.

This is the most familiar account of the relationship between democracy and education, one that Horace Mann, John Dewey, and many other thinkers have set out. Is it true? Has public education improved American politics, built political community, and insured tolerance and civil discourse? We will try to answer these questions, but part of the answer might be found in several other accounts of the relations between democracy and education. We will consider several of these. A second account, closely related to the first, concerns the ways in which public education helped to establish democracy itself.

**2. How public education helped to build democracy:** Some researchers argue that one distinctive feature of U.S. politics has been a long tradition of broad political participation by ordinary Americans, and the absence of any sustained radical left-wing movement, let alone a socialist or social democratic political party. Instead there has been popular devotion to America as the land of opportunity in which there are rewards for individual effort, and relatively weak collective economic and social endeavors like a labor movement or communal identity. Historians and social researchers have remarked on these unique patterns for decades, and tried to explain them. One explanation is that mass enrollment in public elementary schools in the 19<sup>th</sup> century offered Americans opportunities to become literate, to acquire the skills and knowledge for economic advancement and political participation. On this account public education mobilized political loyalty and participation, and helped to make the (white) U.S. a distinctively unified society and body politic, untroubled by the deep class-based political divisions that were the central dynamic of political division and electoral politics in western Europe. (This account is rather different from several historians' arguments that the spread of public schools expressed educators' effort to enhance their influence by building bureaucracies and capturing enrollment, or that schools were a scheme by economic and political elites to brainwash future citizens into political docility and economic utility, teaching them rudimentary skills, obedience, and loyalty.)

On this view, public education had very consequential political effects, enabling stable democratic politics and the sense that the U.S. offered extraordinary opportunity to ordinary people.

A third account expresses a similar view of the schools' role in U.S. history, but its content is quite different; it concerns how democracy contributed to the establishment of public education and the growth of the U.S. economy.

**3. How democracy helped to build public education and the economy:** On this account, schools were built in response to popular demand. In the last half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Americans saw that literacy and other skills could be economically useful for their children—they could help them to get better jobs and have better lives. Precisely because schooling was organized locally and democratically, these citizens could press local school systems to expand elementary education and enable more children to attend. That seems ironic, for the 19<sup>th</sup> century U.S. was huge, spread across many isolated agricultural communities that were weakly connected by weak transportation and communication infrastructure. Yet precisely because schooling in the U.S. was politically decentralized, tens of thousands of local educational authorities could respond to local democratic pressure, and build more schools, hire more teachers, and enable more children to be educated. European nations were much smaller, more connected internally, and less isolated, yet mass enrollment in primary schooling developed much later, in part because they were politically much more centralized, politically ponderous, and thus responded to demand more slowly.

By the last decade of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, nearly all U.S. children who were eligible by age to attend elementary school did attend. Roughly the same pattern can be observed with the spread of secondary schools in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century; local political pressure tied to perceptions of the economic returns to schooling drove the remarkably rapid spread of high schools across the nation between 1900 and 1960.

These developments meant that the U.S. had the most highly educated labor force in the world by the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and that gave the economy a great advantage over competitors elsewhere. As a result, the economy was more productive and Americans were more prosperous. The spread of secondary education enabled America to maintain that educational and economic advantage through the 1960s. The organization of schooling that was rooted in local political democracy made it possible to rapidly translate popular demand for education into easily accessible schooling, better-educated workers, more prosperity, and more support for education.

A final and very different, account returns to the most popular and appealing ideas about democracy and education, namely that more of the latter could improve the former.

**4. How democracy affected education:** If it is easy to find advocates for the schools' saving influence on democratic politics, it is difficult to find Americans who considered a logically prior question: if citizens were so rude, ignorant, and prejudiced as to require schools to protect democracy against them, why would they know or care enough to govern and support schools so that they would cultivate the democratic virtues of generosity, tolerance, and intelligence? By the end of Andrew Jackson's presidency, as public school systems were being invented, America had many rudiments of popular democracy. A more diverse electorate chose presidents and senators, governors and mayors, representatives, city councilmen, and school committees. But would Americans have the judgment and the will to govern and support schools that would protect democracy against ignorance and prejudice? Could democratically governed schools protect liberty and improve political judgment, if many of the voters who governed those schools were the problem that democracy needed to be protected against?

This leads us—while considering the beneficial effects that education might have on democracy—to investigate the effects that U.S. democracy has had on public education. We probe the effects of democratic governance on:

- the quality of teaching;
- the content of academic work;
- the allocation of educational resources; and
- political and historical knowledge, the ability to think critically, and political values.

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In addition to our specific substantive goals, the course is designed to help you cultivate practices and stances important for disciplined scholarly and professional work. These include how you think, analyze, argue, and write, how you keep track of your ideas as well as others' and ours, and how you use texts, discussions, interactions, people, and experiences, to help yourself develop. This course is designed to focus explicitly on methods and forms of thought and expression—particularly methods of interpretation, analysis, and argument, as well as approaches to reading and forms of writing—that are fundamental to good scholarship as well as skillful practice.

The nature of the course work will involve interpreting and analyzing texts, observations, experiences, and other materials; framing and revising questions; making conjectures; and testing alternative assertions. All this involves taking new intellectual risks, and developing a culture in which that is valued, encouraged, and supported is part of our collective work. Further, each of you comes to this class with different experiences, interests, perspectives, and expertise. The opportunity to have your ideas questioned and challenged is crucial to doing good work. Who we are and what we bring to the class can be resources for the course, if we learn to make use of them, and of one another.

The course itself is also a case of teaching and learning which can become one more resource for our inquiry. Collectively, we can examine and analyze what each of us—as teachers and students—does as we construct the curriculum, discourse, relations, and culture of the class. Doing that requires attention to practices of teaching and learning, and making that attention part of the course work.

## Reading

We will read a wide variety of texts, including empirical and conceptual work about democracy and education; historical artifacts; articles in the public media; and reports of commissions and panels. The work of the class will depend on reading interactively, on bringing both collective and individual goals to reading, considering, and reconsidering texts. In its most straightforward expression, this involves bringing questions to consider while preparing to read something, reading a text, and reflexively placing what one has read in the context of both evolving scholarship on a subject and one's own development as a scholar.

The following questions offer a framework for reading generously and critically:

- *What is the author trying to say?*  
What are the principal and subsidiary arguments or theses? What are the important conceptual terms? What does the author seem to assume? What sorts of evidence and methods are used? Can you identify specific passages that support your interpretation? Are there other passages that either contradict or appear less consistent with your understanding? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the author's argument? Can you make sense of, or account for, these differences?
- *How has the author constructed the text?*  
What is the logic of the text's structure? What clues can you get from the text's structure? Does the organization give you insights into the argument? Are there patterns in the author's presentation that help you to locate and understand the most valuable material? What can you do to concentrate your attention to and interrogation of the text? How does the author treat the words and concepts central to the work?
- *What is the author's purpose?*  
Why was this work written? To whom was the author speaking and why? What can you know or infer about the author's motivation?

- *What is the relationship between the author's assumptions and ideas and your own understanding?*  
How might your response to the work be affected by your values, beliefs, and commitments? Can you read and make sense of the work on its own terms? How does the author's treatment of a particular concept or word interact with yours?
- *How do the author's arguments fit within various communities of discourse?*  
How is a piece of work connected to the efforts of others dedicated to similar purposes? In what community or communities does the author locate him or herself?

## **Discussion**

Creating thoughtful arguments requires making conjectures and offering justification for them. Sometimes justification comes from the texts—specific references to an argument that an author has made well. At other times, justification is based on the logical analysis of a term or set of ideas. And sometimes arguments are more empirically-based, grounded in data.

Because the course will be run as a seminar, your participation in discussions is important not only for your own learning but also for others. What you learn in this course will be influenced by the nature of everyone's engagement in and contribution to the discussions. Preparing the readings and coming to class with questions, insights, and issues is crucial to making the course work; we rely on everyone's contributions and participation. Building the culture of the class so that genuine inquiry is possible will take all of our efforts to make the seminar a context in which people communicate and are listened to, in which evidence matters, in which thoughtful questioning of one another's claims is desirable, and in which alternative perspectives and interpretations are valued. Because we will investigate a complex topic, we will need to try out ideas that are only partially developed. Doing so is an important part of developing the capacity to think in disciplined way. How we listen to one another, assist with the formulation of an interpretation, question, and challenge will affect the quality of what we can do together. How we listen to others' reactions to our ideas, accommodate critique and questions, change our minds and revise at some times, and reinforce our analyses at others—all of these things will affect the intellectual culture of the class.

We therefore will need to work attentively on norms for the class. Listening carefully, treating ideas with respect and interest, raising and responding to questions, sharing the floor—all these will matter in constructing an environment where satisfying and challenging intellectual work can take place. One part of exploring an idea or an argument is to attend closely to it to understand its logic, intention, meaning. Listening generously, assuming that ideas and claims are made for good reasons, is crucial to thinking well. Another part is to be skeptical, to consider what is missing or logically flawed. Using both—generosity and skepticism—contributes to careful unpacking of ideas and to good thinking.

## **Making records**

The kinds of work we are doing this term will involve you in analytic experiments, conceptual exploration, and investigations of words, ideas, and arguments. These can be seen as a kind of intellectual “field work.” As such, we would like you to experiment with ways to keep a “field notebook” of your investigations. This notebook will be a site for you to make records of our class discussions, of your reading and thinking outside of class, alone and with others. We suggest that you do this on your computer with dated or categorical indexing. You might experiment with the notebook layout format in Word or in some similar format in another word processor. The important element is to make explicit for your ongoing scrutiny your ideas and reasoning that would otherwise be elusive. We will talk together about ways to make useful records, and ways to use them productively. Considering how such records are indexed and created is not a minor point, and we urge you to talk with others about how to make usable records—including links

among readings, class discussions, and individual or other out of class work. We will also take this up from time to time explicitly in class. We will from time to time ask you to experiment with or reflect on something in your field notebook and to upload it to your dropbox in CTools. We will also sometimes use specific records you have made as resources for collective work in class.

We will also make records together in class. So much whizzes by in class discussions; reading often precipitates an overflow of thoughts and ideas not yet processed. In discussion we sometimes lose track of important points, or develop only one aspect of an idea. Potential connections are lost because we forget an earlier point. To enable closer consideration of the “text” we produce as we work in class, we will make collective public records of our discussions, texts to which we can all refer, and that we can modify and extend as we continue to work.

## **Writing**

Writing is a fourth important vehicle for exploring and clarifying ideas, for trying out interpretations and arguments, and for representing ideas and communicating with others. Along with reading and discussing, it is a core practice that we want to help you develop. Writing plays a central role in graduate work, and in educational scholarship and practice. It is an important part of learning to participate in a community of educational scholars and practitioners who have a specialized discourse. The course will provide occasions to focus on and develop these new aspects of your writing, and the writing assignments, both the major ones as well as smaller explorations, are structured to provide guidance and resources, as well as the opportunity for comments and suggestions.

## **Course Requirements**

### **1. Three short analytic papers**

You will write three papers for this course. Each will be short (2–5 pages with a precise word limit) and focused on a specific analytic problem or question. We will provide the exact assignment, including details about the question and the sort of work we are asking you to do. For two of the three papers (#2 and #3), we will provide you with comments and suggestions for improving the analysis, argument, and writing, and you will then revise and submit the paper again, along with your brief commentary on your revision. The two drafts together, with your commentary, will be evaluated for the quality of your analysis and writing. We will provide specific criteria for each paper to provide guidance for your work. For the other paper, you will write only one draft and we will provide feedback.

### **2. Class participation, involving discussions and brief written responses/experiments**

As indicated above, the course is designed to help you develop your skills of analysis, as reading, discussing, making records, and writing. Throughout the term, we will ask you to engage in specific activities, experiments, and investigations in class, and your engagement in these will provide regular opportunities for us to observe and to offer you comments on the work you are doing in class. (The pre-course reading and writing assignment is one such example, although more extended and involved than most will be.) We expect you to attend class every week, to be prepared for class, and to engage actively by listening and responding to others, participating in discussion and group work, and by experimenting with writing and other tasks during class.

## Grading and Evaluation

Your grade for this course will be based on the following distribution:

ASSIGNMENT	PERCENTAGE	DUE DATES
Short paper #1	10%	Sun. Sept. 11
Short paper #2 (two submissions: first draft and revision)	20%	Fri. Oct. 21 Mon. Nov. 7
Short paper #3 (two submissions: first draft and revision)	30%	Mon. Nov. 28 Mon. Dec. 12
Class participation, involving discussions and brief written responses/experiments	30%	ongoing
Bonus	Add 10% to one paper of your choice	

Because the course is designed to support your learning and your efforts to develop your skills, knowledge, and habits of mind, we will assign final grades taking into account your trajectory across the term. Specifically, improvement across the term will result in upward adjustment of your grade, especially if it is on the boundary between two letter grades.

A few comments about evaluation in graduate work: We want your experience in this course to contribute to your growing capacity to do excellent work. To support that, we are asking you to write frequently, and often will ask you to revise. We will comment on your writing, offer examples of good writing, and help you with rewriting. Grades are intended to give you a sense of the quality of a particular piece of work: roughly speaking, a “B” means that you have done a decent job with the writing, the ideas, and the organization of the work. A “C” conveys that the work lacks some important qualities and has some problems, while an “A” means that the work is exemplary in some key ways: the writing is particularly clear, the ideas thoroughly treated, the organization of the presentation well considered and effective, the approach unusually imaginative.

You can use your work in this course, with one another and with us, to help you to improve your sense of what good work consists of, and how to produce it. This includes writing good sentences and paragraphs, using words carefully, treating ideas with discipline and respect. We will strive to make these standards as concrete as possible, and to make visible strategies for achieving them. As you develop your sensibilities, you will be able to do more and more as your own critic and editor.

One obvious reason to take writing seriously is that your career as a graduate student depends on it. Whether you are a master’s student or a doctoral student, you will not be able to earn your degree unless you can write good papers, exams, and theses. We think of writing as a tool in learning and teaching. Providing scaffolding for your work, and direct and focused feedback on what you produce, are concrete ways to help you develop skills and sensibilities, and to be successful in the program.

A second, and perhaps even more important, reason to take your work seriously is that you intend to work as a professional in a field in which the overarching objective is helping students to learn, including learning to write. Moreover, improving the quality of the educational enterprise depends on communication among educators and with many publics. Good writing is unfortunately not something at which most professionals in public education have excelled. Current educational debate, like U.S. educational history and much teaching and writing in

schools of education, is littered with jargon-filled, clumsy, and obscure writing. Some of the problems are technical or literary: incorrect grammar, a passion for the passive voice, and needless words. Many other problems are intellectual: arguments that wander, implausible assumptions, paragraphs that do not cohere, and a failure to consider other views respectfully. Professionals who communicate in such ways are in no position to help students learn to write, to help teachers learn to teach them to write, or to communicate well with the publics on which public education depends.

Please bear in mind that our comments are directed towards particular things you have produced, not about you. Improving your work is a joint endeavor, composed of what we can offer you by way of help and feedback, and how you use our guidance and that of your classmates.

## COURSE OUTLINE

### Topics, Purposes and Foci, Texts and Guiding Questions, and Assignments Due

*Reading and writing assignments are listed with the class for which they are due.  
Complete bibliographical information for each reading is listed at the end of the syllabus.*

WEEK-BY-WEEK CLASS OUTLINE			
Date/Topic	Purposes and foci	Texts* and guiding questions	Assignments due
<b>Part 1: Introduction of the Issues Involved in Democracy and Education</b> <i>The first two classes will open up the main themes in the course, and offer an introduction to the ways in which we will work.</i>			
<b>CLASS #1</b> September 6  <b>Democracy and education: What do we mean by accountability? Democracy?</b>	(a) To open up several issues of democracy and education that will recur in the course, (b) to do so in terms of current policy and politics with which we are likely to be familiar, and (c) to begin to explore the meaning of accountability and political responsibility	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Guttman (1999). Preface.</li> <li>2. Klein, Rhee, et. al. (2010).</li> <li>3. Ravitch, R. (2010).</li> <li>4. Reckhow, S. (2010).</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b>                      (1) What are the strengths <u>and</u> weaknesses of political and test-based accountability for public education? Include consideration of their educational effects and where each places power for the management of schools.                      (2) Are the private foundations that are increasingly active in public education accountable? How might their role be defended? Criticized?</p>	Pre-course reading (posted on CTools) Due Friday, Sept. 2, 1:00 p.m.
<b>CLASS #2</b> September 13  <b>The aims of democratic education and the effects of democracy on education</b>	(a) To clarify ideas about the expected effects of education on American democracy, (b) to explore the tension between those expected effects on the one hand, and the reported effects of democracy on education on the other, and (c) to make hypotheses, to be tested as the course unfolds, that might explain the tension.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Lynd &amp; Lynd (1929)</li> <li>2. Mann, H. (1848)</li> <li>3. Mechanics' Free Press (1828)</li> <li>4. Rice (1893)</li> <li>5. Shaw (1849)</li> <li>6. Sumner (1849)</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b>                      (1) What arguments did advocates make concerning the effects that public education would have on America?                      (2) What effects did democracy have on the organization, management, and goals of public schools, as these things were represented in the selections from Rice and the Lynds? On teaching and learning?                      (3) What hypotheses might we frame to explain the differences between the expected effects of education on democracy and the reported effects of democracy on education? How might we confirm or disconfirm these hypotheses?</p>	Short paper #1 Due Sunday evening, Sept. 11

<b>Part 2: The Effects of Democracy on Public Education</b> <i>The next five classes will explore several ways in which U.S. democracy shaped public education, and the ways in which public education shaped U.S. democracy.</i>			
<b>CLASS #3</b> September 20  <b>What public schools did for U.S. democracy</b>	(a) To explore the effects that public education may have had on U.S. politics and political development, and (b) to explore the ways in which American exceptionalism shaped politics, social policy, and schooling.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Katznelson &amp; Weir (1985)</li> <li>2. Lipset (1996)</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b>            (1) How do Katznelson and Weir see the strengths and limitations of democracy in the U.S.?            (2) On Lipset's account, what have been the most important forces in shaping U.S. politics and governance?</p>	
<b>CLASS #4</b> September 27  <b>What U.S. democracy did for public schools</b>	To explore the effects that American democratic politics may have had on (a) the spread of universal education and (b) economic development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Goldin and Katz, chapters 5,6,7.</li> <li>2. Mann (1848); pp. 53-75.</li> <li>3. Powell, Farrar, and Cohen, chapter 5, pp. 233-73.</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b>            (1) What effects do Goldin and Katz argue that American politics had on public education? On economic development?             (2) What causal relationships do they identify, to account for those effects?             (3) Is their account consistent with the one presented in <i>Shopping Mall High School</i>? With what is argued in <i>School for All</i>?</p>	
<b>CLASS #5</b> October 4  <b>What U.S. democracy did for public schools (cont.)</b>	Continue working on comparative analyses from last week		
<b>CLASS #6</b> October 11  <b>The distribution of funds for public schools</b>	To explore how the structure of government, and relationships between government jurisdictions and local and state wealth and human capital, shape the distribution of funds.  To explore the possible meanings of the term "political democracy".  To deepen understanding of the structure and operation of U.S. government for education.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Biddle and Berliner (pp.1-6, 12-13, and15-16)</li> <li>2. Corcoran, et al., (all)</li> <li>3. Education Trust Funding Gap 2006 (pp. 1-12)</li> <li>4. Allocation: Traditional Resource Reallocation and Use. (all)</li> <li>5. 10-5a Table 11. Educational attainment of persons 18 years old and over, by state: 1990 to 1998 (all)</li> <li>6. 10-5b Table 20. Household income and poverty rates, by state: 1990 and 1997-98 (all)</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b>            (1) How has U.S. government shaped the allocation of funds for public schools?            a. How has the federal system of government influenced the distribution of funds among states?             b. How has local control of schools influenced the distribution of funds among districts within states, and among schools within districts?</p>	

		<p>(2) What explains the patterns in allocation of funds?</p> <p>(3) In what sense has the allocation of funds been democratic? Are there senses in which it has not been democratic?</p> <p>(4) Do your answers to the questions above supplement the accounts of Katznelson and Weir? Goldin &amp; Katz? Do they contradict them? Or are they just different?</p>	
October 18	NO CLASS: FALL STUDY BREAK		
<b>CLASS #7</b> October 25  <b>Teaching quality</b>	To explore how educational quality, and especially the quality of teaching, have been dealt with in the governance of U.S. schools, and what effects these governance arrangements have had on conceptions of quality and the cultivation of knowledge for practice.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, &amp; Wyckoff (2003) pp. 1-14.</li> <li>2. Cohen (2010) pp. 375-86.</li> <li>3. Ingersoll (1999) pp 26-7 and 33-35.</li> <li>4. Lortie, <u>Schoolteacher</u> Chapter 1 (all), and Chapter 3, pp. 57-81.</li> <li>5. Lynd &amp; Lynd (1929) Review</li> <li>6. Rice (1893) Review</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b></p> <p>(1) How did local control and weak government shape the occupation of teaching, including teachers' organizations?</p> <p>(2) How did these conditions influence the ways in which teaching quality has been operationally defined and understood?</p> <p>(3) What challenges do these conditions pose to current efforts to improve teaching quality?</p>	Paper #2 due on Friday, October 21
<b>CLASS #8</b> November 1  <b>Race, class, and schools</b>	To (1) consolidate evidence from previous classes on the nature and extent of inequality, and (2) to dig more deeply into its nature and educational effects.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Brown et al v. Board of Education of Topeka et.al.</li> <li>2. Jean Anyon "Social Class And School Knowledge" <u>Curriculum Inquiry</u> (1981)</li> <li>3. Rouse &amp; Barrow (2006), U.S. Elementary and Secondary Schools: Equalizing Opportunity or Replicating The Status Quo? pp. 99-117, <u>The Future Of Children</u>, vol. 16, no 2, Fall 2006.</li> <li>4. Katznelson and Weir, <u>Schooling For All</u>, chapter 7, pp. 179-206.</li> <li>5. Massey and Denton, <u>Apartheid</u>, chapters 2 and 3, pp. 17-82</li> </ol> <p><b>Questions:</b></p> <p>(1) How has democratic governance been involved with segregation by class and race? With the allocation of educational opportunity?</p> <p>(2) How do class differences affect instruction? What explains these effects?</p>	Revision of paper #2 due on Monday, November 7

<b>Part 3: Democracy and Pedagogy</b> <i>These two classes will take up (1) arguments about the sorts of teaching and learning that many reformers and educators thought were important for democracy, (2) the sorts of pedagogy that typically were found in U.S. schools, and (3) explanations for the differences between these two things.</i>			
<b>CLASS #9</b> November 8  <b>Democratic pedagogy</b>	a) To explore Americans' disputes about the sorts of teaching that are most appropriate for democracy.  b) To explore how reformers saw the desirable relationship between schools and society.	1. Report of the Grammar School Visiting Committee City of Boston (1845), pp. 5-19 and pp. 23-51  2. Dewey, <i>School and Society</i> (1900)  <b>Questions:</b> <i>For the Report of the Grammar School Visiting Committee</i> (1) Who were the people who did the study and wrote the report? (2) What dismayed them about instruction in many of the Boston Grammar Schools? (3) Why might they have seen instruction as important enough prompt their raid on the schools? What remedies did they propose? <i>For School and Society:</i> (1) What was the problem to which John Dewey saw the Lab School as an example of the solution? 1) (2) What were the key elements of the school's operation, and how did Dewey think they would work to solve the problem that worried him? (3) If Dewey were to join us in class, how would he explain and defend his idea that the school described in S&S was democratic (i. e., what were the school's chief democratic qualities, and why did he think them so important)? And finally (4) How did Dewey see the relationship between the sort of schooling that he sketched in S&S, and the larger society?	
<b>CLASS #10</b> November 15  <b>Has the schools' pedagogy been democratic?</b>	a) To articulate what comprised Dewey's ideas about a democratic pedagogy.  b) To analyze artifacts from inside of classrooms to probe what "democratic pedagogy" might mean.  c) To consider what democratic pedagogy might entail—what its dilemmas might be, and what might be involved in managing them.	Re-read Dewey, <i>School and Society</i> (1900)  <b>Questions:</b> 1) What problems was Dewey concerned about and how did he think they could be solved? What part did he think schools could play in solving the problems? 2) Many commentators and readers have difficulty figuring out what Dewey meant in his discussion of work and occupations. In discussing the loss of what he elsewhere referred to as a pre-industrial "organic" life, he wrote that the new order which was replacing it brought many advantages, and that nostalgic yearning was fruitless. "Yet there is a real problem: how shall we retain those advantages [of the new order], and yet introduce into the school something representing the other side of life -- occupations which exact personal responsibilities and which train the child with relation to the physical realities of life?" (S&S 24) He then discussed the many efforts to introduce "manual training" and household arts into the curriculum. He praised these developments, while at the same time referring to the justifications for them as "unnecessarily narrow". (S&S 25) 3) Given this seemingly ambivalent discussion, what did Dewey mean by "occupations", and what did he envision as a curriculum of occupations? What evidence in the text	

		<p>supports your answers?</p> <p>4) One common misreading of Dewey is to interpret him as advocating for a kind of vocational function of schooling — to provide training for jobs. However, this is not what Dewey was arguing for. Look for evidence that helps to show that this is not what he meant, and evidence that helps to unpack what he did mean.</p>	
<p><b>CLASS #11</b> November 22</p> <p><b>What is “democratic pedagogy”?</b></p>	<p>a) To practice developing and using charts as graphic organizers for analysis.</p> <p>b) To articulate what comprised Dewey’s ideas about a democratic pedagogy.</p> <p>c) To analyze artifacts from inside of classrooms to probe what “democratic pedagogy” might mean.</p> <p>d) To consider what democratic pedagogy might entail—what its dilemmas might be, and what might be involved in managing them.</p>	<p>1. Dewey, J. (1900). <i>School and Society</i>.</p> <p>2. Lampert, M. (2001). <i>Teaching problems and the problems of teaching</i>. (chapters 1, 10) New Haven: Yale University Press.</p> <p>3. Lee, C. (2001). Is October Brown Chinese? A cultural modeling activity system for underachieving students. <i>American Educational Research Journal</i>, 38, 97-141.</p> <p><b>Questions:</b></p> <p>1) In what sense(s) might the instruction that is represented in the videos be regarded as “democratic”? What might one mean by saying that teaching in these cases is or is not “democratic”? Are these senses in which it might be said to not be “democratic”? What might we identify as the purposes of such teaching and learning? What might we identify as the “content” – i.e., what seems to be taught? Learned? What might such instruction require if teachers and students are to perform competently?</p> <p>2) A second issue will be whether there are respects in which it is appropriate to consider such seemingly political matters inside of schools and classrooms? A third issue will be, given U.S. democracy and the school system, how instructional practice interacts with (i.e., is affected by and affects) social and economic inequality?</p>	
<p><b>Part 4: Changing Ideals About Democracy and Education in U.S. Schools</b> <i>These last three classes will explore how Americans’ ideas about the purposes of schooling have reflected shifts in ideals about the relations of democracy and education.</i></p>			
<p><b>Overview</b></p> <p>One thread in the course has concerned the central role that public schools were expected to play in U.S. democracy. Schools, it was believed, would equalize political intelligence and skill and thereby reduce the pernicious effects that economic inequality, poverty, and political ignorance were expected to have in democratic politics. Public education would be a sort of social and cognitive public health program, protecting democracy from the actual or potential weaknesses that society could be expected to visit on its citizens and their political institutions. Schools would shape society by shaping future citizens’ minds and values.</p> <p>A second thread in the course has been about the ways in which democratic politics and other aspects of U.S. society have shaped public education, and, by so doing, shaped future citizens. Though school outcomes are much less unequal with public education than they would be without it (recall our discussion of the difference between learning during summers and the academic years), economic and social inequality in the U.S. has had significant effects on public education, leading not only to very unequal distribution of funds, teaching quality, and other resources but also to unequal school outcomes. The schools that were thought to be the agency that would protect the U.S. from the actual or potential weaknesses that society could be expected to visit on its citizens and their political institutions, have been shaped by—and even contributed to—precisely those weaknesses.</p> <p>A third thread has focused on the ways in which the schools shaped and were shaped by U.S. society. We saw this in Robert and Helen Lynd’s account of how a small Midwestern city shaped public schools, using local democratic politics, to suit its purposes, which did not prominently include the cultivation either of intellectually ambitious instruction or equal access to such instruction. We also saw this in Katznelson and Weir’s account of how democratic schooling was built in the middle of the 19th century and then disassembled—in part by working-class citizens—into schools that offered quite unequal education. Still another element was Goldin and Katz’s analysis of how Americans used democratic politics to gain access to more schooling, and thereby to greater economic opportunity, a process that led to unprecedented prosperity and eventually to reduced economic opportunity and increased inequality. Although these accounts differ, each concerns how democratic control has worked in the context of the society and economy.</p>			

And a fourth thread has concerned the ways in which these social and educational influences have been manifest in classrooms, and they ways in which teachers deal with them. We saw that teaching has often accommodated differences among students by delivering content that seemed appropriate to students' current interests and capabilities and assumed trajectories. As we saw in Anyon and in the chapter we read from Powell, Farrar, & Cohen's Shopping Mall High School, such adaptation has often produced inequities in students' opportunities to learn. Yet in Lampert and Lee, we saw that such careful attunement of instruction and curriculum to students can also expand students' opportunities and their learning. Whether and how to adapt schools to the students who attend has been a recurrent dilemma in U.S. education and the vision of "schooling for all," and its consequences for inequality are complicated.

The last "chapter" that we will develop together in the next three classes will continue to deal with these threads, but from somewhat different perspectives. One central feature in this last section of the course will be the ways in which democratic politics itself, and the consequent remarkable openness of schools to public influence have (1) reshaped the discourse about the purposes of schooling to center on economic productivity and competitiveness; and (2) made possible new entrants in the school reform enterprise. A major question with which we will conclude the course is whether the democratic commitment to public governance and local control can support educational purposes of democratic citizenship, or whether the two are inherently at odds, at least in the past and now.

<p><b>CLASS #11</b> November 29</p> <p><b>Democratic citizens or productive workers?</b></p>	<p>(a) to examine the increasing emphasis on schooling and the economy, including the role that economic change can play in political democracy.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Goldin and Katz, The Race Between Education And Technology, Chapter 9.</li> <li>2. The National Commission on Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. A Report to the Nation and the Secretary of Education, April 1983. Read the introduction and sections titled "A Nation At Risk", "The Risk", "Indicators Of The Risk", "Hope And Frustration", and "Excellence In Education".</li> <li>3. United States Department of Education. (2010). A blueprint for reform: The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Read through p.8 Retrieved from <a href="http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/blueprint/blueprint.pdf">http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/blueprint/blueprint.pdf</a></li> <li>4. The Center For American Progress plan for the reauthorization of ESEA.<a href="http://www.americanprogress.org/issues/2011/06/pdf/a_way_forward.pdf">http://www.americanprogress.org/issues/2011/06/pdf/a_way_forward.pdf</a>. pp. 1-8.</li> <li>5. Zachary Goldfarb, "Obama Aide Melody Barnes....", Washington Post, <a href="http://www.washingtonpost.com/politics/obama-aide-melody-barnes-linking-education-and-economic-policy/2011/04/01/AFFFB9WC_story.html">http://www.washingtonpost.com/politics/obama-aide-melody-barnes-linking-education-and-economic-policy/2011/04/01/AFFFB9WC_story.html</a></li> <li>6. Review H. Mann, Twelfth Annual report, review pp. 54-90.</li> </ol>	<p>Paper #3 due on Monday, November 28</p>
<p><b>CLASS #13</b> December 6</p> <p><b>New opportunities for improved schools?</b></p>		<p><b>Questions:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) In what sense can each of these reform efforts be said to be democratic? What aspects of democracy are at issue?</li> <li>(2) What are the roles of government, corporations and foundations, and popular democracy in these reforms?</li> <li>(3) What is the relative importance of democracy and effectiveness as aims of public education?</li> </ol>	
<p><b>CLASS #14</b> December 13</p> <p><b>National reform and local democratic control</b></p>		<p><b>Questions:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Is the Common Core evidence of the strength and resilience of U.S. democracy, or of its weakness?</li> <li>2) What would be the role of local school districts in the Common Core?</li> <li>3) It is easy to see how a national-but-not-federal reform like the Common Core could be devised in the open U.S. political system. What are the reasons to suppose that it can bring lasting school improvement in that system? That it cannot?</li> </ol>	<p>Revision of paper #3 due by Monday, December 12</p>