

2

CURRICULUM HISTORY

The Perspective of the Past

It is history that establishes where we were, where we are, and how we got to where we are.

—Neil R. Fenske (1997, p. 4)

Understanding the history of curriculum development is useful for both scholars and practitioners. It results in a deeper awareness of the extent to which curricular changes are often influenced by and are a manifestation of larger social forces. It also offers a broader perspective from which to view innovations and reforms, which often reverberate with echoes of the past.

By understanding the past 100-plus years of curriculum history, today's leaders can focus on the major developments affecting American schools while still providing the essential broader perspective. Those developments perhaps can be better grasped if analyzed as parts of specific periods of history. Of course, historical periods are a construct. People do not live and events do not occur in neat chronological packages called "periods." At the same time, an analysis of the past century and a quarter of curriculum history seems to suggest that there were eight distinct eras, each with its own distinguishing features.

In 1990, Sarason underscored the importance of understanding the history:

The significance of the historical stance is not only in what it tells us about the manifestations of a particular problem over time, or what one learns about the efficacy of remedial actions, but also in what one learns about the system quality—that is, the features of the system in which the problem arises and recurs, or remains constant but unremarked until it is seen [again] as destabilizing the system. (p. 34)

QUESTIONS ADDRESSED IN THIS CHAPTER INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:

- What were the periods of Academic Scientism, Progressive Functionalism, Developmental Conformism, Scholarly Structuralism, Romantic Radicalism, Privatistic Conservatism, Technological Constructionism, Modern Conservatism, and Technological Functionalism, and why was each important in the development of curriculum?
- What were some of the predominant trends that transcended each major period of curriculum development?
- Who were some of the individuals who significantly influenced curriculum and/or the teaching and learning process?

KEY TO LEADERSHIP

In reviewing curriculum history, two general observations should be made. The first is to note the pace of change. The second is to note the rhythms and directions of that change.

ACADEMIC SCIENTISM (1890–1916)

The term used here to identify the period from 1890 to 1916, **Academic Scientism**, derives from the two influences that seemed to predominate: the academic and the scientific. The academic influence was the result of systematic and somewhat effective efforts of the colleges to shape the curriculum for basic education; the scientific influence resulted from the attempts of educational theorists to use newly developed scientific knowledge in making decisions about the mission of the school and the content of the curriculum.

CURRICULUM TIP 2.1

There is an undeviating relationship between curriculum of the past and curriculum today.

The Predominant Trends

As noted previously, the academic period was the result of educational theorists who wanted to use their newly developed scientific knowledge to make decisions about the mission of the school and the content of the curriculum, whereas the scientific perspective influenced educational theorists in three important ways. First, science provided intellectual support for a rational and melioristic worldview, a view widely held by the educational thinkers of the period. Problems could be solved by the rational application of scientific processes: All that was needed was more knowledge and the ability to apply that knowledge.

Second, science provided a content focus for the curriculum. Flexner (1916) was one of several theoreticians who argued for the primacy of science. In his view, the central purpose of the school was to prepare children to cope in the real world—and that preparation would best be accomplished through a study of the physical and social world. Finally, science provided a means for improving the schools. Scientific knowledge about the child yielded insights, proponents argued, about the desired nature of the curriculum—about what children could learn. Scientific knowledge also offered a rationale for the optimal methods of teaching that, even during this period, put an emphasis on teaching the whole child.

It was also during this era that the Carnegie Unit Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching was founded in 1905 and chartered by an act of Congress in 1906. The original purpose was to afford a standard of measurement for the work done in secondary schools and thereby facilitate transfer of credits between schools and colleges. It took the 4-year high school as a basis and assumed (1) that the length of the school year was from 36 to 40 weeks, (2) that a period was from 40 to 60 minutes long, and (3) that a subject was studied for 4 or 5 periods a week (Thompkins & Gaumnitz, 1954, p. 4).

Today, in most public high schools, course credits are still largely based on the 120-hour Carnegie Unit standard. In support of the Carnegie Unit, the Carnegie Foundation indicated that while the Carnegie Unit system is imperfect, it is among the best measures we currently have of student learning, and for now, it should stay. In the future, however, alternatives such as a competency-based evaluation system may be considered (Fain, 2015).

The Exemplary Leaders

The major thrusts of this period were probably best represented by the careers and contributions of G. Stanley Hall and Francis W. Parker.

G. Stanley Hall

G. Stanley Hall (1904/1969) was an eminent psychologist who provided scientific support to the child-centered educators of the day. While earlier developmentalists had argued for the study of the child as the basis for curricular decision making, it was Hall who provided the charismatic leadership for the movement. As a social Darwinian, he believed in evolutionary social change, not radical transformation. The essential task of the school was to support this gradual change through the nurturing of the gifted, providing the gifted child with the opportunity to grow through individualized activities.

Francis W. Parker

Francis W. Parker seems to have had even more influence than G. Stanley Hall; in fact, John Dewey (1964) himself called Parker “the father of progressive education.” Parker is significant for his contributions to both pedagogy and curriculum development. The pedagogical methods he advocated could perhaps best be described as natural, child-centered methods.

His contributions to **curriculum theory** were similarly comprehensive. In his *Talks on Pedagogics* (1894), he argued for a child-centered curriculum that builds on what the child instinctively knows. In contrast to Hall’s essentially conservative orientation, Parker was in almost every respect a progressive who believed that the common school was the key to human advancement. In a chapter in his pedagogic work, he anticipated at least the rhetoric of more current social **reformers**: “This mingling, fusing, and blending [of children from all social classes] give personal power, and make the public school a tremendous force for the upbuilding of democracy” (p. 421).

PROGRESSIVE FUNCTIONALISM (1917–1940)

The era of **Progressive Functionalism**, which lasted from approximately 1917 to 1940, was characterized by the confluence of two seemingly disparate views: the progressive, child-centered orientation of the followers of John Dewey and the functional orientation of curriculum scientists.

The Predominant Trends

As noted previously, the term given to this era derives from two forces—progressivism and functionalism—that, while seemingly antithetical in principle, often combined to influence both curriculum and instruction.

Progressivism in Education

It is obviously difficult in the brief space available to summarize a movement so complex and so often misunderstood as progressive education. Whereas in the prior decade the dominating influence of the curriculum was the academic subject, for progressive educators, it was the child. The child-centered curriculum was based on a somewhat romantic and perhaps even naive view of child development: The child is innately curious and creative, with a thirst for learning and a need for self-expression. Such a view has clear implications for both the process and the content of the curriculum. In using a curriculum development process, child-centered curriculum workers begin by determining the child’s interests, assured that any desired content can be linked with those interests.

The content of the curriculum is similarly influenced. The arts are emphasized because the nurturing of creativity is paramount. Subjects that have little immediate appeal to the child, such as mathematics and grammar, tend to be slighted.

Functionalism

Functionalism is the term given here to the educational theory of those whom Kliebard (1985) called “the social efficiency educators,” who argued essentially that the curriculum should be derived from an analysis of the important functions or activities of adult life. As a curriculum theory, it was clearly influenced by two significant ideas current at the time: It was avowedly influenced by the stimulus response learning theory of Edward Thorndike that supported the importance of successful practice, and it reflected the concern for efficiency at the heart of the *scientific management* of Frederick Taylor (1911) and his followers. Taylor argued that any task could be analyzed for optimal efficiency by observing skilled workers, studying the operations they carried out, determining the time required, and eliminating wasted motion. Similarly, education could be made more efficient by analyzing learning tasks.

The Exemplary Leaders

Two figures seem to stand out in retrospect: John Dewey and Franklin Bobbitt. Although they espoused diametrically contrary views of the curriculum in particular, they both seemed to exert a strong influence on their contemporaries.

John Dewey

In a sense, it is fallacious to identify Dewey as a leader of this period alone because his career as a philosopher and an educator spanned the eras of both Academic Scientism and Progressive Functionalism (Dewey, 1964).

Dewey’s (1900) beliefs about the relationship of school and society are, of course, fundamental to his theories of the curriculum and are best understood at the outset. For Dewey, democracy was the ideal society, and he believed that the society can prevail only as it enables diverse groups to form common interests, to interact freely, and to achieve a mutual adaptation. Dewey (1916) pointed out in his book *Democracy and Education* that such a society needed schools for more than the superficial reason of producing an educated electorate.

It was this concern for the social nature of schooling and learning that led Dewey to place so much emphasis on experience. Yet he did not advocate a mindless activity-centered curriculum in which any activity is considered worthwhile as long as it is perceived by the learners as interesting and relevant. In *Experience and Education*, Dewey (1938) noted that experience and education cannot be directly equated; some experiences are “mis-educative,” to use his term. Desirable learning experiences had to meet certain stringent criteria: They had to be democratic and humane, they had to be growth enhancing, they had to arouse curiosity and strengthen initiative, and they had to enable the individual to create meaning.

Franklin Bobbitt

Franklin Bobbitt was the other curriculum theorist who seemed to exert a profound influence on the schools of his time and who still seems to affect indirectly even those who are not familiar with his work. The curriculum, in his view, was whatever was needed to process the raw material (the child) into the finished product (the model adult). While both Dewey and Bobbitt espoused a social meliorist view of the purpose of schooling, they differed sharply in their conception of the curriculum. From Dewey’s (1902) perspective, the developing child was the beginning point for curriculum development; from Bobbitt’s, the model adult was the starting point. Furthermore, while Dewey embraced an experience-centered program in which learnings emerged somewhat organically and informally from social interactions, Bobbitt (1918) seemed more concerned with a precise scientific matching of activity with outcome.

DEVELOPMENTAL CONFORMISM (1941–1956)

The next period of educational history—the era of **Developmental Conformism** (1941–1956)—might be seen as a transition period, with the nation first embroiled in a cataclysmic war and then recovering from it to find a cold war on its hands.

The Predominant Trends

Two predominant trends shaped educational efforts in the era of developmental conformism: the interest in the developmental abilities and needs of youth and a concern with conformity as an educational goal.

The Developmental Theorists

It was, first of all, a period marked by rather intensive interest in the educational implications of child and adolescent development. As noted previously, Dewey had long been concerned with delineating and responding to the stages of growth in children and youth. Piaget's work was just becoming known by educators who perhaps sensed its importance but could not yet discern fully its implications. Yet it was the theories and research of Havighurst that, during this period, seemed to make the most immediate difference to educators. Havighurst (1972) conceptualized need as a “developmental task,” which he defined as the following:

A task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by society, and difficulty with later tasks. (p. 2)

The importance of these developmental tasks for curriculum can be seen at once by examining just a few of the tasks that Havighurst identified for childhood and adolescence. Consider these examples:

Early Childhood

- Getting ready to read
- Learning to distinguish right from wrong
- Learning sex differences and sexual modesty
- Learning to talk

Middle Childhood

- Learning physical skills necessary for games
- Learning to get along with age-mates
- Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role
- Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating

Adolescence

- Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively
- Preparing for marriage and family life

- Preparing for an economic career
- Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior
- Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence

Conformity as an Educational Goal

Implicit in the conceptualization and language of Havighurst's developmental tasks is a strong sense of conforming to the status quo. Consider, for example, such tasks as these: "learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role," "accepting one's physique and using the body effectively," "desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior," and "accepting and adjusting to the physiological changes of middle age." It is perhaps not unfair to say that such a strong emphasis on conformity was both a reflection of and a contribution to a prevailing educational view that held that one of the important responsibilities of the schools was to help children and youth conform to existing societal norms.

A second assumption was that the curriculum should emphasize functional outcomes—practical skills and knowledge that had immediate value for the student.

A concomitant assumption was that the disciplines themselves were not important as organizing bases for the curricula. Instead, schools were encouraged to develop "core curricula" that would minimize subject matter distinctions and integrate learnings around major themes and issues. As Oliver (1977) noted, the primary objective of the core curriculum is "to develop unified studies based upon the common needs of the learners and organized without restriction by subject matter" (p. 246). Here, for example, are some of the "centers of experience" that Van Til, Vars, and Lounsbury (1961) recommended for structuring a core program: making and keeping friends, coming to terms with my body, money—magic or madness, meet your new school.

The recurring theme throughout much of this literature is that this is a good society that simply must be maintained. Also, the attempt to make education more relevant too often produced curricula that trivialized learning and overemphasized the needs of the present. Finally, in too many cases, it provided a curricular excuse for tracking systems that imprisoned children from poor families in low-level programs that were banal and unimaginative and denied them the opportunity to pursue academic studies needed for success in college.

The Exemplary Leaders

Two curriculum theorists seem to have been important in this period: Ralph Tyler and Hollis Caswell. Although, like most exemplary leaders, their careers spanned several of the periods demarcated here, it seems most appropriate to examine their work within the framework of the period presently under discussion.

Ralph Tyler

Tyler first gained professional attention through his participation as research director of the "Eight-Year Study," sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, to evaluate and systematize the efforts of progressive schools to free their curricula from the domination of the colleges. The curriculum results of the study were summarized by Giles, McCutchen, and Zechiel (1942), who noted that curriculum development and evaluation involved attention to four basic issues: identifying objectives, selecting the means for attaining those objectives, organizing those means, and evaluating the outcomes. It seems apparent that their work influenced Tyler in his preparation of the syllabus for the graduate course he was offering at the University of Chicago. It is this syllabus for Education 305 (Tyler, 1950) that presents and explicates what has become known as the "Tyler rationale."

In the syllabus, Tyler noted that the first question that must be answered in developing any curriculum is “What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?” These educational objectives can first be identified by examining three sources: studies of the learners themselves, studies of contemporary life outside of school, and suggestions from subject specialists.

The second question is “How can learning experiences be selected that are likely to be useful in attaining these objectives?” Here, he argued for several general principles that should guide curriculum workers in selecting objectives.

The third question is “How can learning experiences be organized for effective instruction?” In making determinations about the organization of experiences, the curriculum developer should consider three criteria: continuity, sequence, and integration.

The final question is “How can the effectiveness of learning experiences be evaluated?” Valid and reliable curriculum-based tests should be developed and the results used to improve the curriculum.

Tyler’s publication has had a lasting impact on curriculum leaders. By 1985, more than 100,000 copies of the syllabus had been purchased. It made a significant contribution by systematizing in a sequential manner, and curriculum workers seemed to value its clearness, its comprehensiveness, and its simplicity.

Hollis Caswell

Caswell was one of the first to understand the importance of staff development as a necessary foundation for curriculum work. To that end, he developed excellent study materials and bibliographies, helping teachers perceive the larger issues of child development and curriculum ends and using those materials in educating the teachers of Florida and other states who were working with him in a comprehensive curriculum revision project.

Second, he put into practice on a major scale the widespread belief that teachers should be involved in curriculum development. In developing state curriculum for Virginia, he involved 10,000 Virginia teachers studying and discussing curricular issues.

Third, he developed a useful set of organizing structures that integrated the three determiners of curricula—child interests, social meaning, and subject matter. He began by reviewing what was known about child development to identify important child interests.

SCHOLARLY STRUCTURALISM (1957–1967)

Happening as it did during the height of the Cold War and the space race, **Scholarly Structuralism** placed particular emphasis on math and science as foundational to education.

The Predominant Trends

The period under consideration was an interesting one from an educational perspective. This was the first time in American educational history that academic scholars decided that they had a key role to play in the development of specific curricula. Largely supported by federal funds channeled through the National Science Foundation, those scholars produced numerous curricula for every major discipline in both elementary and secondary education.

The Exemplary Leaders

During this interesting time, two curriculum theorists seem to have made major impacts—Jerome Bruner and Joseph Schwab.

Jerome Bruner

Bruner (1960) set forth rather cogently in *The Process of Education* a comprehensive rationale for Scholarly Structuralism. First, school curricula must be primarily concerned with effecting and facilitating the transfer of learning. Because school time is limited, educators must find the most efficient means of using the limited time available.

Understanding broad principles was especially important in the latter part of the 20th century. Bruner argued that increased scientific knowledge was able to clarify those structures in a way that perhaps was not possible before. The explosion of knowledge made it impossible for the student to learn everything. Therefore, learning the structures of a discipline resulted in a kind of curricular parsimony.

Joseph Schwab

Schwab's (1969, 1971, 1973, 1978, 1983) writings on curriculum span a period of at least 20 years and have proved to be rather influential in the field of curriculum theory. Like Bruner, Schwab was early concerned with the structure of the disciplines, yet it seems fair to say that his writings on the matter demonstrate a complexity and sophistication missing from Bruner's work.

Rather than insisting that there is only one way of understanding the world, Schwab argues for a "permissive eclecticism," which enables the inquirer to use any valid approach to understand natural and human phenomena. He noted that few disciplines have a single structure and that the scientists in a field are too diverse in their preferences to be unanimous about one right mode of attack.

Schwab's later writings on curriculum seem much more concerned with process and much less concerned with the structure of the disciplines. The outcome, he hoped, would be incremental change, and the process would be an eclectic one, drawing from several bodies of knowledge and from several perspectives.

ROMANTIC RADICALISM (1968–1974)

The era of **Romantic Radicalism** (1968–1974) seemed to many observers to be a time of national fragmentation and upheaval, one in which the fabric of the society was stretched to its breaking point.

The Predominant Trends

This period was a time of experimentation in an attempt to develop child-centered schools and programs. The experimentation took three related but different forms: alternative schools, open classrooms, and elective programs.

Alternative Schools

The development of alternative schools was perhaps the most radical innovation in education during this time. Although these alternative schools ranged from completely unstructured "free schools" to mildly experimental schools that seemed different in only superficial ways, they did share certain characteristics (see Glatthorn, 1975, for a fuller account of the schools and their programs).

First, they were strongly teacher centered: Teachers often administered the schools without a principal, determining the curriculum and offering many of the support services provided by specialists in conventional schools. Second, alternative schools were, in a real sense, child centered: Curricula were shaped in response to the needs and interests of the children, and learning activities were selected primarily on the basis of their appeal to the children and parents. The most radical schools simply ignored the whole

issue of evaluation; teachers in the more conventional alternative schools wrote analytical reports, sometimes basing their evaluations on students' self-assessments. Finally, of course, students and their parents chose alternative schools rather than being assigned to them.

Open Classrooms

The open classroom was perhaps an attempt on the part of the educational establishment to respond to the mood of the times. Largely influenced by developments in the best British primary schools, the open classroom movement in the United States was, to a great extent, a revitalization of a moribund progressivism. Although the term *open classroom* was often simply an ill-defined slogan, there were certain important characteristics. There was, first of all, an emphasis on a rich learning environment. Teachers in the open classroom typically began by provisioning the classroom with stimulating learning materials and activities—centers of interest that would immediately appeal to the child and, at the same time, help the child learn. Children were free to move from center to center, to work together, and to engage each other in discussion. Thus, there was little concern for order in the conventional sense of the term: The best discipline was the self-discipline that came from learning on one's own.

Elective Programs

The elective programs were perhaps an attempt on the part of secondary schools to capture the vitality and excitement of the open classroom, which, to a great extent, had been limited to the primary grades. The basic concept of the elective program was a relatively simple one: Instead of a student taking a general “10th-grade English” course, the student should be able to choose from a variety of short-term courses, such as *Women in Literature*, *The Romance of Sports*, and *War and Peace*. In this sense, of course, such electives are different in organizational function from a subject such as music, which students elect to study or not to study.

The Exemplary Leaders

It is symbolic that the two figures selected as representing this exciting period of innovation and experimentation were not educators in the conventional sense of that term. Carl Rogers was a psychologist, and John Holt was perhaps a professional gadfly.

Carl Rogers

Rogers was a psychologist whose name came to be used to identify a school of counseling psychology: A Rogerian counselor is one who attempts to enter into the client's world, adopt the client's frame of reference, and listen empathically without advising.

Although Rogers (1969) worked with several college and school faculties that were interested in a Rogerian approach to organizational revitalization, his chief contribution seems to have been his ability to articulate clearly and practice effectively what open educators and free-school advocates could only haltingly express and imperfectly implement.

John Holt

If Rogers was a counselor who did not believe in advising, then Holt might be characterized as a teacher who did not believe in teaching. In a sense, he is selected here as a representative figure of an influential group that included such other disenchanting teachers as Jonathan Kozol, James Herndon, and Herbert Kohl.

While it might seem surprising to identify a radical teacher as a major curriculum figure, Holt was selected because he and his associates represent a period of time when curriculum making itself was called into question. In Holt's (1964) view, the teacher *was* the curriculum. From his perspective, the schools did not need scope-and-sequence charts, clearly articulated objectives, or specified learning activities; the schools needed, instead, exciting and imaginative teachers who could provision a stimulating learning environment and involve learners in meaningful learning experiences.

PRIVATISTIC CONSERVATISM (1975–1989)

The period of **Privatistic Conservatism** is generally recognized as the time when a strong conservative philosophy permeated the national consciousness. This period was also a time when the “information age” fully arrived, with an emphasis on key factors for effective schools.

The Predominant Trends

This period seems to have been a time when a conservative view of both society and its schools held sway. Those espousing such a conservative educational view essentially argued that the chief function of the school was to transmit the culture and to prepare students for their roles in a technological society. In accomplishing such a mission, the curriculum would emphasize the scholarly disciplines, characterized by intellectual rigor and closely monitored for its effectiveness. Emanating from this broadly conservative view of the school and its curriculum were several specific trends.

School Effectiveness and School Reform

The first significant development was a broad-based research effort to identify the key elements in effective schools, with a concomitant attempt to translate those elements into a plan for reforming the schools. Following some groundbreaking research, one of the most useful reviews was performed by Purkey and Smith (1983), who, after reviewing, critiquing, and synthesizing all of the research, were able to identify the key factors shown in Figure 2.1.

A More Rigorous Curriculum

Central to this reform effort was an emphasis on curriculum rigor. In general, this slogan functioned mostly as a rallying cry for those who believed that a more academically challenging curriculum would best serve the needs of American youth. The most common expressions of this concern for curricular rigor were state laws and district policies mandating additional graduation requirements.

The Critical Thinking Movement

This concern for a new rigor in the curriculum also took the form of widespread interest in teaching critical thinking. Most of those in the forefront of the movement argued for the importance of critical thinking by stressing the need for more logical analysis in a technologically oriented information age. Typical of these arguments was the conclusion reached by the Education Commission of the States (1982). After analyzing the needs of the society in an information age, the commission concluded in a special report that these were the “basics of tomorrow”: evaluation and analysis skills, critical thinking, problem-solving strategies, organization and reference skills, synthesis, application, creativity, decision making given incomplete information, and communication skills.

FIGURE 2.1 ■ Key Factors in Effective Schools**Organizational and Structural Variables**

1. The leadership and staff of the school have considerable autonomy in determining the means they will use to improve academic performance.
2. The principal plays an active role as an instructional leader.
3. The staff remains relatively stable in order to maintain and promote further success.
4. The elementary curriculum focuses on basic and complex skills, with sufficient time provided and close coordination across grade levels and across disciplines; the secondary curriculum includes a planned and purposeful program without too many electives.
5. There is schoolwide staff development closely related to the instructional program of the school.
6. There is active parent involvement and support.
7. The school recognizes academic success through symbols and ceremonies.
8. A greater portion of the day is devoted to academic subjects, with effective use made of academic time and with active involvement of students.
9. There is district support for school-based efforts.

Process Variables

1. There are collaborative planning and collegial relationships.
2. There is a pervasive sense of community.
3. Clear goals and high expectations are commonly shared.
4. There is order and discipline, with clear and reasonable rules fairly and consistently enforced.

Source: Adapted from Purkey and Smith (1983).

Accountability

Allied with the concern for more rigor in the curriculum was a demand that teachers and students be held more accountable. First, school districts eagerly embraced several programs that attempted to hold teachers more accountable for teaching and testing the prescribed curriculum. Such programs were usually identified as **curriculum alignment** projects. Although they varied in detail, they attempted to align the written and the **taught curriculum**, usually by monitoring what was taught, and the written and the **tested curriculum**, ordinarily by matching the test with the instructional objectives.

These conservative responses noted some undesirable side effects: increased pressure on less able students, resulting in an unfavorable climate for growth, and overemphasis on the knowledge transmission function, resulting from mandates and competency tests.

Vouchers

The intent of the voucher or choice schema was to provide opportunities, supported by tax monies, to target populations. Proponents of the voucher or choice concept believed that competition improves

the marketplace and enhances educational effectiveness. Opponents of the voucher or choice concept for public school, however, argued the following points:

- Choice is a notion that flies in the face of the basic mission of American public education.
- Choice is a means to circumvent laws governing due process, religious activities, and desegregation.
- Choice is a means to express personal biases and to construct and reform society through political or religious beliefs.
- Choice lowers the quality of some schools, and lessened enrollments can threaten equal educational opportunity for the majority of the students.
- The focus ought to be on improving schools rather than directing funds from one school district to another. (Boschee & Hunt, 1990, p. 75)

In the 1980s, states that endorsed the voucher or choice concept with varied and different requirements included Alaska, Arizona, California, Florida, Iowa, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin. Taking issue with where people stand on educational choice and vouchers, Boschee and Hunt (1990) wrote the following:

People take sides without really knowing what impact the concepts will have on the economies of daily life in a competitive marketplace; the organization and regulation of educational systems related to teaching, learning, and financial accountability; professional employment; cultural, social-psychological, and racial issues; parental choice; the state and federal laws; and values (p. 86).

Having said that, they developed an instrument titled “Pros/Cons of Vouchers/Choice” to help people determine whether they really endorsed the concept, were neutral, or were opposed. The instrument addressed seven areas: regulation versus deregulation; effectiveness/efficiency of schooling; legal/constitutional issues; roles: local, state, regional, federal, student, teacher, parent; accountability/instability factors; society, values, and schooling; and research on schooling. (The instrument and score key are published in the March 1990 *NASSP Bulletin*.)

Multicultural Education

The 1980s saw the emergence of a body of scholarship on multicultural education by progressive education activists and researchers who refused to allow schools to address their concerns by simply adding token programs and special units on famous women or famous people of color.

Multicultural education activities for K–12 public schools among the states varied from having no requirements to Monoethnic Courses (Phase 1) to Multiethnic Studies Courses (Phase 2) to Multiethnic Education (Phase 3) to Multicultural Education (Phase 4; Banks, 1994). Several state mandates, models, and frameworks for multicultural education continued into the 21st century. For example, Iowa referenced its requirements as “The Legal Authority: Multicultural, Nonsexist Education” (Iowa Code, Chapter 256.11). Tennessee required that black history and culture be taught in all public schools. Hawaii had a natural setting for multicultural education, and Indiana required public schools to incorporate world culture in the social studies curriculum. Nebraska compelled all school districts to submit a multicultural education program for approval by the Nebraska Department of Education.

From the survey results conducted by Boschee, Beyer, Engelking, and Boschee (1997) on K–12 multicultural education in the 50 U.S. states, a majority of the states did not mandate a multicultural education curriculum. Almost 30 years after the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) mandate, it appears that neither states nor teacher education programs have made substantial progress toward complying. Many, however, recommended that K–12 education be multicultural.

Goals 2000: Educate America Act

In 1989, the president of the United States, George H. W. Bush, and the nation's 50 governors came together for a historic summit on one of the most important issues affecting America's future: the education of our nation's children. Born of an urgent realization that America's future prosperity was at stake, the first Education Summit, cochaired by governors Carroll Campbell (South Carolina) and Bill Clinton (Arkansas), produced six ambitious goals for the nation's performance in education by 2000:

1. All children in the United States will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%.
3. American students will leave Grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography, and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.
4. U.S. students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Every school in the United States will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning. (Goals 2000, 1994)

With the passage of Goals 2000 legislation in 1994, the U.S. Congress added to Goal 3 the subjects of foreign languages, civics and government, economics, and the arts and added two additional goals to be met by 2000:

1. The nation's teaching force will have access to programs for the continued improvement of their professional skills and the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to instruct and prepare all American students for the next century.
2. Every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children. (Goals 2000, 1994)

Knudsen and Morrissette (1998) made an analysis and critique of Goals 2000 and concluded that “although a gallant effort, Goals 2000 will be remembered as a reform movement that funneled millions, perhaps billions, of dollars into American public schools with little to show in return.” The concept for Goals 2000 lacked agreement. It was a vision that did not reach the grassroots level, and it appeared that American public education needed to be built from the grassroots level.

The Exemplary Leaders

Three figures stand out in this period for their pervasive influence: Benjamin Bloom, John I. Goodlad, and James Banks. Each in his own way made major contributions and influenced both research and practice.

Benjamin Bloom

Bloom was a psychologist and professor of education at the University of Chicago. He first attracted widespread attention from the profession with the publication of what quickly became known as “Bloom’s taxonomy” (see Bloom, 1956). Bloom’s taxonomy includes his famous educational objectives: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Several interpretations of Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives, in the cognitive domain, include behavioral verbs that can be used to write higher-level reasoning tasks (O’Shea, 2005, p. 53).

While his work on the taxonomy was obviously influential, Bloom’s theory of and research on mastery learning had perhaps an even greater impact. In discussing his work on mastery learning, it is important to make a sharp distinction between three understandings of “mastery learning”: what he himself has advocated, how his students have applied his ideas in developing curricula, and what some publishers have done in commercializing mastery learning.

Despite the fact that some have distorted his theory, Bloom made a major contribution to curriculum—one whose effects will probably endure for some time.

John I. Goodlad

Goodlad is another leading figure in the curriculum field whose career spans several periods. For more than 25 years, he conducted research, organized centers of educational change, and taught graduate courses in the field, publishing more than 20 books and some 200 articles. Educators tended to perceive him as a curriculum leader who understood schools, had a clear vision of what those schools could become, and had some tested ideas for helping them achieve their goals.

Goodlad’s analysis of the content of that balanced curriculum yielded a rather discouraging picture. By observing classes, interviewing teachers and students, analyzing texts and tests, and examining **curriculum guides**, he and his research team concluded that in all the academic areas—English language arts (ELA), mathematics, social studies, and science—the emphasis was on teaching basic skills and facts. Almost no attention in any grade was given to inquiry, critical thinking, or problem solving. The picture was especially dismal in lower-track classes.

James Banks

In *A Brief History of Multicultural Education*, Paul C. Gorski (1999), assistant professor in the Graduate School of Education at Hamline University and team member of EdChange, said the following:

James Banks, one of the pioneers of multicultural education, was among the first multicultural education scholars to examine schools as social systems from a multicultural context. He grounded his conceptualization of multicultural education in the idea of “educational equality.” According to Banks, in order to maintain a “multicultural school environment,” all aspects of the school had to be examined and transformed, including policies, teachers’ attitudes, instructional materials, assessment methods, counseling, and teaching styles.

TECHNOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIONISM (1990–1999)

The era of **Technological Constructionism** marked a period in which leaders sought to improve education. The emergence of charter schools, technology as a catalyst for change, and a standards-based movement impacted real change in education.

The Predominant Trends

This period followed an era, the 1980s, when the nation struggled mightily to improve public education. A report from InfoMedia, Inc. (1993) titled *Educational Reform: A National Perspective* indicated that “ten years have passed since the hoopla surrounding *A Nation at Risk*. Ten years of speechmaking and of handwringing” (p. 3).

Charter Schools

The charter schools movement originated from a number of other educational reform ideas—namely, alternative schools, site-based management, magnet schools, public school choice, privatization, and community–parental choice (US Charter Schools, 2008). In 1991, Minnesota passed the first charter school law using the criteria of three basic values for certification: opportunity, choice, and responsibility.

Charter schools were publicly funded, publicly controlled, and privately run. As noted by US Charter Schools (2008), the intent of most charter school legislation was to do the following:

- Increase opportunities for learning and access to quality education for all students.
- Create choice for parents and students within the public school system.
- Provide a system of accountability for results in public education.
- Encourage innovative teaching practices.
- Create new professional opportunities for teachers.
- Encourage community and parent involvement in public education.
- Leverage improved public education broadly.

Charter schools continue to be a cross between a public and private school and are seen by many as a halfway station between public school choice and voucher programs. Although details vary by state, charter schools in general are freed from some regulations that govern traditional schools in exchange for greater accountability for results (Ryan, 2009).

Murphy and Shiffman (2002) analyzed empirical evidence gathered over a period of time to determine the impact of charters—both on individual charter communities and on the larger educational system. They concluded that, “by and large, the picture that emerges from the data we compiled is probably disappointing to charter purists—those who hold that the central goal of charters is to overhaul the extant system of education in the United States” (p. 216). Further, “the data on student achievement and school accountability, while quite limited, are not nearly as positive as charter advocates had hypothesized” (p. 216).

Advent of Technology

The stability of the core tool and keystone of the educational system, the printed textbook, yielded significant ground to the astonishing storage and retrieval capacities of the computer. A new educational

future was no longer inhibited and shaped by the exigencies of print- or textbook-based education. It was during this era that we experienced the first stages of humankind's third major change in the way we communicate with one another and with future generations yet unborn. In the same manner the alphabet and movable type changed everything about working and living in the decades after they were invented, the invention of the computer changed and will continue to change our lives and our children's lives dramatically.

The new technologies enabled a person with a computer and a phone line or cable in the remotest part of any state to connect to the equivalent of a million libraries worldwide. The use of an Internet browser and search engine allowed people to acquire, within seconds, the exact information they needed. Those same tools allowed people to organize and analyze huge quantities of acquired information to solve problems and create new opportunities. These technologies also enabled people to share information with one other person or with many millions of people worldwide (Whitehead, Jensen, & Boschee, 2013).

It was also during this decade that federal money was made available to take the country from a status of "digital divide" to one of "digital opportunity." In 1994, President Clinton and Vice President Gore bridged the digital divide by setting the goal of connecting every classroom and library to the Internet. In 1996, President Clinton unveiled his Technology Literacy Challenge and made a major commitment of resources to (a) connect every classroom to the Internet; (b) expand access to modern, multimedia computers; (c) make high-quality educational software an integral part of the curriculum; and (d) enable teachers to integrate technology effectively into their instruction. In retrospect, the 1990s provided a foundation for the unprecedented expansion and integration of technology in the classroom that we see today.

The Standards-Based Movement

The decade of the 1990s ushered in a wave of state educational standards. All the states, with the exception of Iowa, adopted academic standards. Iowa required each school district to develop its own standards. Although the research on the value of state standards is fairly new—and much of it is still in progress—the findings, according to Jones (2000), offer the following unfaltering guidelines:

1. *Make academic standards everybody's business.* Everybody—students, parents, teachers, business, everybody—needs to know what the standards are and why they're important. Research shows that when students and teachers better understand what is expected of them, they perform better.
2. *Focus, focus, focus.* Each state's standards are different, but they all have one thing in common: They're not perfect. Some state standards are so vague that teachers aren't sure what they mean. Others are so specific and so numerous that it's impossible to cover everything in the 13 years between kindergarten and high school graduation. Robert Marzano, senior fellow at the Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) in Aurora, Colorado, studied the standards around the country and found it would take 23 years of schooling to cover all of the benchmarks. "Teachers can't teach it all and kids couldn't possibly learn it all."
3. *Make standards-based decisions.* If you want standards to work, researchers say, you have to work on standards. The simplistic-sounding advice means each decision, each program, each new hire should be examined with an eye toward its impact on helping students meet standards. Researchers say school districts should put their money where their standards are. If a district wants to improve students' performance in math, for instance, it should hire more qualified math teachers.

4. *Invest in teachers.* Numerous studies have identified the importance of teachers' credentials in determining students' academic achievement. Teacher quality is so important that some researchers are beginning to suspect that low student achievement often seen in low-income communities just might reflect the fact that the least qualified teachers are often assigned to schools in those communities.
5. *Demand helpful assessments that align with the curriculum.* If you want the curriculum to be taken seriously, you have to do something about assessments. In cases where there's concern about alignment between the test and the standards, districts ought to raise that with the state, and not assume that everything will work itself out. There can be real consequences if there's not good alignment.
6. *Approach accountability cautiously.* Most researchers recommend using test results and other standards-based data to make decisions about everything from textbooks to teachers.
7. *When students are in trouble, intervene.* Researchers have long touted the benefits of **early intervention**. Studies show that a few weeks of one-on-one tutoring aimed at teaching first-graders to decode words can save many children from special education.

Source: Reprinted with permission from "Making Standards Work: Researchers Report Effective Strategies for Implementing Standards," by R. Jones, September 2000, *American School Board Journal*, 187(9), 27–31. Copyright 2000 National School Boards Association. All rights reserved.

With the development of state educational standards, teachers required better training and staff development. Early state standards helped set the tone for the unprecedented move to align standards in classrooms that we see today. Basically, over the past quarter century, a model for school standards and accountability has emerged in the United States that is now so locked into state and federal laws that its general shape seems here to stay. Indeed, where alignment between curriculum instruction and assessment is incomplete, the standards for validity are not being met (Barton, 2006).

The past quarter of a century also helped develop the long link between high school and college standards. High school administrators around the country are currently modifying their curricula so that students desiring to go to college are better able to succeed academically. This is evidenced by the number of tech prep courses being offered in secondary schools today that help make the link easier between high schools and colleges. For example, Idaho high school students could register to complete an approved tech prep course at any high school, which allows them an opportunity to earn college class credit and move from their high school to North Idaho State College without having to repeat tech prep courses (North Idaho State College, 2007).

The Exemplary Leaders

Three figures stand out in this period of change: Elliot W. Eisner, Robert J. Marzano, and Joseph S. Renzulli. Each of these individuals contributed his own special influence to the field of curriculum development.

Elliot W. Eisner

Eisner is a professor of education and art at Stanford University. He is widely considered a leading theorist on art education. Eisner has won wide recognition for his work internationally. Among his many awards is the Palmer O. Johnson Award from the American Educational Research Association. He has

been a John Simon Guggenheim Fellow and a Fulbright Scholar and has served as the president of the National Art Education Association, the International Society for Education Through Art, the American Educational Research Association, and the John Dewey Society (Provenzo, 2003).

Eisner works primarily in three fields: arts education, curriculum studies, and qualitative research methodology (identifying practical uses of critical qualitative methods from the arts in school settings and teaching processes). His research interests have focused on the development of aesthetic intelligence and on the use of methods from the arts to study and improve educational practice. Originally trained as a painter, Eisner teaches ways in which schools might improve by using the processes of the arts in all of their programs. He is considered one of the foremost leaders in the field of arts in education.

Robert J. Marzano

Marzano is a senior fellow at the McREL Institute in Aurora, Colorado, and has authored numerous books and articles. He is largely noted for translating research and theory into classroom practices. He heads a team of authors who developed *Dimensions of Learning* as well as *Tactics for Thinking*. One of his best works is the book *School Leadership That Works* (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). He has developed programs and practices used in K–12 classrooms that translate current research and theory in cognition into instructional methods.

Joseph S. Renzulli

A professor of educational psychology at the University of Connecticut, Renzulli also served as director of the National Research Center on the Gifted and Talented. His research has focused on the identification and development of creativity and giftedness in young people and on organizational models and curricular strategies for total school improvement. He is a fellow in the American Psychological Association and was a consultant to the White House Task Force on Education of the Gifted and Talented. In addition, he was designated a Board of Trustees Distinguished Professor at the University of Connecticut.

MODERN CONSERVATISM (2000–2009)

Modern Conservatism was marked by increased involvement by the federal government to raise the outcomes of public schools, primarily through the No Child Left Behind Act. It was also marked by an acceleration of school privatization.

The Predominant Trends

Americans increasingly recognize that the U.S. education system can and should do more to prepare our young people to succeed in the rapidly evolving 21st century. Skills such as global literacy, problem solving, innovation, and creativity have become critical in today's increasingly interconnected workforce and society.

No Child Left Behind Act

The biggest public school story in the 21st century was the 1,100-page NCLB Act, signed into law by President George W. Bush in January 2002. Being that it was bipartisan legislation, a congressional coalition formed around the ambitious federal education bill. However, that unity dissolved as Democrats blamed Republicans for withholding funding and Republicans criticized Democrats for abandoning school reform.

According to Toch (2010), “We needed to restructure the accountability system in the NCLB to evaluate schools more comprehensively and give schools stronger incentives to embrace high standards” (p. 75). Surely, the logic of this transformation appeared to be clear and compelling at the time: National problems required national solutions. But it was not long before individuals who had been involved in promoting state academic standards, aligned assessments, and accountability for student performance began acknowledging that the ideas that had given rise to NCLB were failing (Colvin, 2013). Consequently, states across the nation began taking opposition to the law. For example, initially, the renewal of the oft-criticized NCLB federal law was supported by the nation’s governors, but they wanted states to have far more authority in carrying out its mandates. Since the act repeatedly came under fire, the governors decried it for such things as its focus on testing and punishments to be reauthorized.

Subsequently, several years later, the federal government released the NCLB waiver plan, which enabled individual states to craft their own accountability systems. Because NCLB was known as a flawed law that failed to deliver for schools and kids, Minnesota Education Commissioner Brenda Cassellius said, “Today is a great, great day for parents, teachers, schools, and most importantly students” (Staff and Wire Reports, 2011, p. A5). Although the requirement that all children be proficient in reading and mathematics (as early as 2014) was waived, states must still “meet conditions such as imposing their own standards to prepare students for college and careers and setting evaluation standards for teachers and principals” (Staff and Wire Reports, 2011, p. A5).

NCLB was a new federal law that provided an overall system for improving student achievement. The law’s three goals were as follows:

1. To make sure that all students in a school, as well as students from low-income families, minority populations, limited English proficient students, and students with disabilities, perform well in the areas of reading and mathematics
2. To hold schools responsible if all children are not on grade level or above
3. To make sure that there is a highly qualified teacher in each classroom

Some other trends in education during the Modern Conservatism era besides NCLB include global education, **school vouchers**, homeschooling, preK–16 education, the federal government’s Race to the Top program, **diversity education** (replacing multicultural education), and CCSS.

School Privatization

Along with charter schools, there was a move toward private schools via school vouchers. In conjunction with the advent of a new Republican administration in 2001, educational reform moved away from technological structuralism and returned to a more modern and conservative nature. This is especially the case with former presidents George W. Bush’s and Barack Obama’s endorsements of vouchers.

As a move toward school choice, vouchers provide parents with tax-financed certificates or vouchers to pay tuition at schools, public or private, to which they choose to send their children. Basically, school vouchers are a type of government grant that provides school tuition that can be used at both public and private schools and that could become a way to increase the option of school choice for low-income families. The concept behind school vouchers continues to focus on giving parents a wider choice of educational institutions and approaches.

The school voucher program has been controversial at best in that many individuals believe that such a program, if broadly applied, could destroy the American public education system. There is also debate

over constitutional church–state issues related to vouchers being used to allow students to attend religious schools. This continues to be a contentious issue, and a federal court held that when a voucher system resulted in almost all recipients attending religious schools instead of public schools, the system violated the Constitution.

Privatization remains a highly controversial issue today. According to Houchens (2012), school choice advocates are not suggesting that every charter or private school will naturally do a better job. But he added that if families are dissatisfied with the education their children are receiving, they should have the option to enroll elsewhere. Moreover, without options, poor families may have no other opportunity to leave a failing school. The U.S. Supreme Court agreed and ruled in *Zelman v. Simmons-Harris* that a Cleveland voucher program was constitutional.

In contrast, Harvey (2012) is concerned about charter schools and cites several Florida charters that came out badly in state investigations. Similarly, he shared problems of other charter schools involving sweetheart contracts, nepotism, conflicts of interest, and extravagant bonuses. Subsequently, the pros and cons debate on charter schools will continue.

Homeschooling

During the past 20 years, the general public's familiarity with homeschooling has evolved from a level of almost complete unawareness to one of widespread, if largely uninformed, awareness. Today, homeschooling parents are reinventing the ideas of school. Along with this movement, a growing body of literature on school choice has emerged. Despite legislative problems, regulatory hurdles, media attacks, and other affronts to the homeschooling movement, homeschooling has continued to gain in popularity and strength. Thomas Jefferson, the principal author of the Declaration of Independence, alleged that the price of freedom is vigilance (Gilmore, 2005). This has never been truer than in the case of freedom to homeschool in the United States in the 1980s and 1990s, when battles were fought in the courtrooms and state legislatures.

Although each family has its own value system and its own reasons for homeschooling, researchers have identified several reasons why families choose to homeschool their children. Ray (2006) found that the most common reasons given for homeschooling are to do the following:

- Teach a particular set of values, beliefs, and worldview
- Accomplish more academically than is achieved in schools
- Customize or individualize the curriculum and learning environment of each child
- Use pedagogical approaches other than those typical in institutional schools
- Enhance family relationships between children and parents and among siblings
- Provide guided and reasoned social interactions with youthful peers and adults
- Provide a safer environment for children and youth, because of physical violence, drugs and alcohol, psychological abuse, and improper and unhealthy sexuality

Public educators need to develop greater awareness as to medical, social, and cultural issues and then make some substantial changes, particularly if they want to minimize the impact of homeschooling, vouchers, charters, and private schools (McCollum, 2010).

PreK–16 Education

To bring about change in education via preK–16 education, Gordon (Spud) Van de Water and Carl Krueger (2002) suggested the establishment of five central goals and recommended structural goals to achieve them:

1. Every child ready for school by age 6
2. Every child proficient in reading by age 8
3. Every child proficient in geometry and algebra by age 13
4. Every learner completing a rigorous core curriculum by age 17
5. Every learner expected to complete the first 2 years of college by age 21

To accomplish these central goals, recommended structural goals included the following:

- Starting universal public education at age 3
- Smoothing transitions from one level of education to the next
- Moving from a Carnegie unit system to a competency-based system
- Creating more flexible learning opportunities for adolescent learners
- Moving the accepted endpoint of public education from Grade 12 to Grade 14

To achieve these goals, a preK–16 system stresses these factors: the use of research to guide decisions about when and how children learn, a clearly articulated set of high expectations, improvement of teaching quality, and the use of data to measure progress.

A wave of educational reform has swept the nation over the first decade of the 21st century. For example, school choice, charter schools, NCLB, and standards-based instruction, among others, are highly debatable because the landscape of education in the United States has not undergone major change (Chamberlin & Plucker, 2008). Although the jury is still out, Chamberlin and Plucker believe that preK–16 education has potential because it is more responsive to society's needs.

There is widespread agreement that all students in our schools and colleges need to learn more to lead successful economic and civic lives as adults in the 21st century. Implicit in this consensus is the notion that the current system is not capable of bringing this about. Consider these data points:

- Fewer than 3 in 10 teenagers think their school is “very academically rigorous.”
- Students in high-poverty schools score at the same level as C and D students in affluent schools.
- Seventy-two percent of high school graduates go on to some form of postsecondary education, yet only 44% have taken a college-prep curriculum.
- Twenty-nine percent of college freshmen take one or more remedial courses in reading, writing, or math.
- By age 24, approximately 7% of young people from low-income families have graduated from college, versus 48% from high-income families. (Haycock & Huang, 2001)

The previously given signs would indicate that the educational system in the United States is under stress. A preK–16 system could well smooth the needed transition from high school to college.

Race to the Top

According to former U.S. secretary of education Arnie Duncan, the federal government is committed to reforming America's public schools to provide every child access to a complete and competitive education. Government officials recently presented states with an unprecedented challenge and the opportunity to compete in a "Race to the Top" designed to spur systemic reform and embrace innovative approaches to teaching and learning in America's schools. Backed by a \$4.35 billion investment, the reforms contained in Race to the Top are hoped to prepare America's students to graduate ready for college and careers and enable them to outcompete any worker, anywhere in the world.

Race to the Top emphasizes the following reform areas:

- *Designing and implementing rigorous standards and high-quality assessments* by encouraging states to work jointly toward a system of common academic standards that build toward college and career readiness and that include improved assessments designed to measure critical knowledge and higher-order thinking skills (HOTS)
- *Attracting and keeping great teachers and leaders in U.S. classrooms* by expanding effective support to teachers and principals; reforming and improving teacher preparation; revising teacher evaluation, compensation, and retention policies to encourage and reward effectiveness; and working to ensure that our most talented teachers are placed in the schools and subjects where they are needed the most
- *Supporting data systems that inform decisions and improve instruction* by fully implementing a Statewide Longitudinal Data System (SLDS), assessing and using data to drive instruction and making data more accessible to key stakeholders
- *Using innovation and effective approaches to turn around struggling schools* by asking states to prioritize and transform persistently low-performing schools
- *Demonstrating and sustaining education reform* by promoting collaborations between business leaders, educators, and other stakeholders to raise student achievement and close achievement gaps and also by expanding support for high-performing public charter schools, reinvigorating math and science education, and promoting other conditions favorable to innovation and reform

Diversity Education

The boundaries of diversity education are so immense that it is difficult to label which cultural groups should be the primary focus in curricula, publications, or conventions. Increasingly, the term *diversity* (*equity* is another current term) is being used to refer to education related to race, gender, social class, exceptionality, and the interaction of these variables. In essence, "who we are includes the diversities that we are born to—that is, race, sexual orientation, and culture" (Starnes, 2010, p. 75). Likewise, regarding the new Indian education standards adopted by the South Dakota Board of Education, Governor Dennis Daugaard—speaking in favor of the standards before the board—said, "Students are more engaged when they find the curriculum relevant," adding, "it's important for Native students to have that relevancy, but it's also equally important for our non-Native students to have a better understanding of the cultural background of the state" (as quoted in Verges, 2011, p. A7).

In this time of cultural awareness, nations around the world are sharpening their focus on diversity and equity—often, with remarkable progress. The reality is that schools are not separate from the societies and culture in which they exist. Likewise, they need not be completely subservient to the negative aspects of those societies. Over the longer term, developing a quality and equitable education is one way societies improve. In leading and supporting differentiated education, for all students, regardless of background, educators not only embody the best principles of humanity, they also contribute to a better future for everyone (Levin, 2012–2013).

Common Core State Standards

CCSS continues to present a new challenge for many K–12 educators (Marzano, 2013). “For decades, the United States maintained various academic quality standards among states, resulting in wide disparities in student proficiency as measured under NCLB and highlighted by National Assessment of Education Progress scores” (ASCD, 2011). Here is the consequence:

The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) and the National Governors Association (NGA) spearheaded the development of Common Core State Standards that should prepare our children for college, the workforce, and success in the global economy. The initiative’s goal was to create K–12 English language arts and mathematics standards that are (a) fewer, higher, and clearer; (b) internationally benchmarked; (c) research-based; and (d) aligned with college- and career-readiness expectations. (ASCD, 2011)

The adoption of the CCSS by a number of states is the first step toward meaningful and comprehensive comparisons of student performance and achievement among states. Under these new standards, educators across the country will work under the same guidelines for what students need to know and are expected to do (ASCD, 2011). “Assumingly, the CCSS will provide a consistent, clear understanding of what students are expected to learn, so teachers and parents know what they need to do to help them” (ASCD, 2011).

CCSS was designed to help make every student college and career ready and is built on the well-founded expectation that students must do better than merely mastering basic skills (Sandler & Hammond, 2012–2013). Moreover, CCSS emphasizes prior knowledge and the growing body of literature about the neuroscience of learning. This focuses on how we as humans build interrelated networks of knowledge. As schools move toward full implementation of CCSS, we must make sure all students are able to leverage prior knowledge—both to help strengthen their analytical skills as well as to lay a solid foundation for further learning.

Technology and 21st-Century Learning

Similarly to CCSS, effectively implementing educational technology is a shared responsibility. From the onset, planning and implementation of educational technology continues to remain in uncharted territory. Many school leaders are just now trying to figure out how to best create good policies and rules about technology best practices and use. According to Johnson (2013), when it comes to 21st-century technology, better decisions require many perspectives. As part of those perspectives, Johnson notes four ways school leaders can approach future planning and implementation of 21st-century technology in their schools:

- Demand a voice, both formal and informal, in technology planning, budgeting, and policymaking.
- Have regular conversations with technology staff, and share challenges and goals with them (and community).

- Be knowledgeable about technology use in other school districts (as well as schools globally), learning what is possible and why.
- Participate in other formal technology advisory groups.

Developing a progressive technology-infused program is about developing a shared mission. To successfully implement 21st-century teaching and learning strategies, schools must be proactive (Wells, 2012). With this in mind, school leaders need to follow three basic steps. They include the following:

1. Make the needs of the new 21st-century learner a priority.
2. Deliberately empower teachers to innovatively craft digital learning experiences that promote discovery and creation.
3. Establish a shared vision and unique plan for both students and teachers.

Although the steps noted previously are a start to improving and enhancing a school's technology initiative, it is crucial for curriculum leaders and teachers to have an open dialogue about concerns, responsibilities, and priorities essential for successful technology integration. As will be covered extensively in subsequent chapters, having ongoing, informal conversations about technology resources is foundational to developing a global vision for 21st-century learning.

Global Education

As part of establishing new global insights, school leaders and teachers are working collaboratively to integrate 21st-century technology into classrooms today. From a national perspective, CCSS suggest students be able to effectively use technology in our globally connected world. As part of this process, Gail Connelly (2012), executive director of the National Association of Elementary Principals, shares four major focus areas for principals, curriculum leaders, and teachers. They include the following:

1. Develop a technology-rich culture that connects learning to our global society.
2. Make data a driver for school improvement.
3. Help adults and students use knowledge to make informed decisions.
4. Benchmark high-achieving schools with comparable demographics.

As Connelly aptly pointed out, one of the first and foremost goals for school leaders and teachers is to use technology applications to connect learning in our global society. This is particularly important today in that expectations for education appear to be rising worldwide.

Focusing on real-world relevance, there is a growing presence of concern as to economic and social issues, as well as the quality of education (Ferguson, 2013). Along with the macroeconomic pressures of increasing unemployment and social concerns, there are equally not enough schools or enough teachers in many countries.

In contrast, however, there have been many positive outcomes. According to Levin (2012–2013), access to schooling has improved dramatically across the world, with 80% of the globe's population considered to be literate as of 2002. This is the highest proportion in human history. It is believed this increase is a result of increased formal schooling, as well as highly successful efforts in adult literacy.

For example, within schools and in adult education, more girls and women are now being educated. In addition, secondary and postsecondary education are expanding dramatically. Even countries that were already doing reasonably well (in educational terms) are experiencing sharp improvements over periods as short as a decade. Specific examples include Finland and Poland.

The Exemplary Leaders

Two major figures, Linda Darling-Hammond and Carol Ann Tomlinson, stand out from this unusual time of direct government involvement in individualized and differentiated learning, assessment, and school improvement. Never before has the federal government been so involved in making sure that schools apply standards and are held accountable.

Linda Darling-Hammond

Darling-Hammond is a Charles E. Ducommun Professor of Education at Stanford University School of Education. She has served as chief education adviser to President Barack Obama and is the author of the book *The Flat World and Education* (Darling-Hammond, 2010). She also served as executive director of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, which produced the widely cited 1996 blueprint for education reform, *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*.

Darling-Hammond has served as the faculty sponsor for Stanford's Teacher Education Program. As a leader in the charge for enhanced teacher education and teacher preparedness, she has been instrumental in redesigning programs to better prepare teachers to teach diverse learners in the context of challenging new subject matter standards (Glass, 2003).

Carol Ann Tomlinson

Tomlinson is a noted author whose work in the area of differentiated instruction is well known internationally. She is an associate professor of educational leadership, foundations, and policy at the Curry School of Education, University of Virginia. Her work has had a tremendous impact on the school improvement process. Her books include information on curriculum and instruction for advanced learners and struggling learners, effective instruction in heterogeneous settings, and bridging the fields of general education and gifted education. She is the author of more than 100 articles, book chapters, and books. One of her best-known books is *The Differentiated Classroom: Responding to the Needs of All Learners* (Tomlinson, 1999). Another is *Integrating Differentiated Instruction and Understanding by Design* (2006), which she coauthored with Jay McTighe. Many school officials are turning to her work in their efforts to individualize classrooms and comply with new standards.

TECHNOLOGICAL FUNCTIONALISM (2010–PRESENT)

The major thrusts of the **Technological Functionalism** era, thus far, are best represented by myths and hoaxes about the educational system in the United States, educational reform, the CCSS, and disruptive behavior. While the challenges to fostering literacy among today's students are growing, so is the power of the tools at educators' disposal.

The Predominant Trends

The 2013–2014 school year drew to a close in U.S. school districts and with it the final period in which white students composed a majority of the nation's K–12 public school population.

When schools reopened in August and September 2014, black, Latino, Asian, and Native American students together made up a narrow majority of the nation's public school students (Ross & Bell, 2014). Broader demographic trends indicate that the new student majority, a collection of what have long been thought of as minority groups, will grow. In just 3 years, Latino students alone will make up nearly 28% of the nation's student population according to data from the National Center for Education Statistics (2004). Latino student population growth, combined with a slow but steady decline in the number of white children attending public schools, will transform the country's schools.

As public schools increasingly become institutions serving large numbers of students of color, some states with largely white state legislatures and aging electorates have already proven unwilling to raise taxes or divert needed funds to meet the needs of public schools. Further, school funding and other public resource needs will become increasingly critical as children of color go on to become the majority of the U.S. workforce and total population by 2042.

The Exemplary Leaders

It is symbolic that the leaders selected as representing this exciting period of innovation and experimentation are true educators who challenge unsound beliefs about U.S. public schools with sound research.

David C. Berliner

David C. Berliner is an educational psychologist and an emeritus professor and dean of the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College at Arizona State University. He has authored more than 200 articles, books, and chapters in the fields of educational psychology, teacher education, and educational policy, including the bestseller *The Manufactured Crisis*. His recent publication, *50 Myths and Lies That Threaten America's Public Schools: The Real Crisis in Education* (Berliner, Glass, & Associates, 2014), challenges the myths and hoaxes about U.S. public schools with sound research.

Gene V. Glass

Gene V. Glass is currently a senior researcher at the National Education Policy Center and a Regents' Professor Emeritus from Arizona State University. Trained originally in statistics, his interests broadened to include psychotherapy research, evaluation methodology, and policy analysis. His work on meta-analysis of psychotherapy outcomes (with M. L. Smith) was named as one of the *Forty Studies That Changed Psychology* in the book of the same name by Roger R. Hock (1999). His more recent contributions to the analysis of education policy include *Fertilizers, Pills and Magnetic Strips: The Fate of Public Education in America* (Glass, 2008) and *50 Myths & Lies That Threaten America's Public Schools: The Real Crisis in Education* with David C. Berliner and Associates (2014).

A CENTURY PLUS OF CURRICULUM TRENDS IN RETROSPECT

In reviewing this century and a quarter of curriculum history, two general observations might be made. The first is regarding the pace of change. Observe that after the first two 20-year periods, the remaining periods become increasingly shorter, each lasting 10 years. Having said that, it would seem that futurists who have commented on the rapid pace of change in today's society are probably correct.

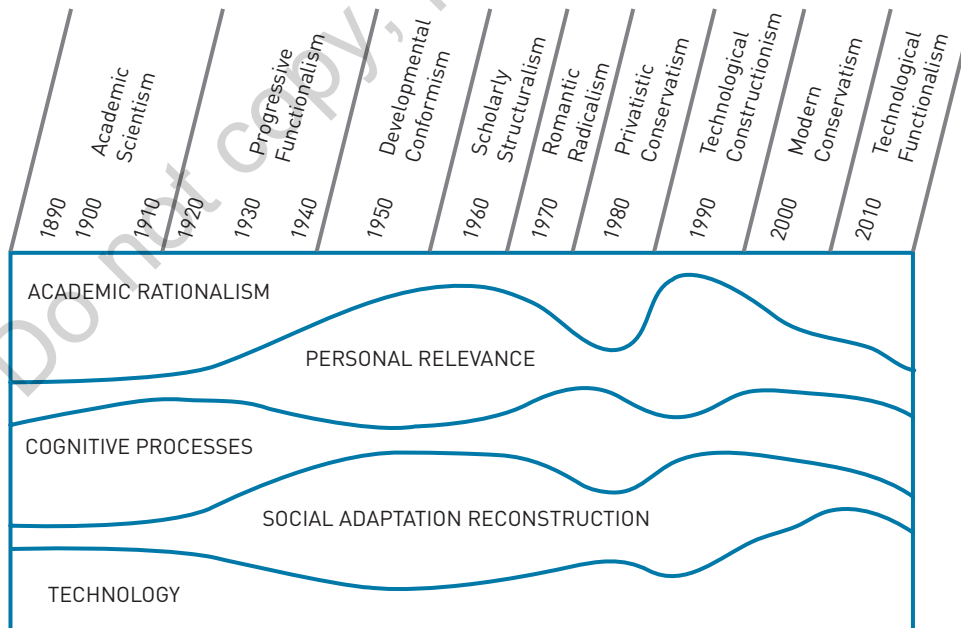
The second observation is on the rhythms and directions of that change. Here, it might be useful to search for the best metaphor describing those rhythms and directions. Currently, when most educators speak about the general directions of the curriculum, past and present, they seize initially on the metaphor

of the pendulum, which suggests short swings between extreme positions. Or they talk of cycles, a more abstract figure that suggests longer periods of recurring tendencies. Neither metaphor seems to portray the past century and a quarter of curriculum history. Instead, it might be more appropriate and more insightful to speak of separate streams that continue to flow—at times swollen, at times almost dry; at times separate, at times almost joining.

In identifying such streams in our curricular history, some useful terms proposed by Eisner and Vallance as early as 1974 help delineate the five orientations in the curriculum: academic rationalism (foster intellectual growth in the subjects most worthy of study), personal relevance (emphasize the primacy of personal meaning), cognitive processes (help children acquire the basic skills and learn how to think), social adaptation reconstruction (derive educational aims from an analysis of the society), and technology (operationalize curricular outcomes by technological analysis of the observable behaviors sought). The nine curricular orientations—Academic Scientism, Progressive Functionalism, Developmental Conformism, Scholarly Structuralism, Romantic Radicalism, Privatistic Conservatism, Technological Constructionism, Modern Conservatism, and Technological Functionalism—are thus seen as streams that always have been present during the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century of curricular history.

Figure 2.2 shows how these streams seem to have ebbed and flowed throughout the separate periods. It reflects how their strength has varied and how, during a given period, one or two have predominated. It suggests that the strength of a given orientation at a particular time seems to have resulted from powerful social forces impinging on the curriculum. It also makes clear that educators in general have typically espoused a pragmatic eclecticism, one in which all nine streams have at least some part to play.

FIGURE 2.2 ■ The Streams of Curricular History



SUMMARY

This chapter explored the history of curriculum development for scholars and practitioners and a careful analysis of the past 100-plus years of curriculum development history. A historical understanding results in a deeper awareness of the extent to which curricular changes are often influenced by and are a manifestation of larger social forces. Chapter 2 offers an expansive perspective from which to view so-called innovations and reforms. In addition, this chapter focuses on the major developments affecting American schools and provides an essential broader perspective.

Specifically, the chapter addresses the periods of Academic Scientism, Progressive Functionalism, Developmental Conformism, Scholarly Structuralism, Romantic Radicalism, Privatistic Conservatism, Technological Constructionism, Modern Conservatism, and Technological Functionalism and why each was important in the development of curriculum. Finally, some of the temper of times, predominant trends, exemplary leaders for curriculum change, and major publications that transcended each period of curriculum development are identified.

APPLICATIONS

1. Based on what you have learned about the history of curriculum and what you observe happening now, when do you think the period of Technological Functionalism will end, and what type of period will succeed it?
2. Some have argued that there are really no new ideas in education and that all so-called innovations are simply a refurbishing of old ideas. Based on your knowledge of curriculum history, would you agree or disagree? Please explain.
3. Most nationally disseminated reports recommending educational reform have very little impact. How, then, do you explain the seemingly profound impact made by the reform reports of the 1990s and the early years of the 21st century?
4. NCLB has had some impact on how schools plan and implement curriculum, as well as on how students are assessed. Is the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) a good replacement for NCLB? Explain why or why not.
5. Charter schools, school vouchers, and homeschooling movements are becoming commonplace in American education. How do you feel about each of these practices, and do you believe that they will continue in the future? Why, or why not?
6. According to Van de Water and Krueger (2002), much more evidence is needed concerning what works in a preK–16 system. Which element from the following list would be the most difficult to accomplish, and which one would be the easiest to accomplish? Why?
 - *Inclusiveness*—everyone expected to meet rigorous learning standards
 - *Alignment*—of standards, curricula, expectations, assessments
 - *Support*—for all learners as they strive to meet learning standards
 - *Removal of artificial barriers*—especially those surrounding the transition from high school to college (e.g., high school exit requirements, college entrance requirements, and college placement assessments)
 - *Reductions in level of remediation*—high expectations, clear standards, and strong support services leading to better-prepared students able to meet postsecondary expectations upon entry
7. School district and state-level education leaders are charged with developing and

administering educational curricula to best prepare students for their future. Yet there can be tension between a curriculum that develops a well-rounded student and a curriculum that helps create a student who is career ready. In your opinion, which of the two curricula is more relevant? Explain your opinion in detail.

8. Although the Seven Cardinal Principles were published in 1918, they are just as apt today as they were then. Do you agree or disagree that

education must consist of more than just the three Rs for this great nation to exist for another 100 years? Why?

9. Of the exemplary leaders mentioned in the various eras, identify three that you feel made the most significant contribution to curriculum development and the teaching and learning process, and explain why each was selected.
10. Respond to the challenge and each of the key issues or questions in the case study.

CASE STUDY: CURRICULUM APPROACHES CAN CHALLENGE ADMINISTRATORS

The new elementary school principal, Dr. Susan Davenport, was hired to replace Dr. Robert Edwards, who left Washington Elementary School for a professorship at a university in the same town. When she was hired, the superintendent told her that he expected the principal to get the school's staff on board to bring the curriculum into compliance with district, state, and federal standards.

With the superintendent's edict to bring the staff on board so that the standards could be met, Dr. Davenport felt that information was needed about the diverse faculty at Washington Elementary School. She arranged a meeting with the previous principal to get some insights about the faculty at the school. Dr. Edwards was pleased to meet with Dr. Davenport and share some information about the teachers.

In describing the six fourth-grade faculty members at Washington Elementary School, Dr. Edwards made reference to Mr. Anderson, who was a 40-year veteran at the school. He noted that Mr. Anderson is very conservative in nature and a blend of Academic Scientism and Progressive Functionalism. He also does not believe in individualizing or having students work in groups. Another teacher, Mrs. Ferrell, is less conservative than Mr. Anderson; however, she is not a big fan of technology and focuses on the social aspects of the child, a type of Developmental Conformism.

Dr. Bardwell, a close friend of Mrs. Ferrell, is a far more structured teacher who has the desks lined up in rows. She does focus on fundamentals but uses an inquiry approach to teaching at times, especially in science. Dr. Edwards felt that Dr. Bardwell fit nicely into the era of Scholarly Structuralism—curriculum should be focused on discipline-based principles, concepts, and inquiry processes. Tammy Rabine, another fourth-grade teacher, Dr. Edwards noted, is right out of the Romantic Radicalism period. She is an exciting and imaginative teacher but does not follow the district curriculum scope and sequence and is not interested in clear and articulated objectives. Her philosophy is that learning is about student discovery and student self-esteem. In contrast, Tammy's colleague, Jack Durringer, is very much into critical thinking and the development of an academically challenging curriculum. He is also a stickler for assessment and accountability, as well as technology, which places him in the Privatistic Conservatism and Technological Constructionism eras.

Juanita Sanchez, the last fourth-grade teacher who Dr. Edwards talked about, has taught for 2 years and is a wiz with technology. Because she is interested in cultural diversity, she believes in teaching values through the curriculum. She is a strong proponent of standards for teaching and assessment and could well fit the Technological Constructionism, Modern Conservatism, and Technological Functionalism eras.

THE CHALLENGE

Analyze the behavior of the fourth-grade teachers in this case. How can the new principal get the thinking of teacher-leaders and the fourth-grade faculty working together to bring the curriculum into compliance with district, state, and federal standards?

KEY ISSUES OR QUESTIONS

- Judging from your own experience, do you think it was ethical for Dr. Edwards to discuss his former teachers with the new principal? Why, or why not?
- Curricular changes are often influenced by and are manifestations of larger social forces. What societal changes are influencing curricular changes today?
- Is it possible to bring a school facing the problem of unsatisfactory levels of student achievement to meet the current standards set by the district, state government, and federal government with a diverse faculty? Why, or why not?
- One of the major problems of this school was the lack of incentive to change, a situation not unique to Washington Elementary School. Tradition and goal ambiguity tended to make this school sluggish. How can the new principal initiate change efforts and find ways of providing help instead of “managing” school-level programs?
- How might the principal use the diversity of faculty as strength to improve the teaching and learning process?

WEBLIOGRAPHY

The ABC's of ESEA, ESSA and No Child Left Behind
<http://educationpost.org/the-abc-of-esea-essa-and-no-child-left-behind/>

The Bottom Line on Charter School Studies
https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/answer-sheet/wp/2013/09/24/the-bottom-line-on-charter-school-studies/?utm_term=.b640383f0179

Common Core Math Fallacies and Misconceptions: Let's Give It a Chance
<https://paulemerich.com/2013/04/21/common-core-math-fallacies-and-misconceptions-lets-give-it-a-chance/>

Importance of Diversity in the Classroom
<http://www.societyfordiversity.org/importance-of-diversity-in-the-classroom/>

The Value of Global Education
<https://www.vergemagazine.com/study-abroad/blogs/1033-the-value-of-global-education.html>

What Is Curriculum History and Why Is It Important?
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED383584>

REFERENCES

ASCD. (2011). *ASCD and common core standards resources*. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/public-policy/common-core.aspx>

Banks, J. A. (1994). *Multicultural education: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Barton, P. E. (2006). Needed: Higher standards for accountability. *Educational Leadership*, 64(3), 28–36.

Berliner, D. C., Glass, G. V., & Associates. (2014). *50 myths & lies that threaten America's public schools: The real crisis in education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

- Bloom, B. S. (Ed.). (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals; Handbook 1. Cognitive domain*. New York, NY: McKay.
- Bobbit, F. (1918). *The curriculum*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Boschee, F., Beyer, B. M., Engelking, J. L., & Boschee, M. A. (1997). *Special and compensatory programs: The administrator's role*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Boschee, F., & Hunt, M. M. (1990). Educational choice and vouchers—Where do you stand? *NASSP Bulletin*, 74(524), 75–86.
- Bruner, J. S. (1960). *The process of education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Chamberlin, M., & Plucker, J. (2008). P-16 education: Where are we going? Where have we been? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 89(7), 472–479.
- Colvin, R. L. (2013). New “chief” will stay the course. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 94(5), 66–67.
- Connelly, G. (2012). There's no time like the future. *Principal*, 91(3), 48.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). *The flat world and education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Dewey, J. (1900). *The school and society*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Dewey, J. (1902). *The child and the curriculum*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1964). *John Dewey on education: Selected writings* (R. Archambault, Ed.). New York, NY: Random House.
- Education Commission of the States. (1982). *The information society: Are high school graduates ready?* Denver, CO: Author.
- Eisner, E. W., & Vallance, E. (1974). *Conflicting conceptions of curriculum*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.
- Fain, P. (2015, January 29). *Sticking with credit hour*. Inside Higher Ed. Retrieved from <https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2015/01/29/carnegie-foundation-says-credit-hour-although-flawed-too-important-discard>
- Fenske, N. R. (1997). *A history of American public high schools: 1890–1990*. Lewistown, NY: Edwin Mellen Press.
- Ferguson, M. (2013). Economists' view of education is not all bad. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 95(3), 68–69.
- Flexner, A. (1916). The modern school. *American Review of Reviews*, 8, 465–474.
- Giles, H. H., McCutchen, S. P., & Zechiel, A. N. (1942). *Exploring the curriculum*. New York, NY: Harper.
- Gilmore, J. (2005, August). Keep the home-school fires burning. *New American*, 21(17), 29–33.
- Glass, G. V. (Ed.). (2003). *Education policy analysis archives*. Retrieved from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/board/darling-hammond.html>
- Glass, G. V. (2008). *Fertilizers, pills, and magnetic strips: The fate of public education in America*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, Inc.
- Glatthorn, A. A. (1975). *Alternatives in education: Schools and programs*. New York, NY: Dodd, Mead.
- Goals 2000: Educate America Act, H.R. 1804, 103d Cong. (1994). Retrieved from <http://www.ed.gov/legislation/GOALS2000/TheAct/intro.html>
- Gorski, P. C. (1999, November). *A brief history of multicultural education*. Critical Multicultural Pavilion: Research Room. Retrieved from http://www.edchange.org/multicultural/papers/edchange_history.html
- Hall, G. S. (1969). *Adolescence*. New York: Arno and the *New York Times*. (Original work published 1904)
- Harvey, J. (2012). Response: School choice, a fix that fails. *Educational Leadership*, 69(6), 91–92.
- Havighurst, R. J. (1972). *Developmental tasks and education* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: David McKay.
- Haycock, K., & Huang, S. (2001). Are today's high school graduates ready? *Thinking K–16*, 5(1), 3–17.
- Hock, R. R. (1999). *Forty studies that changed psychology: Explorations into the history of psychological research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Holt, J. (1964). *How children fail*. New York, NY: Pitman.
- Houchens G. (2012). Talking back on privatization. *Educational Leadership*, 69(6), 91–92.
- InfoMedia, Inc. (1993). *Educational reform: A national perspective*. Ellenton, FL: Author.
- Johnson, D. (2013). Power up! Good technology choices: A team effort. *Educational Leadership*, 71(1), 80–82.
- Jones, R. (2000). Making standards work: Researchers report effective strategies for implementing standards. *American School Board Journal*, 187(9), 27–31.
- Kliebard, H. M. (1985). What happened to American schooling in the first part of the twentieth century? In E. Eisner (Ed.), *Learning and teaching the ways of knowing* (pp. 1–22). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Knudsen, L. R., & Morrisette, P. J. (1998). Goals 2000: An analysis and critique. *International Electronic Journal for Leadership in Learning*, 2(4). Retrieved from http://people.ucalgary.ca/~huartson/iejll/volume2/Knudsen2_4.html
- Levin, B. (2012–2013). Staying optimistic in tough times. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 94(4), 74–75.

- Marzano, R. J. (2013). Art and science of teaching: Cognitive verbs and the common core. *Educational Leadership*, 71(1), 78–79.
- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- McCollum, J. (2010). With foresight comes success. *Principal*, 89(5), 52.
- Murphy, J., & Shiffman, C. D. (2002). *Understanding and assessing the charter school movement*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2004). *Homeschooling in the United States: 1999*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- North Idaho State College. (2007). Tech prep leads from high school to technical training, college degrees, and high-demand careers. Retrieved from <http://www.nic.edu/techprep/Region1>
- Oliver, A. I. (1977). *Curriculum improvement: A guide to problems, principles, and process* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- O'Shea, M. R. (2005). *From standards to success*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Parker, F. W. (1894). *Talks on pedagogics*. New York, NY: E. L. Kellogg.
- Provenzo, E. F. (2003). *Contemporary educational thought*. University of Miami School of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.education.miami.edu/ep/contemporaryed/home.html> and http://www.education.miami.edu/ep/contemporaryed/Elliott_Eisner/elliott_eisner.html
- Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1983). Effective schools: A review. *Elementary School Journal*, 83(4), 426–452.
- Ray, B. D. (2006, July 10). *Research facts on homeschooling*. Retrieved from <http://www.exploringhomeschooling.com/ResearchFactsonHomeschooling.aspx>
- Rogers, C. (1969). *Freedom to learn: A view of what education might become*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Ross, J., & Bell, P. (2014, July 1). School is over for the summer. So is the era of majority white U.S. public schools. *National Journal*. Retrieved from: <http://www.nationaljournal.com/next-america/education/school-is-over-for-the-summer-so-is-the-era-of-majority-white-u-s-public-schools-20140701>
- Ryan, J. E. (2009). The big picture. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 90(10), 720–723.
- Sandler, S., & Hammond, Z. (2012–2013). Text and truth: Reading, student experience, and the Common Core. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 94(4), 58–61.
- Sarason, S. B. (1990). *The predictable failure of educational reform*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schwab, J. J. (1969). The practical: A language for curriculum. *School Review*, 78(1), 1–23.
- Schwab, J. J. (1971). The practical: Arts of eclectic. *School Review*, 79(4), 493–542.
- Schwab, J. J. (1973). The practical 3: Translation into curriculum. *School Review*, 81(4), 501–522.
- Schwab, J. J. (1978). Education and the structure of the disciplines. In I. Westbury & N. J. Wilkof (Eds.), *Science, curriculum, and liberal education: Selected essays of Joseph T. Schwab* (pp. 229–270). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Schwab, J. J. (1983). The practical 4: Something for curriculum professors to do. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 13(3), 239–265.
- Staff and Wire Reports. (2011, September 24). States embrace education law change. *Argus Leader*, p. A5.
- Starnes, B. A. (2010). Rethinking diversity. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 92(1), 75.
- Taylor, F. W. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. New York, NY: Harper.
- Thompkins, E., & Gaumnitz, W. H. (1954). *The Carnegie unit: Its origin, status, and trends* (Bulletin No. 7). Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 543699)
- Toch, T. (2010). The Sizer legacy. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 91(5), 75.
- Tomlinson, C. (1999). A differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Tomlinson, C. A., & McTighe, J. (2006). *Integrating differentiated instruction and understanding by design*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Tyler, R. W. (1950). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- US Charter Schools. (2008). *US charter schools history and overview*. Retrieved from http://www.uscharterschools.org/lpt/uscs_docs/309
- Van de Water, G., & Krueger, C. (2002). *P-16 education. Clearinghouse on Educational Policy and Management*. Eugene: College of Education, University of Oregon. Retrieved from <http://eric.uoregon.edu/publications/digests/digest159.html>
- Van Til, W., Vars, G. F., & Lounsbury, J. H. (1961). *Junior high years*. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Verges, J. (2011, July 26). New Indian education standards aim for respect. *Argus Leader*, p. A7.
- Wells, D. (2012). What if all the computers were broken? *Principal*, 91(3), 12–13.
- Whitehead, B. M., Jensen, D. F. N., & Boschee, F. (2013). *Planning for technology: A guide for school administrators, technology coordinators, and curriculum leaders* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.