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ABSTRACT

This paper lists and discusses, in historical progression, books and other writings that are considered to cover the major developments of education in the United States in the 20th century. The paper is intended to help professional educators to know better the great ideas, themes, and books that laid the foundations of education in the United States. Discussion of the writings is organized into historical segments that begin with "Turn of the Century, 1893-1918," and end with "President Bush and America 2000." The paper also describes annotated bibliographies, educational histories, and a number of resources that concern recent trends in education. An alphabetical list of the writings covered also is included. (DB)

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Why This Educational Foundations Books List?

Francis Bacon in Of Studies wrote, "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed; and some to be chewed and digested." The writings listed below in historical context cover the major developments of twentieth century U.S. education through events, books, and other writings important to professional educators who teach Educational Foundations (history, philosophy, and sociology of education). Concerned professional educators need to know the great ideas, themes, and books in their field. This is a list of writings to know about, perhaps to own, at least to seek out in libraries and book stores, to touch, handle, skim, read, reread and, perhaps in Francis Bacon's words, to "chew and digest."

Getting Started: Annotated Bibliographies

One way to start is with books that list and annotate topically selected best education books. These include: Richard G. Durnin, American Education: A Guide to Information Sources, Detroit, MI: Gale Research Co., 1982; Joe Park's earlier The Rise of American Education: An Annotated Bibliography, Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press, 1965; Barbara S. Marks' early The New York University List of Books in Education, New York: Citation Press, 1968; and W. Kenneth Richmond's useful The Literature of Education: A Critical Bibliography, 1945-1970, London: Methuen, 1972.

Durnin's somewhat better work has annotated entries under 108 subject headings from Academic Freedom to Women's Education. Park covers Textbooks, European Backgrounds, Studies in the Development of American Education, Histories in Higher Education, Elementary and Secondary Education, Higher Education, Biographies, Fiction, and Journals, Contemporary Issues and Movements, Microprints, Doctoral Dissertation, and Guides to Sources. The others have similar but varying topical coverage.

Turn of the Century, 1893-1918

The National Education Association (NEA) Committee of Ten report, The Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary Education, Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of Education, 1893, confirmed the traditional conservative role of the high school as college preparatory for an elite. Chairman Charles W. Eliot, Harvard University president, and other members, represented higher education interests. Their elitist selective attitude long held sway, despite the more comprehensive,

practical, and democratic approach in the NEA report, Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 35, 1918. The seven cardinal principles were all embracing: health, command of fundamental processes (basic skills), worthy home membership, vocation, worthy use of leisure, citizenship, and ethical character. John Dewey had earlier urged similar child-centered and society-centered approaches in books defending his experimental University of Chicago lab school program: My Pedagogic Creed, New York: E.L. Kellogg, 1897; School and Society, 1899; The Child and the Curriculum, both, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1902; and other early works, culminating in his Democracy and Education, New York: Macmillan, 1916 (all in print in later editions). For easier access and interpretation, see Martin S. Dworkin, Dewey on Education: Selections with an Introduction and Notes (Classics in Education No. 3), New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Dewey's ideas set the tone and programs of the Progressive Education Association (1917-55) and the longer lasting progressive education movement.

Progressive Education Era

Lawrence A. Cremin's book, which won the Bancroft Prize in History for 1962, is still best: The Transformation of the School: Progressivism in American Education, 1876-1957, New York: Alfred Knopf, 1961. Cremin (1925-90), longtime education professor (1949-90) and president (1974-84) at Teachers College, Columbia University, also won the 1981 Pulitzer Prize for his American Education: The National Experience, 1783-1876, 1970, second of his trilogy which began with American Education: The Colonial Experience, 1970, and ended with American Education: The Metropolitan Experience, 1876-1980, 1988, all published by New York: Harper & Row.

Useful, too, is Patricia A. Graham's (she was Harvard Graduate School of Education dean) Progressive Education from Arcady to Academe: A History of the Progressive Education Association 1919-1955, New York: Teachers College Press, 1967, which focused on PEA's leaders, ideological programs, and the progressive education legacy.

The PEA's 8-Year Study, 1933-41

The 8-year study, 1933-41, compared student academic attainment in 15 traditional and 15 progressive high schools and monitored their progress through four years of college. The study, meant to show the advantages of progressive child-centered schools, was criticized for being less than rigidly scientific. It found that (1) the more experimental the school, the greater the student success in college; and (2) college success did not depend on prescribed high school subjects. The study is described in Wilford M. Aikin, The Story of the Eight-Year Study, New York: Harper & Row, 1942. Ralph W.Tyler's reflections on the 8-year study (he was its research director) and on the later (1970s) National Assessment of Educational

Progress tests (he helped plan them) are in: Kate Strickland's (ed.), "Ralph W. Tyler: A Special Topic Edition," Journal of Thought, XXI, No. 1 (Spring 1986), 118 pp.; and George F. Madaus and Daniel L. Stufflebeam (eds.), Educational Evaluation: Classic Works of Ralph W. Tyler, Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1989.

Social Reconstructionists, 1930s-50s

Some Depression-era progressive educators urged teachers to become activists, discuss controversial problems with students, and help them take sides on socio-economic-political issues. George S. Counts began the movement in his Dare the School Build a New Social Order?, New York: John Day, 1932. He told the story in his autobiographical account in Robert J. Havighurst (ed.), Leaders in American Education: The Seventieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971, Chapter V. Counts (1889-1974) lived long enough to see federal education programs in the mid 1960s aggressively used to try to build the Great Society, an unsuccessful effort dissipated by anti-Vietnam war sentiment.

Harold O. Rugg's analysis of U.S. socioeconomic and political problems, in junior and senior high school social studies textbooks, is described in his autobiographical That Men May Understand: An American in the Long Armistice, New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1941. Theodore Brameld wrote the best later books defending Social Reconstructionism: Education for The Emerging Age: Newer Ends and Stronger Means, New York, Harper, 1961; Education as Power, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965; and Patterns of Educational Philosophy, New York: Holt, 1971.

Conant Reports, 1950s-60s

James Bryant Conant (1893-1978), from his lofty position as president of Harvard University (1933-53) and backed by the Carnegie Corporation and other foundation aid, made significant school reform recommendations decades before the U.S. was ready to accept them.

Conant's Education in a Divided World: The Function of the Public Schools in our Unique Society, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1948, tried (unsuccessfully) to get public agreement on U.S. public school goals (achieved in 1989-91 by the state governors and President Bush). His The American High School Today, 1959, and The Comprehensive High School, 1967, with 21 recommendations, showed how the all-purpose high school could better serve U.S. educational and economic needs. His Slums and Suburbs, 1961 (all, New York, McGraw-Hill) sounded an early but unheeded alarm about drugs and crime in explosive urban schools. Recommendations in his controversial The Education of American Teachers, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963, have, over 25 years later, been urged by the Holmes Group of 97 research university deans of education (Tomorrow's Schools: Principles for the Design of Professional Development: A Report, East Lansing, MI:

Holmes Group, 1990) and in 3 books by John I. Goodlad, et al.: Places Where Teachers Are Taught, The Moral Dimension of Teaching, and Teachers for Our Nation's Schools (all, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1990).

While he was U.S. ambassador to West Germany (1955-57), Conant observed how the several West German states retained their decentralized state school systems but cooperated on national school problems and goals through continuous meetings. Conant's Shaping Educational Policy, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965, urged similar overall U.S. national school planning, while retaining state and locally controlled public education. Aided by the then North Carolina Governor Terry Sanford (later U.S. Senator), Conant's book led to the Interstate Compact on Education (since February 18, 1966), whereby state governors and state legislative representatives meet regularly on national public education problems. The Education Commission of the States, Denver, CO, descendant of this Compact, administers the National Assessment of Educational Progress (which Ralph W. Tyler helped design). Conant's book thus anticipated President Bush's America 2000 plan described below.

The New Learning,1960s-70s

Jerome S. Bruner's The Process of Education, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1961, came from a 1959 Woods Hole, MA, National Academy of Sciences conference. Then as now, subject matter specialists blamed professional educators (and vice versa) for low U.S. student educational attainment. Bruner, Harvard psychologist who introduced Jean Piaget's books to the U.S., wrote what became an oft-quoted sentiment: that any subject can be taught to any child at any age if that subject is logically organized and sequentially arranged. He thus justified psychologically a Piagetian conceptual learning approach. The resulting new biology, new chemistry, new math, and new social studies were financed by the National Science Foundation (founded 1950) and the National Defense Education Act (passed in 1958, following Sputnik, October 5, 1957). These funds financed summer institutes where science and other teachers studied the new curriculum and textbooks. Massachusetts Institute of Technology's Jerrold Zacharias organized many such institutes. This then-called "new learning" waned because concept-oriented middle class students mainly benefited, but not the slower-learning average and below average students. It was curtailed further when funds were cut after the 1973 OPEC (Oil Producing Economic Countries) oil crisis.

Open Education, 1965-75 (Neo-Progressives)

Britain's A. S. Neill's Summerhill: A Radical Approach to Child Rearing, New York: Hart, 1960, was one influence that led to Open Education (or the Open Classroom). Another influence came from British primary schoolteachers, coping with rising enrollments in barely renovated World War II-bombed buildings. Because of space shortage, they used corridors for

small-group study projects. A third influence was Britain's Plowden Report, Children and Their Primary Schools, Redmond City, CA: Pendragon House, 1967, which endorsed a progressive child-centered primary school approach.

U.S. educator-writers visiting Britain brought these progressive elementary school ideas back to the U.S. Education Professor Lillian Weber (at what is now City University of New York) wrote The English Infant School and Informal Education, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1971. Joseph Featherstone wrote admiring New Republic articles on August 8 and September 9, 1967, after visiting open schools in Leicestershire, England. He later wrote Informal Schools in Britain Today: An Introduction, New York: Citation Press, 1971.

Influential, too, was a seemingly sudden awareness of poverty amid affluence in the U. S. In his crucial 1960 West Virginia Democratic Party primary campaign, John F. Kennedy saw at first hand severe Appalachian poverty. After becoming acquainted with Catholic social worker Michael Harrington's The Other America: Poverty in the U.S., 1962, he created Presidential Task Forces on Education and Poverty. The trauma of his November 1963 assassination, and his successor's (President Lyndon B. Johnson) determination to create a Great Society through educational renewal, led to quick congressional action. Congress passed the Economic Opportunity Act, 1964 (creating the Job Corps and Project Head Start), and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965 (ESEA 1965). ESEA Section I, now Chapter I, still gives funds to school districts on the basis of the number of families having incomes below the poverty line. Many school districts used federal aid to start Open Classrooms, before the Vietnam conflict drained away funds.

The Open Education movement was spurred by critic Ivan Illich's Deschooling Society, New York: Harper & Row, 1970, and by compassionate critics' bestselling books. John Holt, one such sensitive middle class ivy-league-educated teacher-writer, described his anguish in trying to reach, teach, and uplift urban Blacks and other failure-prone children. His many books included How Children Fail, New York: Pittman, 1964; What Do I Do Monday, 1970, and Freedom and Beyond, 1972, both New York: Dutton. Holt ultimately gave up on Open Education and became a leader in the parental home schooling movement.

Jonathan Kozol was another compassionate teacher frustrated by having to teach a standard curriculum to Boston minorities. He wrote the National Book Award winner, Death at an Early Age: Destruction of the Hearts and Minds of Negroes in the Boston Public Schools, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967. Herbert Kohl's Thirty-Six Children, New York: New American Library, 1968, told how he abandoned a traditional curriculum to reach 36 sixth grade Black children in East Harlem, New York City. Nat Hentoff's striking, cryptically titled book, was: Our Children Are Dying, New York: Viking, 1966.

Similarly, George Dennison's Lives of Children, New York: Random House, 1969, told of trying to reach 23 children in a New York City slum school. Charles E. Silberman's Carnegie-Corporation financed Crisis in the Classroom, New York: Random House, 1970, marked a high point in the Open Education movement. It gave rise to collections such as his own The Open Classroom Reader, New York: Random House, 1973, whose 75 articles included advice about using materials in Open Education. The movement died because teachers were untrained in Open Education techniques and because of a shortage of funds brought on by the Vietnam War.

Revisionists, Pro and Con

Joel Spring's The Sorting Machine Revisited: National Educational Policy Since 1945, updated edition, New York: Longman, 1989, held that U.S. schools send middle class whites through high schools into colleges and careers. But they cause Blacks and ethnics to drop out, or at best to enter community colleges, perhaps allowing a few to go on to colleges and professional careers. Many young left-leaning Revisionists in the 1960s-70s agreed with Spring. Neoconservative educator Diane Ravitch (she became U.S. Assistant Secretary of Education in 1991) confronted the Revisionists and said that they were dead wrong. Her The Revisionists Revisited: A Critique of the Radical Attack on the Schools, New York: Basic Books, 1978, held that U.S. schools were open doors through which yesterday's immigrant children rose and today's Blacks and ethnics still rise academically, economically, and socially.

Lyndon B. Johnson, the "Eager Education President"

Maurice R. Berube's American Presidents and Education, New York: Greenwood Press, 1991, covering all presidents, writes perceptively on the education attitudes and accomplishments of Franklin D. Roosevelt to George Bush (to 1990). Berube and Charles Dean McCoy, The Education President: Lyndon Baines Johnson's Public Statements on Instruction and the Teaching Profession, Austin: University of Texas Press, 1975, describe President Johnson as the "eager education president." He was motivated to promote education partly because of his teacher-mother; partly because he attended a teachers college (Southwest Texas State College, San Marcos); partly because he yearned for a place in history; but mainly because he saw mass public education (that meant compensatory effort for Blacks, other minorities, and poor whites) as the centerpiece toward achieving his heart's desired Great Society, unfortunately curtailed by anti Vietnam War demonstrations and lack of funds.

Ronald Reagan, the "Reluctant Education President"

President Reagan determined to end or at least reduce the status of the cabinet-level U.S. Department of Education, created by President Jimmy Carter. Reagan favored a lesser federal role and a greater state role in education; urging school prayer, tuition tax credit, and private education. His federal education budgets, proportionately less than those of his

predecessors, were regularly increased by Congress. It was his Education Secretary, Terrel H. Bell, who made Reagan a reluctant education president by issuing an unauthorized hard-hitting report.

Bell told in The Thirteenth Man: A Reagan Cabinet Memoir, New York: Free Press, 1988, how he first decided against accepting the Education Secretary's post when interviewed by President-elect Reagan's counselor, hardliner Edwin Meece. Bell changed his mind when he talked with Mr. Reagan. Believing Reagan to be less dogmatic, he thought he could convince him of education's crucial importance for national defense. Bell thus became the thirteenth, last, and (Republican diehards thought), least promising member of Reagan's first cabinet.

Wanting to jar the public to reform schools and to prod the President into educational leadership, Bell proposed a distinguished panel to urge educational improvement that would strengthen the U.S. in international competition. Reagan aides rebuffed him, saying that such federal reports had little impact and anyway that education was a state and not a federal responsibility. Bell, however, quietly commissioned and widely distributed A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, April 1983. Bristling with apocalyptic rhetoric and military analogies, it was more a political than a scholarly analysis. Yet it was the right report at the right time, published amid a flagging economy, foreign competition, Japanese technological advances, and growing deficits. The report dramatically blamed inadequate education for U.S. economic and world decline. The possibility of becoming a second rate power because of poor schools startled the public. Stunned after seeing the report's impact, Reagan reversed himself on abolishing the Education Department; muted his calls for school prayer, tuition tax credits, and vouchers; and used his office to promote education reform. A Nation at Risk triggered the 1980s "Excellence in Education" school reform movement and helped bring on President Bush"s America 2000 school reform initiative.

Having irritated Reagan aides and believing they did not want to keep him, Bell resigned late in 1984. His successor, William J. Bennett, used his high-profile style to expand the rhetoric about the education excellence movement.

President Reagan's education influence is analyzed in William W. Wayson, et al., Up From Excellence: The Impact of the Excellence Movement on the Schools, Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Foundation, 1988; and Occasional Papers from Charlottesville, Policy Studies Center, University Council for Educational Administration, University of Virginia: Deborah A. Verstegen, Fiscal Policy for Education in the Reagan Administration, Paper No. 5, May 1988; and David L. Clark and Terry A. Astuto, Education Policy After Reagan--What Next?, Paper No. 6, June 1988.

President Bush and America 2000

The Education Summit called by President Bush in September 1989 brought state governors together to set national education goals to be achieved by the year 2000. These 6 goals are: (1) all children to start school ready to learn; (2) a 90 percent high school graduation rate; (3) national competency tests in English, math, science, history, and geography in grades 4, 8, and 12; (4) U.S. students to be first in the world in science and math; (5) every adult to be a literate, responsible citizen, and to have knowledge and skills to compete in a global economy; and (6) schools that are drug-free and violence-free and that offer a disciplined learning environment.

These goals, amplified in America 2000: An Education Strategy, Sourcebook, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1991, include a national curriculum and national testing along traditional European selective education lines. (The New York Times, [August 2, 1991, p. A9] identified as a major strategist behind this bold initiative Vanderbilt University's Chester E. Finn, Jr., Assistant Secretary of Education for Research under President Reagan.) Important commentaries are in: Voices from the Field: 30 Expert Opinions on America 2000, The Bush Administration Strategy To "Reinvent" America's Schools, Washington, DC, William T. Grant Foundation, 1991; and the Heritage Foundation, "Assessing the Bush Education Proposal," Issue Bulletin, No. 166 (June 28, 1991).

A key ingredient in the Bush plan, parental choice (to select from among public schools and private schools), was stoutly defended in John E. Chubb and Terry M. Moe, Politics, Markets, and American Schools, Washington, DC: Brookings Institution, 1990. This book, the legal acceptance of choice in Minnesota and elsewhere, and opinion polls show growing public support for choice.

Tying Ends Together

For a good neoconservative overview of the period covered see Diane Ravitch, The Troubled Crusade: American Education 1945-1980, 1983; and her The Schools We Deserve: Reflections on the Educational Crisis of our Time, 1985, both New York: Basic Books.

Longer views are in selected U.S. education histories: Adolphe E. Meyer, An Educational History of the American People, 2nd ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967; E. Warren Button and Eugene F. Provenzo, Jr., History of Education and Culture in America, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1983; and John D. Pulliam, History of Education in America, 4th ed., Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1987. Also good are Daniel and Laurel Tanner's sweeping curriculum histories: Curriculum Development: Theory into Practice, 2nd ed., New York: Macmillan, 1980; and their even better History of the School Curriculum, New York: Macmillan, 1990.

For biographical sketches, there is John F. Ohles, ed., Biographical Dictionary of American Educators, 3 vols., Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1978, with a printed page or so (with sources) on each of 1,665 educators of some renown. Also insightful is University of Wisconsin historian Merle Curti's The Social Ideas of American Educators, Totow , NJ: Littlefield, Adams, 1968, giving the educational influence of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Booker T. Washington, William Torrey Harris, Catholic Bishop Spalding, Francis Wayland Parker, G. Stanley Hall, William James, Edward Lee Thorndike, John Dewey, and the post-World War II years.

A recent overview on teacher education is W. Robert Houston, et al., Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: A Project of the Association of Teacher Educators, New York: Macmillan, 1990.

Keeping Up

To keep up, see the annual "Education" articles in encyclopedia yearbooks: Americana, Britannica, Collier's, World Book, and others. Articles on current education issues are in the biennial Annual Editions Education and in James W. Noll's frequently updated Taking Sides: Clashing Views on Controversial Educational Issues, 6th ed., 1991, both published by Dushkin, Guilford, CT. American Educational Research Association, The Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 5th ed., 4 vols., Washington, DC: AERA, 1982, presents expert reviews of research findings on 256 education topics. Previous editions were in 1941, 1950, 1960, and 1969. It is supplemented by the quarterly Review of Educational Research. Two well-known education journals are Education Week, P.O. Box 2083; and Chronicle of Higher Education, P.O. Box 1955, both Marion, OH 43305.

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