

The hidden curriculum assignment



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From Social Class and the Hidden Curriculum of Work JEAN ANYON This essay first appeared in Journal of Education, Vol. 162, no. 1, Fall 1980.) It's no surprise that schools in wealthy communities are better than those in poor communities, or that they better prepare their students for desirable jobs. It may be shocking, however, to learn how vast the differences in schools are - not so much in resources as in teaching methods and philosophies of education.

Jean Anyon observed five elementary schools over the course of a full school year and concluded that fifth-graders of different economic backgrounds are already being prepared to occupy particular rungs on the social ladder. In a sense, some whole schools are on the vocational education track, while others are geared to produce future doctors, lawyers, and business leaders.

Anyon's main audience is professional educators, so you may find her style and vocabulary challenging, but, once you've read her descriptions of specific classroom activities, the more analytic parts of the essay should prove easier to understand. Anyon is chairperson of the Department of Education at Rutgers University, Newark; Scholars in political economy and the sociology of knowledge have recently argued that public schools in complex industrial societies like our own make available different types of educational experience and curriculum knowledge to students in different social classes.

Bowles and Gintis¹ for example, have argued that students in different social-class backgrounds are rewarded for classroom behaviors that correspond to personality traits allegedly rewarded in the different

occupational strata—the working classes for docility and obedience, the managerial classes for initiative and personal assertiveness. Basil Bernstein, Pierre Bourdieu, and Michael W.

Apple focusing on school knowledge, have argued that knowledge and skills leading to social power and regard (medical, legal, managerial) are made available to the advantaged social groups but are withheld from the working classes to whom a more “ practical” curriculum is offered (manual skills, clerical knowledge). While there has been considerable argumentation of these points regarding education in England, France, and North America, there has been little or no attempt to investigate these ideas empirically in elementary or secondary schools and classrooms in this country. ³ This article offers tentative empirical support (and qualification) of the above arguments by providing illustrative examples of differences in student work in classrooms in contrasting social class communities. The examples were gathered as part of an ethnographical⁴ study of curricular, pedagogical, and pupil evaluation practices in five elementary schools. The article attempts a theoretical contribution as well and assesses student work in the light of a theoretical approach to social-class analysis.. It will be suggested that there is a “ hidden curriculum” in schoolwork that has profound implications for the theory - and consequence - of everyday activity in education.... The Sample of Schools ... The social-class designation of each of the five schools will be identified, and the income, occupation, and other relevant available social characteristics of the students and their parents will be described. The first three schools are in a medium-sized city district in northern New Jersey, and

the other two are in a nearby New Jersey suburb. The first two schools I will call working class schools.

Most of the parents have blue-collar jobs. Less than a third of the fathers are skilled, while the majority are in unskilled or semiskilled jobs. During the period of the study (1978-1979), approximately 15 percent of the fathers were unemployed. The large majority (85 percent) of the families are white. The following occupations are typical: platform, storeroom, and stockroom workers; foundry-men, pipe welders, and boilermakers; semiskilled and unskilled assembly-line operatives; gas station attendants, auto mechanics, maintenance workers, and security guards.

Less than 30 percent of the women work, some part-time and some full-time, on assembly lines, in storerooms and stockrooms, as waitresses, barmaids, or sales clerks. Of the fifth-grade parents, none of the wives of the skilled workers had jobs. Approximately 15 percent of the families in each school are at or below the federal "poverty" level; 5 most of the rest of the family incomes are at or below \$12,000, except some of the skilled workers whose incomes are higher. The incomes of the majority of the families in these two schools (at or below \$12,000) are typical of 38.6 percent of the families in the United States. The third school is called the middle-class school, although because of 5 neighborhood residence patterns, the population is a mixture of several social classes. The parents' occupations can be divided into three groups: a small group of blue-collar "rich," who are skilled, well-paid workers such as printers, carpenters, plumbers, and construction workers. The second group is composed of parents in working-class and middle-class white-collar jobs: women in office jobs, technicians, supervisors in industry,

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and parents employed by the city (such as firemen, policemen, and several of the school's teachers).

The third group is composed of occupations such as personnel directors in local firms, accountants, "middle management," and a few small capitalists (owners of shops in the area). The children of several local doctors attend this school. Most family incomes are between \$13,000 and \$25,000, with a few higher. This income range is typical of 38.9 percent of the families in the United States.⁷ The fourth school has a parent population that is at the upper income level of the upper middle class and is predominantly professional. This school will be called the affluent professional school.

Typical jobs are: cardiologist, interior designer, corporate lawyer or engineer, executive in advertising or television. There are some families who are not as affluent as the majority (the family of the superintendent of the district's schools, and the one or two families in which the fathers are skilled workers). In addition, a few of the families are more affluent than the majority and can be classified in the capitalist class (a partner in a prestigious Wall Street stock brokerage firm). Approximately 90 percent of the children in this school are white.

Most family incomes are between \$40,000 and \$80,000. This income span represents approximately 7 percent of the families in the United States.⁸ In the fifth school the majority of the families belong to the capitalist class. This school will be called the executive elite school because most of the fathers are top executives (for example, presidents and vice-presidents) in major United States-based multinational corporations - for example, AT&T, RCA,

Citibank, American Express, U. S. Steel. A sizable group of fathers are top executives in financial firms in Wall Street.

There are also a number of fathers who list their occupations as “ general counsel” to a particular corporation, and these corporations are also among the large multi-nationals. Many of the mothers do volunteer work in the Junior League, Junior Fortnightly, or other service groups; some are intricately involved in town politics; and some are themselves in well-paid occupations. There are no minority children in the school. Almost all the family incomes are over \$100, 000 with some in the \$500, 000 range. The incomes in this school represent less than 1 percent of the families in the United States. Since each of the five schools is only one instance of elementary education in a particular social class context, I will not generalize beyond the sample. However, the examples of schoolwork which follow will suggest characteristics of education in each social setting that appear to have theoretical and social significance and to be worth investigation in a larger number of schools. The Working Class Schools In the two working-class schools, work is following the steps of a procedure. The procedure is usually mechanical, involving rote behavior and very little decision making or choice.

The teachers rarely explain why the work is being assigned, how it might connect to other assignments, or what the idea is that lies behind the procedure or gives it coherence and perhaps meaning or significance. Available textbooks are not always used, and the teachers often prepare their own dittos or put work examples on the board. Most of the rules regarding work are designations of what the children are to do; the rules are

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steps to follow. These steps are told to the children by the teachers and are often written on the board. The children are usually told to copy the steps as notes.

These notes are to be studied. Work is often evaluated not according to whether it is right or wrong but according to whether the children followed the right steps. The following examples illustrate these points. In math, when two-digit division was introduced, the teacher in one school gave a four-minute lecture on what the terms are called (which number is the divisor, dividend, quotient, and remainder). The children were told to copy these names in their notebooks. Then the teacher told them the steps to follow to do the problems, saying, “ This is how you do them. The teacher listed the steps on the board, and they appeared several days later as a chart hung in the middle of the front wall: “ Divide, Multiply, Subtract, Bring Down. ” The children often did examples of two-digit division. When the teacher went over the examples with them, he told them what the procedure was for each problem, rarely asking them to conceptualize or explain it themselves: “ Three into twenty-two is seven; do your subtraction and one is left over. ” During the week that two-digit division was introduced (or at any other time), the investigator did not observe any discussion of the idea of grouping involved in division, any use of manipulables, or any attempt to relate two-digit division to any other mathematical process. Nor was there any attempt to relate the steps to an actual or possible thought process of the children. The observer did not hear the terms dividend, quotient, and so on, used again. The math teacher in the other working-class school followed similar

procedures regarding two-digit division and at one point her class seemed confused. She said, " You're confusing yourselves.

You're tensing up. Remember, when you do this, it's the same steps over and over again—and that's the way division always is. " Several weeks later, after a test, a group of her children " still didn't get it," and she made no attempt to explain the concept of dividing things into groups or to give them manipulables for their own investigation. Rather, she went over the steps with them again and told them that they " needed more practice. " In other areas of math, work is also carrying out often unexplained fragmented procedures.

For example, one of the teachers led the children through a series of steps to make a 1-inch grid on their paper without telling them that they were making a 1-inch grid or that it would be used to study scale. She said, " Take your ruler. Put it across the top. Make a mark at every number. Then move your ruler down to the bottom. No, put it across the bottom. Now make a mark on top of every number. Now draw a line from... " At this point a girl said that she had a faster way to do it and the teacher said, " No, you don't; you don't even know what I'm making yet. Do it this way or it's wrong. After they had made the lines up and down and across, the teacher told them she wanted them to make a figure by connecting some dots and to measure that, using the scale of 1 inch equals 1 mile. Then they were to cut it out. She said, " Don't cut it until I check it. " In both working-class schools, work in language arts is mechanics of punctuation (commas, periods, question marks, exclamation points), capitalization, and the four kinds of sentences. One teacher explained to me, " Simple punctuation is all they'll ever use. "

Regarding punctuation, either a teacher or a ditto stated the rules for where, for example, to put commas.

The investigator heard no classroom discussion of the aural context of punctuation (which, of course, is what gives each mark its meaning). Nor did the investigator hear any statement or inference that placing a punctuation mark could be a decision-making process, depending, for example, on one's intended meaning. Rather, the children were told to follow the rules.

Language arts did not involve creative writing. There were several writing assignments throughout the year but in each instance the children were given a ditto, and they wrote answers to questions on the sheet.

For example, they wrote their " autobiography" by answering such questions as " Where were you born? " " What is your favorite animal? " on a sheet entitled " All About Me. " In one of the working-class schools, the class had a science period several times a week. On the three occasions observed, the children were not called upon to set up experiments or to give explanations for facts or concepts. Rather, on each occasion the teacher told them in his own words what the book said. The children copied the teacher's sentences from the board.

Each day that preceded the day they were to do a science experiment, the teacher told them to copy the directions from the book for the procedure they would carry out the next day and to study the list at home that night. The day after each experiment, the teacher went over what they had " found" (they did the experiments as a class, and each was actually a class demonstration led by the teacher). Then the teacher wrote what they "

found” on the board, and the children copied that in their notebooks. Once or twice a year there are science projects.

The project is chosen and assigned by the teacher from a box of 3-by-5-inch cards. On the card the teacher has written the question to be answered, the books to use, and how much to write. Explaining the cards to the observer, the teacher said, “ It tells them exactly what to do, or they couldn’t do it. ” Social studies in the working-class schools is also largely mechanical, rote work that was given little explanation or connection to larger contexts. In one school, for example, although there was a book available, social studies work was to copy the teacher’s notes from the board.

Several times a week for a period of several months the children copied these notes. The fifth grades in the district were to study United States history. The teacher used a booklet she had purchased called “ The Fabulous Fifty States. ” Each day she put information from the booklet in outline form on the board and the children copied it. The type of information did not vary: the name of the state, its abbreviation, state capital, nickname of the state, its main products, main business, and a “ Fabulous Fact” (“ Idaho grew twenty-seven billion potatoes in one year. That’s enough potatoes for each man, woman, and...) As the children finished copying the sentences, the teacher erased them and wrote more. Children would occasionally go to the front to pull down the wall map in order to locate the states they were copying, and the teacher did not dissuade them. But the observer never saw her refer to the map; nor did the observer ever hear her make other than perfunctory remarks concerning the information the children were copying.

Occasionally the children colored in a ditto and cut it out to make a stand-up figure (representing, for example, a man roping a cow in the Southwest).

These were referred to by the teacher as their social studies " projects. "

Rote behavior was often called for in classroom work. When going over 15 math and language art skills sheets, for example, as the teacher asked for the answer to each problem, he fired the questions rapidly, staccato, and the scene reminded the observer of a sergeant drilling recruits: above all, the questions demanded that you stay at attention: " The next one? What do I put here?. . . Here? Give us the next. " Or " How many commas in this sentence? Where do I put them . . .

The next one? " The four fifth grade teachers observed in the working-class schools attempted to control classroom time and space by making decisions without consulting the children and without explaining the basis for their decisions. The teacher's control thus often seemed capricious. Teachers, for instance, very often ignored the bells to switch classes - deciding among themselves to keep the children after the period was officially over to continue with the work or for disciplinary reasons or so they (the teachers) could stand in the hall and talk.

There were no clocks in the rooms in either school, and the children often asked, " What period is this? " " When do we go to gym? " The children had no access to materials. These were handed out by teachers and closely guarded. Things in the room " belonged" to the teacher: " Bob, bring me my garbage can. " The teachers continually gave the children orders. Only three times did the investigator hear a teacher in either working-class school

preface a directive with an unsarcastic “ please,” or “ let’s” or “ would you. Instead, the teachers said, “ Shut up,” “ Shut your mouth,” “ Open your books,” “ Throw your gum away-if you want to rot your teeth, do it on your own time. ” Teachers made every effort to control the movement of the children, and often shouted, ““ Why are you out of your seat??!! ” If the children got permission to leave the room, they had to take a written pass with the date and time.... Middle-Class School In the middle-class school, work is getting the right answer. If one accumulates enough right answers, one gets a good grade.

One must follow the directions in order to get the right answers, but the directions often call for some figuring, some choice, some decision making. For example, the children must often figure out by themselves what the directions ask them to do and how to get the answer: what do you do first, second, and perhaps third? Answers are usually found in books or by listening to the teacher. Answers are usually words, sentences, numbers, or facts and dates; one writes them on paper, and one should be neat. Answers must be given in the right order, and one cannot make them up.

The following activities are illustrative. Math involves some choice: one may do two-digit division the long way or the short way, and there are some math problems that can be done “ in your head. ” When the teacher explains how to do two-digit division, there is recognition that a cognitive process is involved; she gives you several ways and says, “ I want to make sure you understand what you’re doing-so you get it right”; and, when they go over the homework, she asks the children to tell how they did the problem and what answer they got.

In social studies the daily work is to read the assigned pages in the textbook and to answer the teacher's questions. The questions are almost always designed to check on whether the students have read the assignment and understood it: who did so-and-so; what happened after that; when did it happen, where, and sometimes, why did it happen? The answers are in the book and in one's understanding of the book; the teacher's hints when one doesn't know the answers are to "read it again" or to look at the picture or at the rest of the paragraph. One is to search for the answer in the "context," in what is given.

Language arts is "simple grammar, what they need for everyday life." The language arts teacher says, "They should learn to speak properly, to write business letters and thank-you letters, and to understand what nouns and verbs and simple subjects are." Here, as well, actual work is to choose the right answers, to understand what is given. The teacher often says, "Please read the next sentence and then I'll question you about it." One teacher said in some exasperation to a boy who was fooling around in class, "If you don't know the answers to the questions I ask, then you can't stay in this class! pause] You never know the answers to the questions I ask, and it's not fair to me-and certainly not to you!" Most lessons are based on the textbook. This does not involve a critical perspective on what is given there. For example, a critical perspective in social studies is perceived as dangerous by these teachers because it may lead to controversial topics; the parents might complain. The children, however, are often curious especially in social studies. Their questions are tolerated and usually answered perfunctorily.

But after a few minutes the teacher will say, " All right, we're not going any farther. Please open your social studies workbook. " While the teachers spend a lot of time explaining and expanding on what the textbooks say, there is little attempt to analyze how or why things happen, or to give thought to how pieces of a culture, or, say, a system of numbers or elements of a language fit together or can be analyzed. What has happened in the past and what exists now may not be equitable or fair, but (shrug) that is the way things are and one does not confront such matters in school.

For example, in social studies after a child is called on to read a passage about the pilgrims, the teacher summarizes the paragraph and then says, " So you can see how strict they were about everything. " A child asks, " Why? " " Well, because they felt that if you weren't busy you'd get into trouble. " Another child asks, " Is it true that they burned women at the stake? " The teacher says, " Yes, if a woman did anything strange, they hanged them. [sic] What would a woman do, do you think, to make them burn them? sic] See if you can come up with better answers than my other [social studies] class. " Several children offer suggestions, to which the teacher nods but does not comment. Then she says, " Okay, good," and calls on the next child to read. Work tasks do not usually request creativity. Serious attention is rarely given in school work on how the children develop or express their own feelings and ideas, either linguistically or in graphic form. On the occasions when creativity or self-expression is requested, it is peripheral to the main activity or it is " enriched" or " for fun. During a lesson on what similes are, for example, the teacher explains what they are, puts several on the board, gives some other examples herself, and then asks the children if they can "

make some up. ” She calls on three children who give similes, two of which are actually in the book they have open before them. The teacher does not comment on this and then asks several others to choose similes from the list of phrases in the book. Several do so correctly, and she says, “ Oh good! You’re picking them out! See how good we are? ” Their homework is to pick out the rest of the similes from the list.

Creativity is not often requested in social studies and science projects, either. Social studies projects, for example, are given with directions to “ find information on your topic” and write it up. The children are not supposed to copy but to “ put it in your own words. ” Although a number of the projects subsequently went beyond the teacher’s direction to find information and had quite expressive covers and inside illustrations, the teacher’s evaluative comments had to do with the amount of information, whether they had “ copied,” and if their work was neat.

The style of control of the three fifth-grade teachers observed in this school varied from somewhat easygoing to strict, but in contrast to the working-class schools, the teachers’ decisions were usually based on external rules and regulations—for example, on criteria that were known or available to the children. Thus, the teachers always honor the bells for changing classes, and they usually evaluate children’s work by what is in the textbooks and answer booklets. There is little excitement in schoolwork for the children, and the assignments are perceived as having little to do with their interests and feelings.

As one child said, what you do is “ store facts up in your head like cold storage - until you need it later for a test or your job. ” Thus, doing well is important because there are thought to be other likely rewards: a good job or college. 10 Affluent Professional School In the affluent professional school, work is creative activity carried out independently. The students are continually asked to express and apply ideas and concepts. Work involves individual thought and expressiveness, expansion and illustration of ideas, and choice of appropriate method and material. The class is not considered an open classroom, and the principal explained that because of the large number of discipline problems in the fifth grade this year they did not departmentalize. The teacher who agreed to take part in the study said she is “ more structured this year than she usually is.) The products of work in this class are often written stories, editorials and essays, or representations of ideas in mural, graph, or craft form. The products of work should not be like anybody else’s and should show individuality. They should exhibit good design, and (this is important) they must also fit empirical reality.

The relatively few rules to be followed regarding work are usually criteria for, or limits on, individual activity. One’s product is usually evaluated for the quality of its expression and for the appropriateness of its conception to the task. In many cases, one’s own satisfaction with the product is an important criterion for its evaluation. When right answers are called for, as in commercial materials like SRA (Science Research Associates) and math, it is important that the children decide on an answer as a result of thinking about the idea involved in what they’re being asked to do.

Teacher's hints are to " think about it some more. " The following activities are illustrative. The class takes home a sheet requesting each child's parents to fill in the number of cars they have, the number of television sets, refrigerators, games, or rooms in the house, and so on. Each child is to figure the average number of a type of possession owned by the fifth grade. Each child must compile the " data" from all the sheets. A calculator is available in the classroom to do the mechanics of finding the average. Some children decide to send sheets to the fourth-grade families for comparison.

Their work should be " verified" by a classmate before it is handed in. Each child and his or her family has made a geoboard. The teacher asks the class to get their geoboards from the side cabinet, to take a handful of rubber bands, and then to listen to what she would like them to do. She says, " I would like you to design a figure and then find the perimeter and area. When you have it, check with your neighbor. After you've done that, please transfer it to graph paper and tomorrow I'll ask you to make up a question about it for someone.

When you hand it in, please let me know whose it is and who verified it. Then I have something else for you to do that's really fun. [pause] Find the average number of chocolate chips in three cookies. I'll give you three cookies, and you'll have to eat your way through, I'm afraid! " Then she goes around the room and gives help, suggestions, praise, and admonitions that they are getting noisy. They work sitting, or standing up at their desks, at benches in the back, or on the floor. A child hands the teacher his paper and she comments, " I'm not accepting this paper.

Do a better design. ” To another child she says, “ That’s fantastic! But you’ll never find the area. Why don’t you draw a figure inside [the big one] and subtract to get the area? ” The school district requires the fifth grade to study ancient civilization (in particular, Egypt, Athens, and Sumer). In this classroom, the emphasis is on illustrating and re-creating the culture of the people of ancient times. The following are typical activities: the children made an 8mm film on Egypt, which one of the parents edited.

A girl in the class wrote the script, and the class acted it out. They put the sound on themselves. They read stories of those days. They wrote essays and stories depicting the lives of the people and the societal and occupational divisions. They chose from a list of projects, all of which involved graphical presentations of ideas: for example. “ Make a mural depicting the division of labor in Egyptian society. ” Each wrote and exchanged a letter in hieroglyphics with a fifth grader in another class, and they also exchanged stories they wrote in cuneiform.

They made a scroll and singed the edges so it looked authentic. They each chose an occupation and made an Egyptian plaque representing that occupation, simulating the appropriate Egyptian design. They carved their design on a cylinder of wax, pressed the wax into clay, and then baked the clay. Although one girl did not choose an occupation but carved instead a series of gods and slaves, the teacher said, “ That’s all right, Amber, it’s beautiful. ” As they were working the teacher said, “ Don’t cut into your clay until you’re satisfied with your design. Social studies also involves almost daily presentation by the children of some event from the news. The teacher’s questions ask the children to expand what they say, to give more

details, and to be more specific. Occasionally she adds some remarks to help them see connections between events. The emphasis on expressing and illustrating ideas in social studies is accompanied in language arts by an emphasis on creative writing. Each child wrote a rebus story for a first grader whom they had interviewed to see what kind of story the child liked best. They wrote editorials on pending decisions by the school board and radio plays, some of which were read over the school intercom from the office and one of which was performed in the auditorium. There is no language arts textbook because, the teacher said, "The principal wants us to be creative." There is not much grammar, but there is punctuation. One morning when the observer arrived, the class was doing a punctuation ditto. The teacher later apologized for using the ditto. "It's just for review," she said. "I don't teach punctuation that way. We use their language." The ditto had three unambiguous rules for where to put commas in a sentence.

As the teacher was going around to help the children with the ditto, she repeated several times, "where you put commas depends on how you say the sentence; it depends on the situation and what you want to say. Several weeks later the observer saw another punctuation activity. The teacher had printed a five-paragraph story on an oak tag and then cut it into phrases. She read the whole story to the class from the book, then passed out the phrases. The group had to decide how the phrases could best be put together again. (They arranged the phrases on the floor. The point was not to replicate the story, although that was not irrelevant, but to "decide what you think the best way is." Punctuation marks on cardboard pieces were then handed out, and the children discussed and then decided what mark

was best at each place they thought one was needed. At the end of each paragraph the teacher asked, “ Are you satisfied with the way the paragraphs are now? Read it to yourself and see how it sounds. ” Then she read the original story again, and they compared the two. Describing her goals in science to the investigator, the teacher said, “ We use ESS (Elementary Science Study).

It’s very good because it gives a hands-on experience—so they can make sense out of it. It doesn’t matter whether it [what they find] is right or wrong. I bring them together and there’s value in discussing their ideas. ” The products of work in this class are often highly valued by the children and the teacher. In fact, this was the only school in which the investigator was not allowed to take original pieces of the children’s work for her files. If the work was small enough, however, and was on paper, the investigator could duplicate it on the copying machine in the office.

The teacher’s attempt to control the class involves constant negotiation. She does not give direct orders unless she is angry because the children have been too noisy. Normally, she tries to get them to foresee the consequences of their actions and to decide accordingly. For example, lining them up to go see a play written by the sixth graders, she says, “ I presume you’re lined up by someone with whom you want to sit. I hope you’re lined up by someone you won’t get in trouble with. “... One of the few rules governing the children’s movement is that no more than three children may be out of the room at once.

There is a school rule that anyone can go to the library at any time to get a book. In the fifth grade I observed, they sign their name on the chalkboard and leave. There are no passes. Finally, the children have a fair amount of officially sanctioned say over what happens in the class. For example, they often negotiate what work is to be done. If the teacher wants to move on to the next subject, but the children say they are not ready, they want to work on their present projects some more, she very often lets them do it.

Executive Elite School In the executive elite school, work is developing one's analytical intellectual powers. Children are continually asked to reason through a problem, to produce intellectual products that are both logically sound and of top academic quality. A primary goal of thought is to conceptualize rules by which elements may fit together in systems and then to apply these rules in solving a problem. Schoolwork helps one to achieve, to excel, to prepare for life. The following are illustrative. The math teacher teaches area and perimeter by having the children derive formulas for each.

First she helps them, through discussion at the board, to arrive at $A = W \times L$ as a formula (not the formula) for area. After discussing several, she says, "Can anyone make up a formula for perimeter? Can you figure that out yourselves? [pause] Knowing what we know, can we think of a formula?" She works out three children's suggestions at the board, saying to two, "Yes, that's a good one," and then asks the class if they can think of any more. No one volunteers. To prod them, she says, "If you use rules and good reasoning, you get many ways. Chris, can you think up a formula? She discusses two-digit division with the children as a decision-making process. Presenting a new type of problem to them, she asks, "What's the first

decision you'd make if presented with this kind of example? What is the first thing you'd think? Craig? " Craig says, " To find my first partial quotient. " She responds, " Yes, that would be your first decision. How would you do that? " Craig explains, and then the teacher says, " OK, we'll see how that works for you. " The class tries his way. Subsequently, she comments on the merits and shortcomings of several other children's decisions.

Later, she tells the investigator that her goals in math are to develop their reasoning and mathematical thinking and that, unfortunately, " there's no time for manipulables. " While right answers are important in math, they are not " given" by the book or by the teacher but may be challenged by the children. Going over some problems in late September the teacher says, " Raise your hand if you do not agree. " A child says, " I don't agree with sixty-four. " The teacher responds, " OK, there's a question about sixty-four. [to class] Please check it. Owen, they're disagreeing with you. Kristen, they're checking yours. The teacher emphasized this repeatedly during September and October with statements like " Don't be afraid to say you disagree. In the last [math] class, somebody disagreed, and they were right. Before you disagree, check yours, and if you still think we're wrong, then we'll check it out. " By Thanksgiving, the children did not often speak in terms of right and wrong math problems but of whether they agreed with the answer that had been given. There are complicated math mimeos with many word problems. Whenever they go over the examples, they discuss how each child has set up the problem.

The children must explain it precisely. On one occasion the teacher said, " I'm more-just as interested in how you set up the problem as in what answer

you find. If you set up a problem in a good way, the answer is easy to find. Social studies work is most often reading and discussion of concepts and independent research. There are only occasional artistic, expressive, or illustrative projects. Ancient Athens and Sumer are, rather, societies to analyze. The following questions are typical of those that guide the children's independent research. " What mistakes did Pericles make after the war? " " What mistakes did the citizens of Athens make? " " What are the elements of a civilization? " " How did Greece build an economic empire? " " Compare the way Athens chose its leaders with the way we choose ours. "

Occasionally the children are asked to make up sample questions for their social studies tests. On an occasion when the investigator was present, the social studies teacher rejected a child's question by saying, " That's just fact. If I asked you that question on a test, you'd complain it was just memory! Good questions ask for concepts. In social studies—but also in reading, science, and health—the teachers initiate classroom discussions of current social issues and problems. These discussions occurred on every one of the investigator's visits, and a teacher told me, " These children's opinions are important - it's important that they learn to reason things through. " The classroom discussions always struck the observer as quite realistic and analytical, dealing with concrete social issues like the following: " Why do workers strike? " " Is that right or wrong? " " Why do we have inflation, and what can be done to stop it? " Why do companies put chemicals in food when the natural ingredients are available? " and so on. Usually the children did not have to be prodded to give their opinions. In fact, their statements and the interchanges between them struck the observer as quite sophisticated conceptually and verbally, and well-informed. Occasionally the

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teachers would prod with statements such as, “ Even if you don’t know [the answers], if you think logically about it, you can figure it out. ” And “ I’m asking you [these] questions to help you think this through. ” Language arts emphasizes language as a complex system, one that should be mastered.

The children are asked to diagram sentences of complex grammatical construction, to memorize irregular verb conjugations (he lay, he has lain, and so on ...), and to use the proper participles, conjunctions, and interjections in their speech. The teacher (the same one who teaches social studies) told them, “ It is not enough to get these right on tests; you must use what you learn [in grammar classes] in your written and oral work. I will grade you on that. ” Most writing assignments are either research reports and essays for social studies or experiment analyses and write-ups for science.

There is only an occasional story or other “ creative writing ” assignment. On the occasion observed by the investigator (the writing of a Halloween story), the points the teacher stressed in preparing the children to write involved the structural aspects of a story rather than the expression of feelings or other ideas. The teacher showed them a filmstrip, “ The Seven Parts of a Story, ” and lectured them on plot development, mood setting, character development, consistency, and the use of a logical or appropriate ending. The stories they subsequently wrote were, in fact, well-structured, but many were also personal and expressive.

The teacher’s evaluative comments, however, did not refer to the expressiveness or artistry but were all directed toward whether they had “

developed” the story well. Language arts work also involved a large amount of practice in presentation of the self and in managing situations where the child was expected to be in charge. For example, there was a series of assignments in which each child had to be a “ student teacher. ” The child had to plan a lesson in grammar, outlining, punctuation, or other language arts topic and explain the concept to the class.

Each child was to prepare a worksheet or game and a homework assignment as well. After each presentation, the teacher and other children gave a critical appraisal of the “ student teacher’s” performance. Their criteria were: whether the student spoke clearly, whether the lesson was interesting, whether the student made any mistakes, and whether he or she kept control of the class. On an occasion when a child did not maintain control, the teacher said, “ When you’re up there, you have authority and you have to use it. I’ll back you up. The executive elite school is the only school where bells do not demarcate the periods of time. The two fifth-grade teachers were very strict about changing classes on schedule, however, as specific plans for each session had been made. The teachers attempted to keep tight control over the children during lessons, and the children were sometimes flippant, boisterous, and occasionally rude. However, the children may be brought into line by reminding them that “ It is up to you. ” “ You must control yourself,” “ you are responsible for your work,” you must “ set your own priorities. One teacher told a child, “ You are the only driver of your car- and only you can regulate your speed. ” A new teacher complained to the observer that she had thought “ these children” would have more control. While strict attention to the lesson at hand is required, the teachers make

relatively little attempt to regulate the movement of the children at other times. For example, except for the kindergartners the children in this school do not have to wait for the bell to ring in the morning; they may go to their classroom when they arrive at school.

Fifth graders often came early to read, to finish work, or to catch up. After the first two months of school, the fifth-grade teachers did not line the children up to change classes or to go to gym, and so on, but, when the children were ready and quiet, they were told they could go—sometimes without the teachers. In the classroom, the children could get materials when they needed them and took what they needed from closets and from the teacher's desk. They were in charge of the office at lunchtime.

During class they did not have to sign out or ask permission to leave the room; they just got up and left. Because of the pressure to get work done, however, they did not leave the room very often. The teachers were very polite to the children, and the investigator heard no sarcasm, no nasty remarks, and few direct orders. The teachers never called the children “honey” or “dear” but always called them by name. The teachers were expected to be available before school, after school, and for part of their lunchtime to provide extra help if needed.

The foregoing analysis of differences in schoolwork in contrasting social class contexts suggests the following conclusion: the “hidden curriculum” of schoolwork is tacit preparation for relating to the process of production in a particular way. Differing curricular, pedagogical, and pupil evaluation practices emphasize different cognitive and behavioral skills in each social

setting and thus contribute to the development in the children of certain potential relationships to physical and symbolic capital, 11 to authority, and to the process of work.

School experience, in the sample of schools discussed here, differed qualitatively by social class. These differences may not only contribute to the development in the children in each social class of certain types of economically significant relationships and not others but would thereby help to reproduce this system of relations in society. In the contribution to the reproduction of unequal social relations lies a theoretical meaning and social consequence of classroom practice.

The identification of different emphases in classrooms in a sample of contrasting social class contexts implies that further research should be conducted in a large number of schools to investigate the types of work tasks and interactions in each to see if they differ in the ways discussed here and to see if similar potential relationships are uncovered. Such research could have as a product the further elucidation of complex but not readily apparent connections between everyday activity in schools and classrooms and the unequal structure of economic relationships in which we work and live.

NOTES 1. S. Bowles and H. Gintis, *Schooling in Capitalist America: Educational Reform and the Contradictions of Economic Life* (New York: Basic Books, 1976). [Author's note] 2. B. Bernstein, *Class, Codes and Control*, Vol. 3. *Towards a Theory of Educational Transmission*, 2d ed. (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1977); P. Bourdieu and J. Passeron, *Reproduction in Education*,

Society and Culture (Beverly Hills, Calif. : Sage, 1977); M. W. Apple, Ideology and Curriculum (Boston: Routledge Kegan Paul, 1979). [Author's note] 3.

But see, in a related vein, M. W.

Apple and N. King, "What Do Schools Teach?" Curriculum Inquiry 6 (1977); 341-58; R. C. Rist, The Urban School: A Factory for Failure (Cambridge, Mass.

: MIT Press, 1973). [Author's note] 4. ethnographical: Based on an anthropological study of cultures or subcultures-the "cultures" in this case being the five schools being observed. 5. The U. S. Bureau of the Census defines poverty for a nonfarm family of four as a yearly income of \$6, 191 a year or less. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1978 (Washington, D. C. : U. S.

Government Printing Office, 1978), p. 465 , table 754. [Author's note] 6. U. S. Bureau of the Census, "Money Income in 1977 of Families and Persons in the United States," Current Population Reports Series P-60, no. 118

(Washington, D. C. : U. S. Government Printing Office, 1978), p. 2 , table A.

[Author's note] 7. Ibid. [Author's note] 8. This figure is an estimate.

According to the Bureau of the Census, only 2. 6 percent of families in the United States have money income of \$50, 000 or over. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports Series P-60.

For figures on income at these higher levels, see J. D. Smith and S. Franklin, "The Concentration of Personal Wealth, 1922-1969," American Economic Review 64 (1974): 162-67. [Author's note] 9. Smith and Franklin, "The Concentration of Personal Wealth. " [Author's note] 10. A dominant feeling expressed directly and indirectly by teachers in this school, was boredom

with their work. They did, however, in contrast to the working-class schools, almost always carry out lessons during class times. [Author's note] 11.

physical and symbolic capital: Elsewhere Anyon