

chapters will be equally of interest to researchers in the history of children's literature and childhood, to educators at all levels, and to specialists in Canadian and Atlantic literature.

The collection ends with "Afterwords," a grouping of interviews, letters, and creative responses, which hints at what makes this collection so valuable and still rare in academic literary studies. That section includes interviews with Satu Koskimies and Vilja-Tuulia Huotari, authors of a novel, *Emilia Kent*, which picks up where *Emily's Quest* leaves off; Holly Cinnamon's beautiful poem about "that queer red-headed girl next door" (290); a piece by Rosalee Peppard Lockyer that imagines Katie Maurice (Anne's imaginary friend) writing a poem for "My Maud" (295); and Kit Pearson's letter to Maud that ends "your protégé, Kit Pearson" (302). These end-pieces insist that the conversation with Montgomery's work continues among readers and writers, and, whether it was intentional or not, the writing throughout is conversational, lucid, and accessible to all adult readers of Montgomery. The collection is concerned with the wide conversation that surrounds Montgomery's novels, and it models that broad audience and conversation. It is a book both for scholars and for the "Maud Squad."

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Daniel S. Moak

From the New Deal to the War on Schools: Race, Inequality, and the Rise of the Punitive Education State

Chapel Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 2022. 340 pp.

The contemporary US education system suffers from a multitude of problems: overworked and undervalued teachers, overreliance on standardized tests, and systemic racial inequality, just to name a few. Anyone seeking to understand why needs to pick up a copy of Daniel Moak's excellent book, *From the New Deal to the War on Schools: Race, Inequality, and the Rise of the Punitive Education State*.

Moak offers a readable and highly intelligible account of a complicated story. In the 1930s, the Great Depression made the widespread poverty caused by capitalism the nation's most pressing concern, and, the author explains, two groups of thinkers debated how the education system should play a role in solving this problem. The "social reconstructionists," as the author calls them, believed that "schools should help prepare students to fundamentally change the social order" (20). Led by Teachers College (TC) professors George Counts and Harold Rugg, the social reconstructionists believed a more democratic education could help remake the American political economy: away from the individual imperative of competing in a deeply unequal marketplace toward a nation built on social solidarity and economic security for all working people.

The social efficiency progressives, however, instead sought to reform the education system toward one that would simply help individual Americans adapt to the nation's social and economic hierarchies. Led by University of Chicago professor John Franklin Bobbitt, TC professor Edward Thorndike, and psychologist Henry Goddard, these thinkers were inspired by scientific management expert Frederick Winslow Taylor. They sought a school system that would track student performance, routinize teachers' labour, and tie student learning to the perceived needs of employers.

This debate also occurred, with important ramifications, among African American thinkers and activists devoted to racial equality. In a particularly well-documented chapter, Moak shows how a "central cleavage in Black political thought [from the 1930s through the 1950s] involved debates over the compatibility of capitalism with democracy, equality, and Black political advancement" (49). "Economic democrats" included labour leaders A. Philip Randolph and Sarah Foley Grossman and Howard University professor Ralph Bunche, who believed that African Americans would only attain true equality when capitalism was substantially reformed through dramatic policy changes such as increasing labour rights and committing to a national jobs guarantee. Contrarily, the racial Democrats, exemplified by District of Columbia Associate School Superintendent Howard Hale Long and Howard University sociologist E. Franklin Frazier, believed higher standards and changing the behaviour of Black people, particularly in terms of family dynamics, would integrate more African Americans into an unchanged American political economy.

The author sees the social efficiency progressives and racial democrats winning this contest because of the narrowing political possibilities in American politics during the Cold War. Indeed, for Moak, red-baiting played a major role in eliminating the more radical political economic possibilities that had emerged during the 1930s, leading economic democrats like Grossman to be expelled from their unions and social reconstructionists like Counts to reject their own earlier arguments. "Those pushing for economic reorganization," the author concludes, "were marginalized, as calls for significant changes to the economic system were increasingly deemed un-American" (101).

The result, Moak explains in the book's second part, is that by the time Johnson sought to create a "Great Society" in the 1960s, a "new orthodoxy" in the Democratic Party highlighted "individual characteristics as central to explaining and solving social problems" (135). The author charts the shift from a policy window in 1945 that included the possibility of a jobs guarantee to the commercial Keynesian impulse that led Kennedy and Johnson to seek tax cuts as the solution to economic insecurity. Human capital theory, popularized by Chicago school economists Theodore Schultz and Gary Becker, took hold with influential Democrats, as did cultural explanations for poverty.

With fewer policy options outside of individual uplift through education at their disposal, the Johnson administration made federal education reform the centerpiece of their agenda to end poverty. An important and unique intervention the author makes here is that liberals, led by Senator Robert F. Kennedy, also sought

accountability measures for increased federal funding under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Black power activists in the late 1960s and 70s sought greater accountability for public schools, too, and thus, the trajectory of the “punitive education state” was well underway by the time the Reagan administration and Southern governors such as Republican Lamar Alexander of Tennessee and Democrat James Hunt of North Carolina in the 1980s pushed for “accountability.”

From the New Deal to the War on Schools will be an essential study in the field, as it powerfully shows there were significant alternatives to the notion that public education can do little more than accommodate future workers to the realities of a brutally unequal and degrading capitalism, and how the profoundly unrealistic charge we have given our schools developed from the contingent choices of a number of political actors. That said, by focusing mostly on educational possibilities after World War II, Moak misses some important political alternatives. There were a number of prominent social democratic alternatives that had political traction after World War II, such as A. Philip Randolph and Bayard Rustin’s Freedom Budget (1966) and earlier iterations of the watered down Humphrey-Hawkins Act (1978). By focusing only on how the most radical alternatives were foreclosed during the Cold War, Moak misses the fact that the shift toward what he calls the liberal incorporationist order could have been realistically rolled back as late as the end of the 1970s. That distinction matters: when economic democrats like Randolph, Rustin, Martin Luther King Jr., and others kept open the window for systemic social and economic change well past the end of the Cold War, that makes the decision of Democrats in the 1970s such as like Jimmy Carter to stifle those changes all the more tragic.

Stimulating such an important debate, however, as Moak does, highlights the importance of this study. If you care at all about creating the kind of education system—and political economy—that is necessary for a truly democratic society, this book is required reading.

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France Nerlich and Eleonora Vratskidou, eds.

Disrupting Schools: Transnational Art Education in the Nineteenth Century

Turnhout: Brepols, 2022. 232 pp.

The essays in *Disrupting Schools* address the effects of international training on nineteenth-century art students, with the goal of expanding our understanding of individuals’ educational choices in terms of their career trajectories, on the one hand, and critically examining the idea of national schools paradoxically founded on transfer and exchange, on the other. The book builds on existing literature on bilateral exchange and the primacy of Paris as a site of artistic education by taking a more capacious approach to the topic, exploring multi-directional educational paths and