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ABSTRACT

The initial program of the consortium, which comprised Fisk University, Houston-Tillotson College, LeMoyne College, Dillard University, Tougaloo College, Talladega College, and Clark College, and which extended from July 1967 to July 1970 with a total budget of \$85,000, was to be basic institutional research that would help the seven predominately Negro colleges to make changes in policies and curriculums to meet the changing conditions in the nation as these affected the lives of Negro college graduates. This project began at a time when these institutions, as with all predominately Negro colleges, were being pushed into a state of change by demands from students, some faculty members, and some leaders outside the institutions. The two major demands were (1) the introduction of new and extensive black studies programs, and (2) the development of curriculums more relevant to the communities surrounding the colleges and to the Negro community in general. This consortium gave to some faculty members the means to deal with these demands in a rational and academic manner by doing research on the problems and suggesting the direction of change. At least 14 of the research projects conducted under the consortium were related to the demands for change. [Due to the quality of the typescript, several pages of this document will be only marginally legible when reproduced.] (Author/JM)

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FINAL REPORT
Project Number 7-D-054
Contract Number OEC-1-7-070054-4236

A CONSORTIUM FOR RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

(A Consortium for Educational Research Comprised of Seven Private
Liberal Arts Colleges)

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August 15, 1970

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PART I

A CONSORTIUM FOR RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

Summary

Project Number 7-D-054, A Consortium for Educational Research Comprised of Seven Private Liberal Arts Colleges was funded and began on July 10, 1967, under contract Number OEC-1-7-070054-4236. The contract price was \$50,000 for a period ending June 10, 1968. The consortium included Fisk University, Houston-Tillotson College, LeMoyne College,illard University, Tougaloo College, Talladega College and Clark College and the program was under the direction of the Amistad Research Center located at Fisk University. On the 10th day of May 1968, the contract was extended to June 10, 1969 and the contract price was increased to \$85,000. By supplemental agreement, dated the 12th day of May, 1969, the contract period was extended to July 31, 1970, but the contract remained \$85,000. The title of the project was changed to A Consortium for Research Development, three of the participating institutions having been dropped from the consortium because of their failure to cooperate and to honor their obligations.

The initial program was to be basic institutional research that would help the seven predominantly Negro colleges to make changes in policies and curriculums to meet the changing conditions in the nation as these affected the lives of Negro college graduates. The program was to be implemented through a staff member of the Amistad Research Center serving as principal investigator with a research director located at each of the seven institutions who would head a faculty research committee. Coordination of the program was to be accomplished through periodic conferences including the project director (director of the Amistad Research Center), the principal investigator, and the local directors. Although this program had been discussed and formulated in a series of meetings between representatives of the seven institutions, prior to the submission of the proposal and the signing of the contract, it soon became evident that only four of the institutions -- Fisk, LeMoyne, Talladega and Tougaloo -- were making even a pretense of following through on the commitments. But even among these four schools there appeared complications which made full cooperation impossible. First, there was institutional rivalry and a reluctance to exchange information that might invite comparison of the institutions. Second, the faculties of the schools were composed of a high proportion of young beginning teachers who had heavy teaching loads and consequently could not devote much time to research. Third, large and rapid faculty turnovers lessened the continuity and understanding of the program from year to year. Fourth, the original principal investigator, who had largely conceived and planned the program, was dismissed from the staff of the Amistad Research Center (for reasons having no relation to the CORD program) three months

after the project began and his successor, who had attended the Research Training Institute at Monmouth, Oregon, and came highly recommended, never seemed to grasp the nature and purpose of the project or his responsibilities. Consequently, he was dismissed in April 1969, and the entire supervision and direction of the project became the responsibility of the director of the Amistad Research Center. Fifth, a climate of opinion rapidly developed on the campuses of the participating schools, as on other Negro college campuses, which emphasized immediate change rather than research. These factors, led to a request by the project director to the United States Office of Education for a shift in the program's emphasis from institutional research to the promotion -- through small or seed, grants -- of research projects by individual faculty members or groups of faculty and students. It was felt that while the administrations and faculties as a whole must make immediate decision to cope with escalating problems the CORD program could offer assistance and encouragement to those interested in research and at the same time, perhaps, provide information valuable in effecting some of the changes being demanded. Permission for channeling the funds into the support of these individual research projects was granted. Nineteen such projects were supported at Fisk, LeMoyne, Talladega, and Tougaloo. Final reports have been received on seventeen of the projects.

Background

During the last fifteen years the private Negro colleges have entered a new era in American education that results from the civil rights revolution and the movement for self-identity among young Negroes. What is to be the role of these colleges in the decades ahead? Should they endeavor to become institutions serving fully integrated student bodies and offering the best in liberal education or should they continue as predominantly Negro institutions endeavoring to meet the particular needs of a disadvantaged minority? Either role demands self-evaluation and changes in policies and curriculums on the part of the colleges. Furthermore, those responsible for effecting changes must have an understanding of the conflicts and difficulties, as well as the advantages, that are concomitants of institutional changes.

The challenges facing the Negro colleges had prompted the American Missionary Association of the United Church of Christ and the presidents of its six related colleges and universities to begin discussions, in 1963, directed toward the establishment of a center to promote inter-institutional research and cooperation. This planning led to a meeting, in July 1966, of representatives from the social science faculties of the six A.M.A. institutions for the purpose of exploring areas in which inter-institutional research might be productively developed. Then, on September 1, 1966, the A.M.A. established at Fisk University the Amistad Research Center. The Center was to conduct a number of programs, but a primary purpose was to promote cooperative research and other coordinated efforts among Dillard University (New Orleans, Louisiana), Fisk University (Nashville, Tennessee)

Houston-Tillotson College (Austin, Texas), LeMoyne College (Memphis, Tennessee), Talladega College (Talladega, Alabama), and Tougaloo College (Tougaloo, Mississippi). A second meeting of the members of the social science faculties of the A.M.A. schools, and also a representative from Clark College in Atlanta, was held at the Amistad Research Center on December 2. The initiative for Clark's participation was taken by the college's president. This was welcomed. Having an institution not related to the A.M.A. participate in the program would obviously have significant research value and at the same time increase the validity of the findings for general application.

At that December 2 meeting, it was agreed that the seven institutions would form a research consortium under the direction of the Amistad Research Center and that the first project to be undertaken by the consortium should be designed to assist the participating schools in making the changes demanded by the civil rights revolution and recent developments in education. The various studies that had been made of the Negro college and the probable effectiveness of those studies in producing change were discussed and analyzed. It was noted that the studies fell into two general classifications: (1) broad or general studies made by persons not involved in Negro education, and (2) defensive and subjective expositions by administrators or faculty members of Negro colleges. The latter, it was felt, tended to defend the status quo rather than provide the impetus for change. And the general studies were considered as not applicable to the peculiar conditions of the several institutions. It was felt that they had a particularly fundamental weakness in that they had not taken into consideration the influence of history and tradition in shaping institutional policy. In short, the conference agreed that there had not yet developed among administrators and faculty members a climate of opinion or the administrative machinery conducive to change.

Since that conference, less than four years ago, dramatic and sometimes drastic changes have occurred on the campuses of the seven schools originally included in the consortium. But generally, these changes have occurred as responses to explosive situations rather than coming about as the result of research and evaluation of the academic merits of the changes. Most of the research projects undertaken as a part of this consortium have reflected what has been happening on the campuses and have in some cases represented desperate efforts on the part of a few faculty members to bring research data to bear in meeting problems and curriculum changes. But these few have had little effect on general policies.

Methods

Research projects were funded on the basis of a written proposal, approved by the institution's president or development officer, with a pledge by the institution of a matching grant. (See Appendix I). The proposal was reviewed by the project director and principal investigator. If the proposed project was approved for support, an initial payment of eighty percent of the grant was made.

The remaining twenty percent was paid after the receipt of a final written report on the research and finding and validated financial report. (See Appendix II & III) The amounts granted for research projects from CORD funds ranged from \$300 to \$5000; two-thirds of the grants were for \$1200 or less and only one was for more than \$2000. The nature of the colleges participating in the consortium determines that they attract faculties primarily interested in teaching. Consequently, seldom are the teachers interested in pure research. All the projects developed out of concern by the individual investigators for better serving their students or for making the colleges more relevant to the needs of the communities from which the students came. While few of the projects can be classified as pure or basic research, it is possible to divide the studies into three categories.

Findings and Analysis

I. RESEARCH PROJECTS

A. Projects of General Scope

1. Non-Intellectual Factors in Freshman Achievement, by S. J. Roberts and Carrell P. Horton, Department of Psychology, Fisk University.

Statement of Problem: "Test scores and grades often fail to predict academic achievement of minority youth as well as they do for majority youth."

Statement of Objectives: "The general significance of this project is to seek non-intellectual factors that may improve predicted academic performance. This study proposes to investigate the relationship between selected non-intellectual factors and the achievement of freshman college students in a predominantly Negro American institution. This study will also serve as a preliminary investigation to more extended research studies in this area."

Results: The specific non-intellectual factors selected were (1) motivation for grades, (2) family social status, (3) independence from family, (4) liberalism, and (5) social conscience. The report concluded: "If only predictive equation is to be used, it is doubtful that anything would be gained by using any of these particular non-intellectual factors as supplementary predictor variables to SAT-T Scores and HSCR. Thus not only are these selected non-intellectual variables no substitute for the belabored conventional predictor, but add little substantial information for estimating college performance of these Negro American students. Finally, there are those who would call into question the criterion, (FGPA) used in this study, but until there is developed a better criterion, performance on ability test and the high school record are the best indicators of achievement at the college level." The study is continuing.

See report: Part II, p. 18

2. Determination of a Basis for Research in Methods of Teaching Principles of Music in a General Humanities Course, by Vincent C. DeBaun, Division of Humanities, Talladega College.

Statement of Problem: "The weakest part of most programs in General Humanities is that section given over to the teaching of the principles of music. Other parts of the course -- generally literature, philosophy, and graphic art -- are relatively easy because of the visual permanence of the objects being studied. That is: textbooks, slides, prints, and similar materials are before the eye and may be viewed and re-viewed, not only in the classroom, but at the leisure of the student. Music, however, as one of the lively arts, is ephemeral; it is heard and the sense impression then passes. Except for students with advanced technical knowledge, the printed score is apt to be meaningless; nor can it be taught by an instructor who also lacks the needed advanced technical knowledge. There are additional problems in setting up facilities for students to study music assigned, in that records (and often tapes) are expensive and fragile, and hours in "listening rooms" are apt to be restricted and/or inconvenient."

Statement of Objectives: "The objective of this project will be to seek out the three or four basic methods of introducing the principles of music to students who will (presumably) never have more than an amateur interest. These methods will be organized in several parallel structures, with the idea of determining similarities and differences, and deciding what elements are appropriate to development in General Humanities course."

Results: The investigator studied five main pedagogical approaches to the early teaching of music: chronology, pop-sontemporary, rhythm, melody, and sound. He concluded that the last three could easily be adapted to a course in the General Humanities and plans to submit these to further analysis in courses in the next academic year.

See report: Part II, p. 54

3. Measurement in Psychology Course of the Transfer of Training from Participation in Related Outside Activities to Classroom Performance, by Claire K. Morse, Department of Psychology, Tougaloo College.

Statement of Problem: "It is my belief that in American education currently there is a failure to involve students in real life situations about which they are studying. What I am suggesting is that course work needs to be geared more to the outside world than it often is. The notion is that students will learn more, see more relevance in material, and find greater application for it if they are provided opportunities to move

out of the classroom and into the situation being discussed. In this way they gain a certain kind of feedback not otherwise available concerning their growing competence to examine and understand the subject under consideration. They also thereby tend to find more motivation for learning about these things. This is not so far-fetched in terms of an analysis of the setting which would provide maximum transfer of training, however, it is often stoutly resisted by education. It therefore seems prudent to utilize every opportunity to get additional information which might be important or interesting in this regard."

Statement of Objectives: "The objectives are numerous: to see whether student involvement increases when an opportunity of outside experience is offered, to see whether the students feel that they learn more, and to see if they do. Also, the project will provide first hand experience in working with mental patients which should have long term effects in increasing an understanding of mental illness among the participants in general on campus. This kind of objective seems of more importance when one considers this country's great need for psychologists, particularly community oriented psychologists and Black psychologists."

Results: In this case the students definitely felt that the outside involvement increased understanding and they they learned more as a result, and the data seem to substantiate their beliefs.

See report: Part II, p. 58

4. Exploring the Relationship of College Life to Real Life as a Whole, by Edward F. Ouellette, Social Science Division, LeMoyne College.

Comment: Although this project developed from the desparate concern of one instructor to study a serious problem on American campuses, the project was a disappointment. It was more of an intuitive look at the problem than it was a scientific investigation. Efforts by the director to get Mr. Ouellette to follow through with some scientific investigation were never successful. However, it should be reported that the administration and faculty at LeMoyne College considered the project very valuable in that it resulted in the institution beginning a realistic self-appraisal of its purposes and programs, a project which is continuing.

See report: Part II, p. 60

5. A Comparative Study of the Learning Outcomes of the PSNS (Physical Science for Non-Scientists) Course Developed by the PSHS Study Group with the Learning Outcomes in a Traditional Physical Science Survey Course, by Charles W. Phillips, Natural Science Division, LeMoyne College.

Statement of Problem: "The problem is to develop or select a physical science course that is suitable for non-science majors that have a very weak background in the natural sciences."

Comment: Under this project the PSNS course was to be followed by one section (24 students) while the traditional course was to be used for the remainder of the non-science majors taking the physical science course (approximately 50 students). Pre- and post-tests were to be utilized to measure changes or achievements in the following areas: (1) attitudes toward science, (2) recall and comprehension of factual information, (3) the ability to make practical application of scientific principles, and (4) critical thinking. At this time Mr. Phillips has not evaluated the data collected or submitted a final report.

B. Projects Related to Black Studies

1. A Descriptive Study of Methods and Materials for the Integration of Negro History into American History Courses, by Clifton H. Johnson, Juliet Paynter, John Paynter and Olive Taylor, Amistad Research Center.

Description of Study: This study included observation and review of all accessible literature and audio-visual materials dealing with Negro history and the teaching of that subject, and evaluation of methods used by forty high school teachers enrolled in an NDEA Institute in Negro history at Fisk University in teaching laboratory classes to Upward Bound students, also enrolled in an institute at Fisk. A concrete result of this study was the production of a guide by the Amistad Research Center, apart from the CORD program, which has been sent out on requests from over six hundred high school and college teachers.

See guide: Part II, p. 64

2. Black Studies: A Conceptual Analysis, by Basil Mathews, Department of Sociology, Talladega College.

Statement of Problem: "The necessity of a conceptual analysis is imposed by the general confusion even among blacks as to what black studies is all about. Also, because of the anti-social indifference among most whites as to what black studies might be about. Most of all, the analysis of the constitutive concepts of any science or would-be science is an epistemological imperative."

Statement of Objectives: "The purpose of this study is to analyze the concept of Black Studies in America. That is:

1. To set forth the connotation of the term Black Studies. That is, to make explicit the thought components or idea content of the term.

2. To set out the denotation of the term Black Studies. That is, to identify (a) the human groups and the human environments to which black studies relate and (b) the specific fields of human experience (in thought, feeling, action) which constitute the target areas of black studies.
3. To probe into the aims and goals of black studies logically contained in the concept and into aims and goals ascribed to black studies proposals."

Results: This study is continuing under a grant from the Social Research Council.

See report: Part II, p. 142

3. A Comparison of the Speech of Southern Negroes and Southern Whites and Its Application to the Methods of Teaching English in a Negro College, by Juanita Williamson, Department of English, LeMoyne College.

Statement of Problem: "In recent years there has been generated a great deal of interest in the speech of Negroes. Much has been written which has as its central idea that Negroes speak a dialect that is separate and distinct from the speech of other Americans and, therefore, Negro students should be taught English as if it were for them a second language. The suggestion has been made that in their early years in school they should read from books that are written in the special black dialect. If this position is a true one, then our methods of teaching English in schools such as ours should be changed and our teaching methods to prospective teachers must likewise undergo change."

Statement of Objectives: "To ascertain whether there is a significant difference between the speech of Southern Whites and Southern Negroes."

Results: This study is continuing. The tentative conclusion is "What most persons who write about Negro speech are describing is Southern speech, primarily the less educated variety. But some of the features which they treat are found in educated Southern speech -- in fact, in educated speech everywhere. In view of this there seems to be no reason to do other than what has always been done -- to help students gain an adequate control of their native language on both an informal and formal level."

See report: Part II, p. 157

4. Increasing the Effectiveness of the Black Economic Course through Student Involvement in Research in the Black Community, by Robert C. Vowels, Department of Economics, Talladega College.

Comment: After following through on the research outlined in his proposal, Mr. Vowels resigned from Talladega without submitting a final report.

d. Institutional Studies, Including Studies of the Community and Relevance of Curriculum.

1. Development of Student Research in the Preparation of an Economic Profile of the Black Community Surrounding Tougaloo College, by Lawrence Morse and Students, Department of Economics, Tougaloo College.

Statement of Problem: "The basic problem is one of essentially a complete lack of knowledge of the economic characteristics of the Black Community immediately surrounding Tougaloo College. We know people are poor, but we do not know the incidence or cause of poverty. We do not have complete knowledge of who the Black merchants are. We know very little about the buying habits of members of the Black community. And we have no systematic documentation of the economic discrimination experienced by individuals and establishments in the Black community. The research to be started is seen as on going research which each year would try to answer one question concerning the economic characteristics of the Black community, each time building on earlier findings."

Statement of Objectives: "The objectives of the research to be conducted by the Senior Honors Seminar are twofold. The first is the gathering of economic data on the Black community. This information would be cumulative and would allow each succeeding seminar to engage in increasingly meaningful and productive research and analysis. The second objective, and in fact the primary one motivating the formation of the seminar, is the development of students' facility with basic research techniques, i.e., data collection and data analysis. We believe that the seminar will be a significant educational experience for the students and will contribute to their preparation for graduate study."

Results: "The combining of classroom learning with field work in economics can be successful. However, the conditions for success are difficult to realize. Our experience suggests that only the aggressive student will benefit from such experience. Second, that the actual field work he becomes involved in must strike a delicate balance between being too structured (leaving him no room for initiative or involvement) and being too unstructured (leaving him not knowing where to start)."

See report: Part II, p. 159

2. Talladega College: A History of Purposeful Change and Its Impact, by Margaret Montgomery, Department of History, Talladega College. (This study is continuing and will be published as a book.)

See report: Part II, p. 161

3. An Exploratory Study of Applications to LeMoyne College Completed by Students who Failed to Register, by Martelle Trigg, Department of Sociology, LeMoyne College.

Statement of Problem: "Concern has been expressed by individuals in the academic world about students who apply to a college, complete their applications, yet fail to enroll at the stated time. Numerous reasons have been given to explain this state of affairs and suggestions made as to possible reasons for the students' failure to follow through."

Statement of Objectives: "Such a study at LeMoyne will serve not only to evaluate procedures but also to indicate the strengths and weaknesses of the admission policy."

Result: "Characteristics of the prospective student who applied and failed to enter school showed little difference from the presently enrolled student body. However, at least one fourth of the applicants had vocational aspirations which could not be fulfilled at a liberal arts college. This would seem to indicate that LeMoyne was not a good choice for them nor a first choice."

See report: Part II, p. 163

4. The Needs of County and City School Administrators and Teachers in the Use of Computer Facilities and Implications for Talladega College, by Oscar Cadet, Department of Mathematics, Talladega College.

Statement of Problem: "Talladega College is the only four year college in Talladega County, Alabama. It is the only educational institution in this county that has and utilizes a computer. Considering the fact that computers and computer programming are playing an increasingly beneficial role in the every day operation of business, both public and private, we would like to conduct a survey to determine whether the Computer Facilities at Talladega would benefit the County and City School Systems, the Administration and the Teaching Personnel."

Statement of Objectives: "To obtain information about the needs of County and City School Administrators and Teachers in the use of computer facilities with a view to the following:

1. Finding specific ways that Talladega could meet their needs.

2. Preparing a proposal to submit to the Ford Foundation, the Natural Science Foundation or others who would be interested in financing a program for County and City School Administrators and Teachers.
3. Obtaining information about the specific needs for such training of Administrators and Teaching Personnel and their interest in a computer training program in relation to computer facilities at Talladega College, in order to determine the scope of the program and to develop proper scheduling of a program."

Results: The survey indicated the need for instituting for the city and county school personnel an in-service program of computer technology at Talladega College.

See report: Part II, p. 172

5. Relevancy of Historical Development to Present-Day Curriculum Needs in a Negro College, by Harold A. Franklin and Students, Department of History, Talladega College.

The primary purposes of this project were (1) to teach students research methods, and (2) to help the students acquire a better understanding of the problems of developing curriculum.

See report: Part II, p. 175

6. Determination of latest Techniques in Science-Mathematics to Effectively Inaugurate an Undergraduate Research Program at LeMoyne College, by Walter W. Gibson, Natural Science Division, LeMoyne College.

Statement of Problems and Objectives: "The project entails a study of Science-Mathematics undergraduate research programs in a few carefully selected Colleges whose reputations for excellence is well established. It will also include a period of study at Oak Ridge in devices and techniques applicable to the establishment of such a program."

Results: The programs evaluated during the study are being evaluated for the implementation of a new Science-Mathematics program at LeMoyne College.

See report: Part II, p. 176

7. Activist Social Research by Undergraduates in Mississippi, by James W. Loewen, David Barnum, Myrtle Glascoe and Students, Tougaloo College.

The primary purpose of this project was to train students in

research methods and at the same time increase knowledge of the community, its needs and how the College could serve the needs.

See report: Part II, p. 181

8. Descriptive Study of General Humanities Programs in Predominantly Negro Colleges, by Vincent C. DeBaum, Humanities Division, Talladega College.

The primary purpose of this study was to gain information helpful in making curriculum changes.

See report: Part II, p. 183

9. Survey of Educational Needs of Talladega Community Adults, by R. B. Leach, Department of Philosophy, Talladega College.

Statement of Problem: Talladega College is primarily a black liberal arts college in Talladega, Alabama, a town of 18,000, approximately 40% black. The college does not at the present time offer part-time or evening educational opportunities to the black adults of Talladega, although there are facilities on the campus that could be used for this purpose."

Statement of Objectives: "To obtain information about the possible needs of the black adult community which surrounds Talladega College with the end in view of:

1. Finding specific ways that Talladega College could meet these needs.
2. Preparing a proposal to submit to Fund Sources interested in adult education, so that Talladega College could in the near future offer wanted educational opportunities to adult blacks in the surrounding community. (Within limits of its ability to serve, any course offered would be open to whites in the community also, in line with established non-discrimination policies of Talladega College.)
3. Obtaining general information about the views and attitudes of blacks in the surrounding communities concerning Talladega College, so that the college may better serve and cooperate with the communities in educational and civic endeavors.

Results: A real interest in adult education was found in the community, the areas of interest were identified, and plans made for finding the means to meet the needs.

See report: Part II, p. 195

10. Evaluation of CDGM Headstart Program, by Claire K. Morse, Department of Psychology, Tougaloo College.

Statement of Problem: Although the CDGM (Child Development Group of Mississippi) Headstart program has been operating for approximately 3½ years, no evaluative follow-up has been attempted. Such an evaluation could provide information useful to the CDGM program, and to several others of a similar nature. It is asserted that graduates of the program are better motivated, better adjusted and academically prepared and should therefore achieve more success in school. This claim requires direct examination. The results of such a study could be used to provide the basis for improvement of the program to remedy any deficiencies discovered.

Statement of Objectives. "The objectives of such a project include both development of an evaluative report on the effect of Headstart experience on a pre-school child, and experience in data collection and analysis for the Tougaloo students involved.

Results: The results of analysis of the data available suggest that teachers and principals may well be correct. In two of the three counties for which sufficient data were available to analyze, the number of failures in the county for the first grade decreased in the years after Headstart graduates began attending schools. In the third county, the number of failures increased very slightly. In all three counties, and in all schools examined individually, the number of failures in the second grade decreased greatly when Headstart graduates were enrolled. In the one county for which third grade data were available, the number of third grade failures likewise decreased. The same pattern appeared when individual schools were examined; first grade results were most mixed, second and third grade results all showed a decrease in failures."

See report: Part II, p. 202

II. SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS

A. A Faculty Seminar on Research Development was held at LeMoyne College on January 13, 1969. Twenty-one faculty members, representing the range of academic disciplines in the College's curriculum, registered and attended. Speakers and consultants included Dr. William N. Jackson, Professor of Science Education, Tennessee State University; Dr. Juanita Williamson, Professor of English, LeMoyne College; Dr. Lyle Shannon, Professor of Sociology, University of Iowa; Dr. Jack E. Reese, Assistant Dean of the Graduate School, University of Tennessee; and Mr. Theodore Abell of the Atlanta Regional Office of United States Office of Education.

B. A Workshop on Research Methods was held at LeMoyne College on January 29-31, 1970. Eighteen faculty members from LeMoyne, Fisk, Talladega, and Tougaloo registered and attended all sessions. Twelve others from LeMoyne and Tougaloo, attended some sessions. The workshop was basically self-instructional, using the Red Train materials developed by Teaching Research at Monmouth, Oregon. There were also lectures on research methods by Dr. Basil Matthews, Professor of Sociology, Talladega College; Dr. S. O. Roberts, Professor of Psychology, Fisk University; and Dr. Juanita Williamson, Professor of English, LeMoyne College. Members of the West Tennessee Research Development Consortia (Memphis State University, Freed-Hardeman College and Lane College) served as consultants.

III OTHER ACTIVITIES

A. Two summaries of federal laws particularly appropriate to educational institutional development were prepared and sent to members of the consortium.

B. Two faculty members of the consortium attended each of the National Research Training Institutes held at Monmouth, Oregon in 1967 and 1969 and at Traverse City, Michigan in 1968.

Conclusions

I. ACCOMPLISHMENTS

This project began at a time when the institutions in the consortium, as with all predominantly Negro colleges, were being pushed into a state of change by demands from students, some faculty members and some leaders outside the institutions. The two major demands were (1) the introduction of new and extensive black studies programs and (2) the development of curriculums more relevant to the communities surrounding the colleges and to the Negro community in general. This consortium gave to some faculty members the means to deal with these demands in a rational and academic manner by attempting to throw the light of research on the problems and suggest the direction of change. At least fourteen of the research projects conducted under the consortium were directly or indirectly related to the demands for change.

A second accomplishment was that the consortium allowed faculty members, who had neither the time nor the access to funds to undertake major research projects, to engage in small manageable research projects. If this gave these persons some feeling of accomplishment and helped them to become better teachers the consortium was a success. Unfortunately, we were not prepared to have an inter-institutional workshop such as that conducted at LeMoyne on January 29-31 in the first months of the consortium. This workshop stimulated tremendous interest in research and had it been earlier it might have changed the whole history of the consortium.

A third accomplishment was the involvement of students in several of the research projects. This was particularly significant in helping some to acquire a better understanding of the meaning of a "relevant curriculum."

Fourth, several of the projects were directed at, and have resulted in, curriculum revisions.

Fifth, the program stimulated interest and participation in educational research from faculty members in the humanities, social sciences and natural sciences.

Sixth, at least five of the studies are continuing and three of these will almost certainly be published in book form.

Seventh, the research which made it possible for the Amistad Research Center to prepare the guide for teaching Negro history has provided useful material for many teachers across the nation.

II PROBLEMS

The major objective of the consortium was not accomplished, i.e., the inauguration of a program of cooperative educational and institutional research that would provide significant data for change and lead to cooperation by the participating institutions in other areas. The major reasons for this have been outlined in the summary at the beginning of this report.

The fact that the faculties of the schools in the consortium have little interest in pure research made it difficult to get valid proposals from them. The director of the project, after the first year, informed the Office of Education that thereafter funds would only be paid over to individuals or institutions on contract and some evidence of work being actually performed. This resulted from the fact that during the first year the local directors had received reimbursement for released time that was to be devoted to the consortium, but they produced very little. The low interest in research, plus the other problems outlined in the summary, and the efforts to keep a tight rein on the funds resulted in more than \$15,000 of the funds appropriated by the Office of Education under the contract for the consortium being unexpended at the conclusion of the contract period. Even so, some projects were supported which cannot be classified as educational research in a strict sense.

PART II

(Research Projects)

Fisk University
Department of Psychology

Consortium Project¹

The Relationship of Selected Non-Intellectual Factors to
Freshman Academic Achievement

S. O. Roberts and Carrell P. Horton¹

I. PROBLEM

The importance of factors relating to academic achievement has long been recognized; thus, the relationship of intelligence and achievement has been well documented (Harris, 1940; and Darley, 1962). In recent years, however, increasing attention has been focused on the importance of non-intellectual factors since individual case histories clearly demonstrate that intelligence alone is not always sufficient to "explain" or to "predict" achievement. The isolation and identification of such factors would seem to be of particular importance to ethnic minorities such as Negro Americans, who do not usually perform well on conventional measures of ability, but many of whom do go on to achieve significantly. Many studies have centered on the "environmental climate" as a factor in academic achievement (see, for example Pace, 1960; Davis, 1963; and Lunsford, 1963). Studies such as those of Wilkinson and Weltz (1957), Brown (1960), Davis (1965), and Nichols (1965) have stressed non-intellectual factors in college performance.

Higher education is subjected today to a constant barrage of criticism from laymen, students, faculty, and administration alike; however, and despite all of that, it is expected to produce the leaders of tomorrow. Insight into the ways in which this can be and is accomplished can only be gained through scientific study of why college students achieve, on the assumption that achievement in college is a necessary condition for positive contributions to the larger society. This study proposes to investigate the relationship between selected non-intellectual factors and the achievement of freshman college students in a predominantly Negro American institution as one aspect of the larger question. This study will also serve as a preliminary investigation to more extended research studies in this area.

Many instruments are available to measure the attitudes of college students, but one of the most recent is the College Student Questionnaire (CSQ), copyrighted in 1965 by Educational Testing Service. This instrument provides for the gathering of a diverse body of biographical and attitudinal information about college students at two points during the college career: CSQ - 1 is applicable to entering college freshmen, and CSQ - 2 to students at close of any academic year of his college career. Both parts provide a number of attitude scales. This study proposes to use selected data from the administration of CSQ - 1 to entering freshmen in the fall of 1967.

While the authors of this instrument maintain that it provides only a composite picture of the students in a college, the present investigation assumes that the results from such an inventory should also be useful for making group prediction for the students who are surveyed.

The general hypothesis of the study is as follows:
The prediction of the academic achievement of the college freshmen is improved when selected non-intellectual factors, as measured by their expressed attitudes are added to the conventional predictor variables of scholastic aptitude and high school academic record.

The specific factors with which the study was concerned are those scales derived from the CSQ as follows:

1. "Motivation for Grades" (MG)
2. "Family Social Status" (FS)
3. "Independence from Family" (FI)
4. "Liberalism" (L)
5. "Social Conscience" (SC)

Selection of the specific factors for study was based in part on theoretical and empirical knowledge in general, and in part on a study of upperclassmen at this institution (Calvert, 1968) which has provided some information based on CSQ - 2.

II. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The subjects and the procedures used in conducting this study are described below.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were 219 students who entered a southern liberal arts institution, attended predominantly by Negro American youth for the first time in the fall of 1967. They were divided according to sex and regional background (home town) as follows:

	<u>N</u>
Male South	44
Male Other	32
Female South	80
Female Other	63
Total	<u>219</u>

"South" is composed of the Southeast and South Central regions, including Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, District of Columbia, Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas. "Other" is composed of students from states in the Northeast, North Central, and Pacific and Mountain regions.

Data

Several kinds of data were employed in the study. First, there were the results derived from the College Student Questionnaire - Part I,

an instrument developed by Educational Testing Service as a means for gathering information about college student bodies. From the total questionnaire, several individual items were selected for the purposes of comparing the sample of students with the CSQ normative population. In addition, the following scale scores were used for assessing the importance of the chosen non-intellective factors in predicting achievement in college.²

1. Family Social Status: a measure of the socioeconomic status of the student's parental family, comprised of 5 items, with a score range of 7-63. High scores indicate high status.³
2. Family Independence - an index of generalized autonomy in relation to parents and parental family, comprised of 10 items, with a total score range of 10-40. High scores indicate greater independence.
3. Liberalism - defined as a "political-economic-social value dimension, the nucleus of which is sympathy either for an ideology of change or for an ideology of preservation," comprised of 10 items, with a total score range of 10-40. High scores identify liberals.
4. Social Conscience - measure of "moral concern about perceived social injustice and what might be called 'institutional wrong doing'", comprised of 10 items, with a total score range of 10-40. High scores are indicative of concern.
5. Motivation for Grades - an index of the desire, as reported, to obtain good grades in secondary school, comprised of 10 items, with a total score range of 10-40. High scores indicate strong motivation.

Three other types of data were also included in the study.

Other data included

1. The student's CEEB's Scholastic Aptitude Test - Total Score (SAT-T).
2. The High School Converted Rank (HSCR) of each student (on a scale from 20-80, with high scores indicative of high rank).
3. Each student's Freshman Grade Point Average (FGPA) for the 1967-68 academic year, with a range of from 0 (E) to 4.00 (A).

High School Converted Ranks were unavailable for 25 Ss, and two-semester grade-point averages were unavailable for 8 Ss. These missing values were predicted from known values on other variables using the best estimate from multiple regression data available for the college in the study.

Procedure

There were 308 entering students who took the CSQ in the Fall of 1967. Eighty-nine (89) of these were eliminated for the following reasons:

CSQ data incomplete	67
Advanced college status	12
Course load too small	3
Did not remain at Fisk	6
Home outside U. S. A.	1
	<hr/>
	89

Comparison of the data for the subjects of this study (219) and the total of 308 on the CSQ items being used indicated no difference in the two groups so that the study population is assumed to be representative of the total group of 308.

Data for the subjects of this study were compared with data for the normative population of the CSQ for the 5 scale scores used and for the following background characteristics: overall high school average, father's occupation, mother's occupation, home town, and sex.

Multiple regression analyses were performed for each of the 4 study sub-groups, all males, all females, and for the total group, using FGPA as the criterion variable (indicative of college achievement), and 7 possible predictor variables. High school converted rank and SAT-T score represent the two conventional variables used in predicting college achievement; while the 5 CSQ scale scores represent selected non-intellectual factors hypothesized to improve the same prediction. Step-wise regression analyses were made, yielding a multiple R for each combination of predictors. The regression analyses for each sub-group were directly comparable for the various groups. The order in which variables were inserted was as follows:

1. SAT-T
2. HSCR
3. Motivation for Grades
4. Family Social Status
5. Social Conscience
6. Liberalism
7. Family Independence

This order was decided upon after preliminary analysis of the inter-correlations of the seven predictor variables and the criterion.

III. RESULTS

Comparison of CSQ Normative Population and Current Study Sample

Home town of the study group by sex, and of the total normative population, is shown in Table 1. It can be seen that there are some differences in the two groups. Considerably more of the study group

was drawn from the South, and fewer from the State in which the college is located. The study sample is also composed of proportionately more females (65.3%) than is the normative group (45).

Differences also exist between the two groups in terms of occupation of the father and occupation of the mother. (See Tables 2 and 3). For both parents, it appears that proportionately fewer are employed (as indicated in the "No Response" category) in the normative group; the difference is particularly great with regard to the employment of mothers. The parents of the study group also appear to be over-represented at the lower occupational levels, while study mothers are also over-represented at the upper end (this discrepancy is most likely due to the lesser frequency of employment of the professionally qualified mothers in the normative group).

Table 4 indicates that there were only slight differences in the overall high school averages of the two groups, the most notable difference occurring at the A- or above level, with 16% of the normative group and 11.4% of the study group in this category. The median category for high school average was "B" for both groups. However, there were marked differences within the study group in terms of both sex and regional background. Females and Southerners appeared to have the better averages, with the regional factor seemingly more important than sex.

There were only very slight differences in the two groups with regard to the 5 CSQ scale scores (See Tables 5-9), which suggests that the differences in background did not appreciably affect the scale scores. Within the study group; however, some differences did occur such as those which follow:

1. Southern students had a lower average index of Family Social Status, and males had a lower index than females.
2. Females had slightly better Social Conscience scores than did males.
3. Southern females were notably different from the other three study sub-groups, in terms of a higher Motivation for Grades. Male southerners were also higher than the "Other" sub-groups, but not as markedly.

Other Characteristics of Study Population

The distribution of the study population in terms of high school rank, SAT-T score, and freshman grade-point average is shown in Tables 10-12. Southern students had a higher average HSCR than did students from other regions, but females were higher than males from the same areas in both instances. SAT-T scored did not follow this pattern - here the higher averages were found among students from outside the South, with male southerners being at least one-half standard deviation below the respective averages of the other sub-groups. The suggested poorer aptitude of male southerners appears confirmed when FGPA's are

examined (See Table 12). Male southerners had, on the average, only slightly better than a C- average (1.68) while each of the other sub-groups had an average between C and C+. Female southerners, who ranked third according to average SAT-T score, had the highest FGPA (2.31).

Correlations of Predictor Variables with Criterion

Intercorrelation Coefficients

Correlation matrices for the sub-groups and the total group are shown in Tables 13-19. The majority of the intercorrelations were in the low positive or negative range. SAT-T score had the highest correlation with FGPA for all sub-groups except female southerners, ranging from .600 for male southerners to .437 for all females. For girls from the South, the highest correlation with FGPA was that of Motivation for Grades, .528. Considerable differences in the pattern of the intercorrelation coefficients were apparent for the various sub-groups. For example, Liberalism and Social Conscience scores, which might logically be expected to show a moderate correlation, had an R of .411 among male southerners and one of .013 among males from other regions.

Prediction of Criterion

Multiple R's and standard errors of estimate are shown in Table 20. It can be seen that the correlation of predictor variables with criterion increases, among all groups, with the addition of each predictor variable into the equation. For the total group, the correlation increased from .5099 when only SAT-T was used, to .5733 when all 7 predictor variables were used. Further examination revealed, however, that the increase in R was not accompanied by as marked a decrease in the standard error of estimate, and that both sex and regional factors appeared to affect the results.

Among males, the use of SAT-T alone appeared to give almost as good an estimate (est = .5270) as did the use of 7 variables (est = .5066). The addition of Family Social Status as a predictor (and possibly Family Independence) seemed to make the largest contribution. The effect of the other variables was negligible. This pattern was not consistent for males from both regional groups. For male southerners, each of the 7 variables appeared to contribute to the reduction of the standard error of estimate from .5208 using 1 predictor variable to .4972 using 7 predictor variables. The largest reduction occurred with the addition of Family Social Status. Among males from outside the South, both Family Social Status and Family Independence appeared to contribute to the accuracy of the prediction. For this latter group the non-intellective factors of Motivation for Grades, Social Conscience and Liberalism did not seem to be of any value in predicting academic achievement.

For all females, the addition of HSCR to the predictive equation resulted in the greatest reduction of the standard error of estimate

(from .5800 using SAT-T only, to .5477 using SAT-T and HSCR). Motivation for Grades and Family Status also contributed to a more accurate prediction; while the effect of the other variables was negligible. Only slight differences in this pattern showed up when females were divided according to regional background. Females from the South had a pattern almost exactly like that of all females, while females from other areas differed in that Motivation for Grades did not contribute to the accuracy of the prediction, although the other non-intellective factors did make some slight reductions in the error of the estimate.

When the standard errors of estimate were corrected for size of sample (See Table 21), the use of multiple predictors seemed even less warranted. Only for the total group, all males, females from the South, and all females did the use of all 7 predictors result in a smaller standard error of estimate than did the use of one predictor. Considering only the variables of this study, inserted into the equation in the order previously indicated, the smallest error of estimate resulted from the use of the following predictors:

	Predictors						
	SAT-T	HSCR	MG	FS	SC	L	FI
Male South	X						
Male Other	X	X	X	X			
All Male	X	X	X	X			
Female South	X	X	X	X	X		
Female Other	X	X					
All Female	X	X	X	X			
Total	X	X					

As to be expected, these results provided a somewhat different picture from that based on the analysis of uncorrected standard errors of estimate alone.

IV. DISCUSSION

In terms of background characteristics, comparison of the study group with the CSQ normative population revealed some differences and some similarities. The groups were dissimilar with regard to the home towns of students, sex distribution, and occupations of parents. These differences were not unexpected in view of the nature of college involved as an institution (private, Southern), and the ethnic group of the majority of its students whose backgrounds reflect generally those of the Negro American minority. Despite differences in background, the study group was very similar to the normative sample in terms of overall high school average, and in terms of the 5 scale scores taken from the CSQ. This suggests that there may be some factor which has not been measured here which tends to unify collegiate populations so that they share similar attitudes and outlooks despite different backgrounds. These comparisons, however, relate only to the total study group; within the study group, considerable differences did occur. Both sex and region appeared to be related to factors of performance and to attitudes. Thus, although the total study group did not differ markedly from the normative population in terms of average scale scores, they showed marked differences from each other. Some of these intra-group differences are reflected in FGPA, the criterion of academic achievement. It is interesting, for example, that southern females, who had the highest average Motivation for Grades, also had the highest average FGPA, though they have next to the lowest in SAT-T score.

It was immediately apparent, from examination of the multiple R's, that the correlation of both intellectual and non-intellectual factors with academic achievement was higher for males than for females, resulting in larger errors of prediction for women. Regional factors also entered here. However, in most instances, correlations were higher for female southerners than for male southerners, while the reverse was true for students from outside the South. The interaction of the factors of sex and regional background was demonstrated throughout this study, and strongly suggests that any studies of college populations should take both of these factors into account.

The correlations of predictor variables with the criterion, ranging from .40 - .60+, are in line with correlations reported from other validity studies, both at this institution and elsewhere. The standard errors of estimate are also compatible with what previous studies have led investigators to expect. These standard errors, unfortunately, are not as low as might be desired, particularly in terms of aiding in admissions decisions. The hypothesis of this study, which suggests that better decisions can be made if non-intellective factors are used as a part of the predictive equation, was generally confirmed since in most instances some error reduction does result. The practical question is, however, whether or not the reduction is sufficiently great to warrant the extra time, error and expense that the measurement of these additional predictors involves. The results of this study suggest that the answer to this practical question may

depend in part on the answer to another question: For whom is the prediction to be made? If it is for a male southerner, it is doubtful that anything other than SAT-T is of much help. For female southerners, on the other hand, three of the non-intellective factors, used with the two conventional predictors, appear to contribute to a more accurate estimate. Finally, if only one equation is to be used for all students, the effect of non-intellective factors does not appear to increase the accuracy of the estimate much beyond that obtained by using SAT-T and HSCR alone. Considering only the sub-groups for which non-intellective factors appeared to make a contribution to predictive accuracy, and using corrected standard errors of estimate, the largest reduction in error of estimate (above that obtained using SAT-T and HSCR) was .0103 points in the Female South group when Motivation for Grades, Family Status and Social Conscience were also included as predictor variables. Using uncorrected standard errors of estimate, the reduction was greater, equal to .0518 points among females from the South when all 7 predictor variables were used.

The results of this study are limited by the size of the sample, which for some sub-groups appreciably affects the shrunken estimate of the multiple R and the standard error of estimate. Even for the total group of 219, however, it cannot be said conclusively that the inclusion of non-intellective factors as predictor variables adds very much to the accuracy of the estimate of academic achievement. The study may also be limited in terms of the choice of non-intellective factors. Although these were chosen in terms of results of previous studies in the literature, theoretical premises, and a recent study of seniors in the college using CSQ data (See Calvert, 1968), it may be that there are other factors which are more pertinent.

It seems reasonable to suggest that non-intellective factors are more strongly related to academic achievement among (1) females from the South, and (2) males from outside the South. If only one predictive equation is to be used, it is doubtful that anything would be gained by using any of these particular non-intellective factors as supplementary predictor variables to SAT-T scores and HSCR.

Thus, not only are these selected non-intellectual variables no substitute for the belabored conventional predictor, but add little substantial information for estimating college performance of these Negro American students. Finally, there are those who would call into question the criterion (FGPA) used in this study, but until there is developed a better criterion, performance and ability test and the high school record are the best indicators of achievement at the college level.

SUMMARY

1. Data from 219 students entering college for the first time were used to
 - a) compare them with the normative population of the College Student Questionnaire (CSQ), an instrument used to gain information about college student bodies; and
 - b) to assess the relationship of selected non-intellective factors (as selected from the CSQ data) to the prediction of academic achievement.
2. The study group was different from the normative group in terms of regional origin, sex distribution, and parents' occupations.
3. Similarities between the study and normative group were great in terms of overall high school average, and attitudes (as indicated by means and standard deviations for the 5 scale scores corresponding to the non-intellective factors used in this study).
4. Intra-group differences for the study group were marked for both intellectual and non-intellectual factors when the group was divided according to sex and regional background.
5. Superficial analysis of multiple correlations and standard errors of estimate resulting from 7 different regression analyses suggested that non-intellective factors did add to the accuracy of predicting academic achievement. However, more refined analysis, with errors of estimate corrected for sample size, suggested that while a reduction in error of estimate did occur for some sub-groups, the reduction was relatively small.
6. It appears that the factors of sex and regional background are important in determining the conditions most important in predicting academic achievement.
7. Finally, the non-intellectual variables which were used in this study for this minority group add little to the prediction of college achievement beyond that from knowledge of test scores and high school record of these students.

FOOTNOTES

- ¹The investigators wish to express their appreciation to the CORD Amistad Research Consortium (based at Fisk University) of seven southern liberal arts institutions (Clark, Dillard, LeMoyne, Fisk, Huston-Tillotson, Talladega, and Tougaloo) under a grant from the U. S. Office of Education for the support of this undertaking.
- ²See Appendix for a list of the items for each of the five selected scales from the CSQ.
- ³This scale has since been amended to include only 4 items, with a score range of 6 through 54.

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TABLE 1
Home Town

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total	Comp. Data
This City		27.3		21.2	13.2	23.0
This County (exc. this city)						9.0
Other within this State		4.5		3.8	2.3	17.0
Northeast	37.5		44.4		18.3	16.0
Southeast		29.5		41.2	21.0	10.0
South Central		38.6		33.8	20.1	4.0
North Central	56.2		44.4		21.0	13.0
Pacific and Mountain	6.2		11.1		4.1	1.0
Outside Continental U. S.						1.0
No response						6.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219	

TABLE 2
Father's Occupation

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total	Comp. Data
Professional requiring an advanced college degree	12.5	4.5	17.5	11.2	11.9	9.0
Owner, high-level executive-large business or high-level gov. ag.			9.5		2.7	8.0
Profession requiring bachelor's degree	21.9	18.2	15.9	13.8	16.4	11.0
Owner, mgr., partner of small business, lower level gov't off.; military commissioned officer	9.4	13.6	14.3	15.0	13.7	17.0
Salesman, bookkeeper, secretary, office worker, etc.	3.1	2.3	6.3	6.2	5.0	13.0
Skilled worker or craftsman	6.2	9.1	15.9	13.8	12.3	13.0
Service worker	15.6	6.8	6.3	10.0	9.1	7.0
Semiskilled worker	15.6	25.0	11.1	15.0	16.0	10.0
Unskilled worker, laborer, farm worker	15.6	20.4	3.2	15.0	12.8	5.0
No response						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219	

TABLE 3
Mother's Occupation

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total	Comp. Data
Professional requiring an advanced college degree	3.1		6.3	7.5	5.0	1.0
Owner, high-level executive-large business or high-level government agency	3.1				.4	
Profession requiring a bachelor's degree	21.9	22.7	33.3	26.2	26.9	9.0
Owner, mgr. partner of small business; lower level gov't off's; military commissioned officer			4.8	1.2	1.8	1.0
Salesman, bookkeeper, secretary, office worker, etc.	12.5	9.1	12.7	11.2	11.4	23.0
Skilled worker or craftsman	3.1	9.1	1.6	3.8	4.1	2.0
Service worker	3.1	2.3	6.3	12.5	7.3	2.0
Semiskilled worker	9.4	13.6	12.7	6.2	10.0	6.0
Unskilled worker, laborer, farm worker	12.5	15.9	3.2	8.8	9.1	6.0
No response	31.2	27.3	19.0	22.5	23.7	50.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	32	44	63	80	219	

TABLE 4
Overall High School Average

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total	Comp. Data
A		2.3		8.8	3.6	6.0
A-	3.1	4.5	4.8	13.8	7.8	10.0
B+		22.7	15.9	23.8	17.8	19.0
B	15.6	15.9	22.2	37.5	25.6	20.0
B-	21.9	34.1	17.5	8.8	18.3	16.0
C+	28.1	11.4	27.0	3.8	15.5	15.0
C	28.1	4.5	9.5	1.3	8.2	8.0
C-	3.1	4.5	3.2	2.5	3.2	1.0
D-or lower						
No response						5.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	32	44	63	80	219	

TABLE 5

Family Social Status

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
56 - 62			1.6	1.2	.9
49 - 55	21.9	2.3	17.5	11.2	12.8
42 - 48	6.2	11.4	15.9	10.0	11.4
35 - 41	12.5	15.9	17.5	16.2	16.0
28 - 34	18.8	9.1	19.0	16.2	16.0
21 - 27	15.6	13.6	23.8	17.5	18.3
14 - 20	6.2	22.7	4.8	21.2	14.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	32	44	63	80	219
Means	31.4	24.8	36.5	30.3	31.1
Standard Deviations	14.5	12.6	11.2	12.3	13.1
Comparative	(Mean				31.3
	(S D				13.3

TABLE 6
Family Independence

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
37 - 39					
34 - 36	3.1		1.6		.9
31 - 33	3.1		4.8		1.8
28 - 30	9.4	4.5	3.2	1.2	3.6
25 - 27	9.4	6.8	11.1	5.0	7.8
22 - 24	40.6	22.7	22.2	16.2	22.8
19 - 21	15.6	27.3	30.2	38.8	30.6
16 - 18	9.4	27.3	20.6	18.8	19.6
13 - 15	6.2	11.4	6.3	15.0	10.5
10 - 12	3.1			5.0	2.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	22.5	20.1	21.4	19.0	20.4
Standard Deviations	5.0	3.8	4.4	3.6	4.3
Comparative	(Mean				20.8
	(S D				5.1

TABLE 7
Liberalism

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
39 - 41			1.6		.4
36 - 38		2.3	3.2		1.4
33 - 35	9.4	4.5	4.8	3.8	5.0
30 - 32	15.6	13.6	9.5	22.5	16.0
27 - 29	31.2	36.4	36.5	35.0	35.2
24 - 26	18.8	13.6	27.0	27.5	23.3
21 - 23	15.6	22.7	15.9	7.5	14.2
18 - 20	9.4	4.5		3.8	3.6
15 - 17		2.3	1.6		.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	26.6	26.4	27.1	27.5	27.0
Standard Deviations	4.2	4.4	4.0	3.3	3.9
Comparative	(Mean (S D				25.5 4.4

TABLE 8
Social Conscience

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
39 - 41				1.2	.4
36 - 38	3.1	2.3	3.2	10.0	5.5
33 - 35	12.5	6.8	19.0	17.5	15.1
30 - 32	18.8	20.4	17.5	25.0	21.0
27 - 29	21.9	20.4	19.0	21.2	20.5
24 - 26	25.0	20.4	25.4	17.5	21.5
21 - 23	12.5	18.2	12.7	7.5	11.9
18 - 20	6.2	6.8	3.2		3.2
15 - 17		4.5			.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	27.6	26.4	28.2	29.7	28.3
Standard Deviations	4.6	4.9	4.4	29.7	4.7
Comparative (Mean (S D)					28.1 4.6

TABLE 9
Motivation for Grades

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
37 - 39	3.1			3.8	1.8
34 - 36		2.3	3.2	15.0	6.8
31 - 33	12.5	15.9	12.7	18.8	15.5
28 - 30	3.1	27.3	20.6	28.8	22.4
25 - 27	28.1	20.4	23.8	18.8	21.9
22 - 24	25.0	18.2	14.3	11.2	15.5
19 - 21	21.9	9.1	14.3	3.8	10.5
16 - 18	3.1	6.8	11.1		5.0
12 - 15	3.1				.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	24.6	26.4	25.3	29.3	26.9
Standard Deviations	4.9	4.4	4.9	4.2	4.9
Comparative	(Mean (S D				26.1 5.1

TABLE 10
High School Converted Rank

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
76 - 80				3.8	1.4
71 - 75		2.3	3.2	23.8	10.0
66 - 70	3.1	4.5	6.3	13.8	8.2
61 - 65	15.6	25.0	17.5	22.5	20.5
56 - 60	15.6	29.5	34.9	16.2	24.2
51 - 55	25.0	25.0	11.1	16.2	17.8
46 - 50	25.0	11.4	19.0	3.8	12.8
41 - 45	15.6		7.9		4.6
36 - 40		2.3			.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	53.3	57.1	55.8	63.6	58.6
Standard Deviations	6.7	6.3	7	7.7	8.2

TABLE 11
SAT - T Score

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
1250 - 1349			1.6	1.2	.9
1150 - 1249			1.6	2.5	1.4
1050 - 1149	9.4	2.3	3.2		2.7
950 - 1049	9.4	4.5	12.7	10.0	9.6
850 - 949	31.2	22.7	17.5	26.2	23.7
750 - 849	28.1	22.7	44.4	36.2	34.7
650 - 749	21.9	27.3	17.5	17.5	20.1
550 - 649		15.9	1.6	5.0	5.5
450 - 549		4.5		1.2	1.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	852.8	759.4	847.8	831.2	824.7
Standard Deviations	129.1	127.8	129.1	129.2	133.2

TABLE 12

Freshman Grade-Point Average

	Male Other	Male South	Female Other	Female South	Total
3.60 - 3.99				2.5	.9
3.20 - 3.59	6.2		6.3	5.0	4.6
2.80 - 3.19	12.5	2.3	9.5	17.5	11.4
2.40 - 2.79	15.6	9.1	14.3	25.0	17.4
2.00 - 2.39	18.8	18.2	27.0	13.8	19.2
1.60 - 1.99	18.8	29.5	20.6	20.0	21.9
1.20 - 1.59	18.8	20.4	15.9	12.5	16.0
.80 - 1.19	9.4	11.4	4.8	3.8	6.4
.40 - .79		6.8	1.6		1.8
.00 - .39		2.3			.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N's	32	44	63	80	219
Means	2.10	1.70	2.13	2.32	2.11
Standard Deviations	.65	.61	.64	.64	.67

TABLE 13
 Correlation Matrix for Male South Sub-group
 N=44

	FI	L	SC	MG	FS	SAT-T	HSCR	FGPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	-.049							
Social Conscience	-.561	.411						
Motivation for Grades	-.285	.040	.271					
Family Social Status	.071	-.041	-.194	-.140				
SAT - Total	.091	.153	.024	-.008	.445			
HSCR	-.218	-.008	.067	.382	.107	.255		
FGPA	-.037	-.013	-.051	.124	.368	.513	.241	

TABLE 14
 Correlation Matrix for Male Other Sub-group
 N=32

	FI	L	SC	MG	FS	SAT-T	HSCR	FOPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	.161							
Social Conscience	-.151	.013						
Motivation for Grades	-.018	.042	.088					
Family Social Status	-.175	.001	.128	.259				
SAT-Total	.328	.269	-.133	.133	.227			
HSCR	.067	.061	.253	.210	.089	.404		
FOPA	.299	.164	.017	.107	.346	.600	.367	

TABLE 15
Correlation Matrix for All Males
N=76

	FI	L	SC	MG	FX	SAT-T	HSCR	FGPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	.058							
Social Conscience	-.312	.254						
Motivation for Grades	-.187	.034	.162					
Family Social Status	.009	-.013	-.019	.007				
SAT-Total	.276	.200	.014	-.011	.395			
HSCR	-.142	.012	.102	.336	.025	.195		
FGPA	.201	.070	.017	.050	.402	.596	.190	

TABLE 16
 Correlation Matrix for Female South Sub-group
 N=80

	FI	L	SC	MO	FS	SAT-T	HSCR	FGPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	-.154							
Social Conscience	-.327	.337						
Motivation for Grades	-.213	.204	.326					
Family Social Status	.119	-.118	-.231	-.330				
SAT-Total	-.022	.128	.158	.349	-.234			
HSCR	-.078	.106	.257	.187	-.241	.432		
FGPA	-.011	.069	.281	.528	-.343	.463	.460	

TABLE 17
 Correlation Matrix for Female Other Sub-group
 N=63

	FI	L	SC	MG	FS	SAT-T	HSCR	FGPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	.341							
Social Conscience	-.091	.396						
Motivation for Grades	-.320	-.160	.052					
Family Social Status	.105	.259	-.048	-.124				
SAT - Total	.148	.446	.358	-.065	.133			
HSCR	-.127	.00	-.037	.402	-.347	.236		
FGPA	-.08	.238	.212	.042	.017	.439	.288	

TABLE 18
Correlation Matrix for All Females
N=143

	FI	L	SC	MG	FS	SAT-T	HSCR	FGPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	.093							
Social Conscience	-.247	.367						
Motivation for Grades	-.350	.033	.245					
Family Social Status	.174	.041	-.190	-.309				
SAT - Total	.077	.277	.286	.036	-.063			
HSCR	-.216	.074	.209	.564	-.358	.281		
FGPA	-.084	.156	.202	.242	-.222	.437	.408	

TABLE 19
Correlation Matrix for Total Study Group
N=219

	FI	L	SC	MG	FS	SAT-T	HSCR	FGPA
Family Independence								
Liberalism	.067							
Social Conscience	-.288	.333						
Motivation for Grades	-.307	.051	.246					
Family Social Status	.083	.038	-.076	-.150				
SAT - Total	.133	.257	.208	.045	.140			
HSCR	-.214	.077	.221	.520	-.163	.279		
FGPA	-.010	.144	.183	.216	.067	.510	.387	

TABLE 20

Correlations (and Standard Errors of Estimates) of Predictor Variables and Criterion, by Sub-groups

5

R and with FGPA	Cost of predictor variables	All					Female		Total
		MS	MO	Male	FS	FS			
SAT-T	R's cost's	.5134 .5208	.5998 .5211	.5962 .5270	.4633 .5666	.4393 .5718	.4374 .5800	.5099 .5784	
SAT-T, HSCA	R's cost's	.5259 .5166	.6151 .5135	.6009 .5250	.5456 .5359	.4784 .5590	.5286 .5477	.5699 .5529	
SAT-T, HSCR, MG	R's cost's	.5335 .5136	.6151 .5135	.6018 .5243	.5636 .5282	.4785 .5590	.5329 .5458	.5744 .5509	
SAT-T, HSCR, MG FS	R's cost's	.5613 .5026	.6542 .4927	.6296 .5099	.5878 .5173	.4799 .5584	.5400 .5432	.5767 .5495	
SAT-T, HSCR, MG FS, SC	R's cost's	.5652 .5008	.6543 .4927	.6296 .5099	.5917 .5154	.4894 .5552	.5402 .5432	.5772 .5495	
SAT-T, HSCR, MG FS, SC, L	R's cost's	.5676 .4996	.6548 .4927	.6304 .5092	.5920 .5154	.4905 .5546	.5416 .5426	.5772 .5495	
SAT-T, HSCR, MG FS, SC, L, FI	R's cost's	.5734 .4972	.6804 .4777	.6369 .5066	.5935 .5118	.5083 .5482	.5422 .5419	.5773 .5488	
N's		44	32	76	80	63	143	219	

TABLE 21

Standard Errors of Estimate Corrected for Size of Sample, by Sub-groups

Predictors	MS	MO	ALL		FS	FO	ALL		Total
			Male	Female			Female	Female	
SAT-T	.5260	.5318	.5323	.5723	.5775	.5800	.5784		
SAT-T, HSCR	.5269	.5289	.5302	.5412	.5702	.5532	.5529		
SAT-T, HSCR, MG	.5311	.5392	.5318	.5388	.5758	.5512	.5564		
SAT-T, HSCR, MG, FS	.5277	.5272	.5252	.5328	.5752	.5486	.5550	44	
SAT-T, HSCR, MG, FS, SC	.5308	.5370	.5303	.5309	.5774	.5511	.5550		
SAT-T, HSCR, MG, FS, SC, L	.5396	.5469	.5296	.5360	.5823	.5534	.5550		
SAT-T, HSCR, MG, FS, SC, L, FI	.5419	.5617	.5319	.5354	.5811	.5582	.5598		
N's	44	32	76	80	63	143	219		

APPENDIX

The Selected CSQ Scales

1. Motivation for Grades

65. During your secondary school years, did you receive any honors or awards for scholarly achievement?
76. Did most of your high school teachers probably think of you as one of their hardest workers even though not necessarily one of the brightest?
77. Did other interests (sports, extracurricular activities, or hobbies) prevent you from obtaining an excellent rating or mark for effort in your high school work?
78. Compared with most of your classmates, how much would you say you studied during your senior year in high school?
81. Do you think your fellow students in high school thought of you as a hard worker?
83. Did you try harder to get on (and stay on) the honor roll or merit list than the average student in your high school class?
84. Do you tend to give up or delay on uninteresting assignments?
85. In terms of your own personal satisfaction, how much importance do you attach to getting good grades?
88. Did you regard yourself as a more consistent and harder worker in your classroom assignments than the typical student in your high school classes?
89. How well do you feel you learned how to study in high school?

2. Family Social Status

108. Which of the following categories comes closest to your father's occupation? If your father is retired, deceased, or unemployed, indicate his former or customary occupation (weighted 3).
113. What is your best estimate of the total income last year of your parental family (not your own family if you are married)? Consider annual income from all sources before taxes.
115. How much formal education does (did) your father have? Indicate only the highest level (i.e. mark only one of the nine alternatives).
116. Indicate the extent of your mother's formal education. Use the alternatives in the preceding question. (Mark only one)

120. Which of the categories below comes closest to describing the nationality or ethnic background of your father's ancestors?

3. Social Conscience

172. Do you become indignant when you read that a high government official has taken money or gifts in return for favors?
174. How strongly do you feel that something must be done soon about the rising tide of juvenile crime in this country?
175. Are you concerned about the extent to which economic poverty still exists in the United States (e.g., the fact that in 1965 about one-sixth of American families earned under \$3000 a year)?
177. Are you concerned that persons who are not white-Anglo-Saxon-Protestant seem to have somewhat less opportunity in America?
178. Are you disturbed about what appears to be a growing preoccupation with money and material possessions throughout this country accompanied by a declining concern for national aims, spiritual values, and other moral considerations?
181. Are you concerned about the many elderly people in the U. S. who are left alone to live "on crumbs of welfare measures"?
186. Would you be upset at the sight of children looking at obscene printed material at a magazine stand (or elsewhere)?
189. Do you feel that the decision to drop an atomic bomb on the city of Hiroshima was right or wrong?
191. Are you disturbed when you hear of confessions of extensive rigging of bids or rigging or "administering" of prices in some essential industry in the U. S.?
193. How would you feel (or have you felt) when first hearing about a lynching somewhere in the United States (which happened as recently as 1959 - to a man named Parker)?

4. Liberalism

171. Do you consider your political point of view to be generally?
173. Would you agree that the government should have the right to prohibit certain groups of persons who disagree with our form of government from holding peaceable public meetings?
176. Do you agree that police are unduly hampered in their efforts to apprehend criminals when they have to have a warrant to search a house?
179. Do you agree or disagree with the belief that capital punishment (the death penalty) should be abolished?

182. Would you agree or disagree that the government should do more than it is presently doing to see that everyone gets adequate medical care?
185. Would you agree or disagree that legislative committee should not investigate the political beliefs of college or university faculty members?
188. Do you agree or disagree that labor unions these days are doing the country more harm than good?
192. Would you agree or disagree that conscientious objectors should be excused from military service in wartime?
194. Do you agree or disagree with the contention that the welfare state tends to destroy individual initiative?
200. Do you agree or disagree with the belief that individual liberties and justice under law are not possible in socialist countries?

5. Family Independence

148. During the coming year, how often do you plan to see your parents?
149. Could you become so absorbed in some kind of activity that you would lose interest in your family?
150. Would you agree that a person should generally consider the needs of his parental family as a whole more important than his own needs?
151. Would you agree that members of your family should hold fairly similar religious beliefs?
152. Would you describe your family as:
153. Many parents take a great deal of interest in what their sons and daughters do. How important is it to you that you satisfy your parents' wishes?
154. Do you feel that in the last year or so you have been growing closer to your family or further away from it?
155. Do you consult with your parents when you are faced with important personal decisions?
156. Do you feel that you should consult with your parents on important personal matters?
157. How dependent on or independent of your parents do you consider yourself to be at the present time?

From: Vincent E. De Juan
Phillips College
Phillips, Alabama 35660

To: National Research Center

Subject: Report on Sub-Grant for Research in Methods of Beginning Instruction in the Principles of Music in General Humanities Courses

Background. In April 1970 a sub-grant was awarded to the writer of this report in order that, as a teacher in a required General Humanities course for freshmen in a predominantly Negro college, he might begin "to seek out the three or four basic methods of introducing the principles of music to students who will (presumably) never have more than an amateur interest" in the subject.

Special problem. The problem is a special one in that the nature of music is ephemeral, except in its written or printed form in a score. Although it is intensely human -- according to tradition, especially so for Afro-Americans -- to respond to rhythmic, melodic, and harmonic impulses with singing, dancing, and other spontaneous activity, the moment of participation passes quickly. It may of course survive vividly in memory, but means of studying it, in the customary academic sense, are never entirely satisfactory.

Other handicaps. Technical knowledge for the instructor and the threat of a specialized vocabulary tend to intervene; and it is often difficult to set up facilities for students to prepare or review assignments, in that records (and often tapes) are expensive and fragile, and hours in "listening rooms" supervised by authorized personnel are apt to be restricted and/or inconvenient.

Basic approach. It therefore seemed sensible to try to work out methods whereby the learning process is an active, participatory one, rather than one of sedentary reading or mere torpid listening. Also, such doing would suggest a return to the Renaissance ideal of the enthusiastic amateur making his own music -- rather than the common modern notion of the spectator being "entertained" by specialists.

Procedure. The investigator enlisted the cooperation of his chief student assistant, a fifth-year student in the Department of Music. Together with a team of four volunteers (all freshmen currently enrolled in the General Humanities program) they combed all general introductory texts on music in the College Library, as well as an extensive selection of pertinent periodical articles of the past decade.

Card file of findings. A card file was kept of outlines of presentations of the basic elements of music, along with suggested exercises; particular attention was paid to musical examples -- often folk songs, nursery songs, hymns, patriotic ditties, and other simple pieces likely to be well known to all entering students. Where the examples are more sophisticated, they are still widely

withholds in general form and likely to be quickly recognized once they are played.

Findings. Related to their simplest elements, there seem to be five main pedagogical approaches to the early stages of teaching the principles of music to non-music majors. The first two are related to cultural phenomena. Since they are not directly adaptable to the course and/or its instructor at Talladega, they may be dispensed with first.

- a) **CHRONOLOGY.** This approach has considerable merit, especially because it can be sensibly fused with the whole purpose of the course: namely, to consider all humanistic enterprises in some interrelated way within a cultural context. (That is, why are Medieval things peculiarly "Medieval" and yet linked mysteriously to the ancient classical world of the past, and to the Renaissance world yet to come?) The problem here is that attention to music would have to be suspended until a third of the year's course had passed (after a consideration of Greece and Rome); and it is most desirable to begin with a group of connected units which might be called "How to Read an Essay," "How to Look at a Picture," and "How to Listen to Music," etc. So the chronological approach must be discarded, at least for purposes of introduction to principles.
- b) **POP-CONTEMPORARY.** This approach would be surefire if it could be made to work; but it is fraught with possibilities for irretrievable disaster -- mostly because it would require an instructor so "hip," so attuned to youthful taste, that he could choose popular selections from "rock" and "soul" music and similar forms to illustrate the basic principles. An inaccurate choice that was deemed passe or phoney would ruin his chances. (In the hands of a real expert, however, this is a marvelous technique -- because a tremendous number of clear and telling parallels could be made between these songs and works from the classical repertoire.)

The three remaining possibilities could easily be adapted -- singly or in some combination -- to the purposes of a course in the General Humanities:

- c) **RHYTHM.** Without presenting or analyzing such formal concepts as meter -- those would come later, out of the first few sessions -- the class, perhaps with individual performers, would respond to the "beats" in marches, waltzes, minuets, Dixieland jazz, modern rock (suitable for bougaloo or fug dancing, etc.) and other forms. The approach would be to gradually separate "beat" notes from other notes, distinguishing those which receive emphasis and then trying to bring out some system of time-signatures. Active participation would be encouraged via clapping or stamping, and certain students could even engage in

elementary "conducting," working from 2-beat to 1-beat systems and eventually to more complicated forms. The process from this point would be to show how melodic lines are strung upon rhythmic pegs, and then how variations in sound (brasses, woodwinds, strings) change the quality of the melodic lines within rhythmic orders.

- d) **MELODY.** This presentation would begin at the opposite end of the process suggested above. Well-known melodies -- perhaps hymns or folk songs (care would have to be taken to avoid certain spiritual and blues forms, which are surprisingly irregular and sophisticated when analyzed) -- would be played, one note at a time. Experiments would be undertaken in judging the effect of changing individual notes, or groups of notes. Other experiments would be tried in dividing the class into small groups, each of which would be given the same bar or two of some simple wordless melody invented for the occasion (or, perhaps, borrowed from a classic which would probably not be familiar to the students). Each group would then compose its continuation -- and, hopefully, conclusion -- of the introductory melody. This would provide an excellent opportunity for discussion of why: why that combination of notes was chosen, for communication of what emotion, if any, etc. (Comparison with the classic might then be especially instructive.) From construction of elementary melodic lines, progression would then be made to variations in tonality and in the effects of rhythm changes.
- e) **SOUND.** The approach here would generally be one of encouraging an analysis of sound itself, from the peep of a piccolo to the groan of a bassoon. This could have two attractions which are only peripherally musical: for the scientifically inclined, in studies of sound waves and acoustics in general; or for the crafts-oriented, in the actual creation of primitive instruments. It would be extremely helpful if students could use these instruments themselves, even if they make sounds which are seemingly merely noise. If this is not possible, for reasons of the delicacy or high cost of the instruments, musicians should be on hand to explain and perform. (Films, filmstrips, records and so on should be accepted only as a last resort; the value of the approach-through-sound lies to an enormous extent in the living presence of the tone.) Once familiarity with the variety of musical sounds makes itself felt, the next steps would lead to scales and tonality, and thence either to melody or rhythm, or some combination thereof, as the mood of the moment may dictate.

Originally planned application. The investigator had hoped that he could work, in the coming summer, with groups of students in the Upward Bound program of Talladega College, taking methods C, D, and E as outlined above, and applying them in actual practice.

Numerous internal variations could have been described. The survey of student reaction would have helped to isolate particularly effective parts. Finally, a panel discussion of students, exchanging experiences and suggestions, would undoubtedly have been fruitful in inspiring combinations of methods. Unfortunately, for reasons not pertinent to this report, this plan cannot be carried out.

Currently planned application. It should still be possible for the investigator to work with the essentials of the experiment outlined above. His enrollment in General Humanities next year (probably 110-120 students) will be too large to go into detailed variations, on a personal basis, with closely knit groups; but there are still discussion sections (25-30 students) which should permit at least the beginnings of a comparative analytical process. Also, small groups of volunteers might well be enlisted, perhaps with the coaxing of "extra credit" -- although this is apt to create motivations not really directed to the subject matter. We shall see.

Statement of gratitude. The author of this report concerning his seed-grant deeply appreciates the opportunity to begin this important research project, and his thanks are sincerely extended to the Amistad Research Center and to Talladega College. Numerous conversations with colleagues in other institutions, wrestling with the problems of General Humanities, indicate that the teaching of music is invariably the weakest part of the course, unless the instructor has special skills. Therefore, this project, directed toward organization of various methods of teaching the principles of music by non-professionals, may be a beginning toward understanding of the problem and certain possible solutions.

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May 30, 1970

Final Report

MEASUREMENT IN A PSYCHOLOGY COURSE OF THE TRANSFER OF TRAINING FROM PARTICIPATION IN RELATED OUTSIDE ACTIVITIES TO CLASSROOM PERFORMANCE

The project which was proposed and funded was designed to provide the financial wherewithal to engage in a recreational type program at Whitfield, the Mississippi State Mental Hospital. The mental hygiene (abnormal psychology) class as a group took on the project, agreeing to go to Whitfield on a regular basis and to provide for the patients in one residential unit, recreational activities.

The idea behind this project was that students want and need "real life" involvement in the subjects they are studying whenever possible. It was believed that such students would perceive themselves as more involved in their work, and would therefore enjoy it more, learn more and do better. The procedure was as follows: a questionnaire was administered to students near the beginning of the course. A questionnaire covering the same areas was then administered at the end of the course. The major results of this questionnaire are presented below:

Rating on a 7 point scale - 1 = not very good. 7 = very good

Felt understanding of mental patients	#1 2.6	#2 (end of course) 5.0
Felt competence with mental patients	1.9	4.4
Interest in mental patients	5.4	5.8

These results show that students felt that they improved in competence in dealing with mental patients, in understanding of mental patients. It also shows that their interest in mental patients increased slightly, even though it started out at a high level. The class was then broken down into students who had gone to Whitfield 3 or more times and those who had gone less than 3. On a 4 point grade scale (A=4), students who had gone 3 or more times scored 3.4, while the other group scored 2.6. This tends to substantiate the notion that increased participation in relevant situations increases some factor which influences academic performance, perhaps learning, retention, motivation or interest.

In terms of evaluating perceived involvement, students were asked to rate the mental hygiene class as compared to their other 3 or 4 courses. This class stood at 1.5 out of 4, on felt involvement, similar ratings were obtained for interest (1.2); amount learned (1.3); understanding gained (1.5) amount of work (1.7) and amount of work the student would have been willing to do (1.4). Thus several indicators suggest that the students did feel involved and interested in abnormal psychology and in the course.

Their comments written on the questionnaire also indicate this: "continue the project", "we read, discussed and then saw", "I enjoyed the mixture of application and theory" and many other

comments of the class members. The history of real life and class room study helped people gain understanding, confidence and clarity.

Although I would consider that the project was a success, there were some unfortunate limitations, most not under our control. Due to lack of staff at the state hospital, we were unable to visit Whitfield at any time other than on Wednesday afternoons. Therefore several class members who had great interest were not able to participate as they wished to. We should have thought, while we were about it, to develop some measure of the patients for a before and after design too. They definitely changed while we were going out to Whitfield. The experience of designing such a measure would have helped educationally, and it would also have increased the meaning of this project from a more "professional" point of view. A similar measure of the on the spot competence of the students would also have been useful, however we simply did not have the personnel to undertake these things.

I believe that the objectives for me personally were accomplished. I have what I believe to be a reasonable demonstration that such a class format not only can work, but can work well, to benefit students, faculty and an outside party, in this case the patients.

Sincerely,

Claire Morse, Ph.D.
Tougaloo College
Tougaloo, Mississippi
June 8, 1970

Final Report

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP OF COLLEGE LIFE TO REAL LIFE AS A WHOLE

The locus of the project (the campus of a Church-related college) allowed for both a narrowing and a widening of the focus: in brief, "real life as a whole" includes religion as both subject and vantage point. Events on campus during the year 1968-69 served to underline the painful obviousness of the problem as defined in the application. The inconclusiveness of this report further suggests its depth and complexity.

As if to validate the widespread and continuing awareness of the problem as locally defined, the lead article in the Center Magazine for April 1969 contains this passage. John U. Hof formerly served as chairman of the Committee on Social Thought at the University of Chicago.

"The consequences of leaving Christ standing outside the arena of life combining with those of treating the highest norms of human conduct as unrealizable eventually led to pleas, like that of Theodore Roosevelt, for 'realizable ideals.' . . . We have an overwhelming need to break with certain prejudices. The first is that human nature is incapable of improvement and that the visions of perfection which religious prophets have had are impractical, that attempts to realize them do the human race more harm than good. The second prejudice, which is closely related to the first, is that ideals must be adjusted to human nature at its most mediocre, if not its most base." (page 6)

For what it may mean, this record of "encounters" and "activities undertaken" reveals the following:

The four visitors met with 39 classes (averaging 25 students, with some duplication - i.e., two "exposures"), with 17 cooperating faculty, in all divisions of the college, with emphasis in the Social Sciences. In each case a free ranging discussion followed an initial statement by the visitor. The discussion tended to be in the context of the class material. The visitor, in his person, represented a living commitment to the position that religion and higher education are part of one whole, life itself. Their statements implied that religion is not a peripheral and occasional activity, but an informing and formative stance in the midst of life as well as a powerful agent of social change.

Three general encounters were scheduled, plus two periods of interchange (evaluation) among the visitors and with the campus leadership of the venture. The three involved 70-150-80 persons. Faculty were well represented at the first, which was a dinner meeting at the beginning of the week.

The next week it may have seemed that the whole experience had sunk without a trace; but there were a few ripples in the pool: just one more administration engineered event - but with a difference. Many individual students had a fundamental experience of questioning to absorb,

of subject, of time, appealing to the observations brought from previous, more circumstantial functional background and varied religious experience (pre-eminently Memphis Baptist and Methodist churches). Attendance at the chapel program was up, but the subject was low high in a preliminary survey compilation: "A Christian View of Sexuality." There were 200+ respondents.

After an interval of five weeks, an essay contest was announced, probing for the meaning of the week in the life of the respondent: "an account of the personal experience of insight and growth during and since the week that the four visitors were present in classes and on campus early in the semester."

Despite the coincident build-up toward a demonstration-confrontation-negotiation "event", there were three essays judged worthy of awards. Assuming these were the "tip of the iceberg", there had been some discovery of the wholeness of life, including college life.

Further evaluation attempts pushed in two directions, with committees: one of students in an extended, taped discussion of "What is RELEVANT Worship?" arranged by co-chaplain Ahurus Jackson; the other, a subcommittee of the Religious Life Committee, which arrived at the attached third draft of a working paper. The paper was designed to precipitate intra-faculty encounter in this Church-related college seeking appropriate expression in institutional form of its presumed traditional non-secular orientation.

The continuing chapel programs pursued week by week the basic assumption implicit in the posed question of the project. Topics of interest for discussion were drawn from the previously mentioned questionnaire. Response in attendance at these discussion/services was insignificant; the significance to the students and faculty/staff who voluntarily attended was considerable. This is, of course, an imponderable; the judgment a subjective one of the undersigned.

Faculty response to the working paper as requested by the President and the Dean was singular (one); reported departmental meetings, none. The wholeness of life in the campus context where Departments do their own thing, where credits are accumulated, where graduation results, remains an elusive, accidental happening, as far as the student is concerned. At any rate, religion as a vantage point or an organizing center is not a subject to which the faculty hastens to give its mind and attention.

All of which underlines what we may have suspected as true: ours is an age which, having discarded the guidelines of religion, thrashes about in compartments, each more or less autonomous, lacking any firm sense of direction, its institutions of higher education busy processing similarly fragmented minds: a pluralistic society without a discernible goal, and the private Church-related college a mere reflection, no exception to the general rule.

Respectfully submitted,
Edward F. Ouellette, Chaplain
LeMoyne-Owen College
Memphis Tennessee
May 17, 1969

A WORKING PAPER for consideration, response and revision, by faculty, administration and students of LeMoyne-Owen College.

AN INQUIRY into the assignment given the Religious Life Committee on the LeMoyne-Owen campus.

CONTEXT: "A college with LeMoyne-Owen's history, philosophy and concern has an obligation to provide an exposure to meaningful religious services to those who are enrolled."

ASSUMPTION: Religious life is a quality, a "flavor" of the total life of an individual or a group, usually (but not always) distinctive and identifiable because of some behavior, including participation in formal, regular ritual. "Meaningful religious services" may be construed as services of helpfulness to others as well as services of worship toward God.

THE PRESENT SITUATION is a compound of ...

- (a) attitudes of commuter students, mostly returning daily to their homes, with those predominant backgrounds:
Baptist (), Methodist (), Roman Catholic (), Other ().
- (b) a majority starting point: the rejection of authoritarian authority.
- (c) a pervasive provincialism, of three types:
 1. the blind accepters of their traditional religious life
 2. those venturing some rethinking of traditional forms because they care
 3. the apathetic: unquestioning, unpracticing
- (d) the disinterest of faculty who are "doing their job" which does not include furthering the religious aspects of the purpose of the college.
- (e) lack of definition/clarity/understanding of this purpose and orientation, this stance, this posture.
- (f) the segregation of religious life into a compartment at the periphery of college life with a chaplain in charge.
- (g) the secular character of our total society.
- (h) the impact of recent events on the campus.
- (i) the dominating availability of the Student Union: comfort, peers, free-time, food and games.
- (j) a genuine "lostness" on the part of many.
- (k) the unexpressed service orientation on the part of many.

RESPONSE TO THIS SITUATION IN THIS CONTEXT

Orientation attitudes

- ... Ultimate concern for the growth and development of all persons on campus.
- ... Minimal concern for the number of bodies present: increasing concern for the quality of lives of persons.

Witness to the existence of God and the Christian message and gospel by a gathered, committed core group. The time set aside on Wednesdays at 10:30 can stand as a regular, predictable visible symbol of the Christian presence on the campus in campus life.

Witness in the form of increased attention to personal relationships.

Diagnosis of present faculty nurture of this quality/aspect of student life in classroom and other situations.

Celebration of this mutual awareness in common understandings and worship.

Participation and/or availability giving visible evidence of this mutual awareness and these common understandings in scheduled forum, panel, discussion situations.

Scheduled and serious discussion by departments and by the full faculty of the role of religion on this campus in view of its heritage and purpose as clarified.

Enlistment of the Department of Religion and Philosophy (Dr. Hayes, the Rev. Mr. Green, and students) in this discussion, discovery and celebration.

Consideration of some explicit integration of this response into an Orientation program of the college.

Introduction of a credit course having the college's chapel program as related field work, taught by the Chaplain. Title: The Church as Social Institution from A.D. 30 to 1970.

Summary: The assignment given to the Religious Life Committee is to introduce into the academic life of the college a sense of responsibility which is called "religious life: expressing itself in "service to God and service to man."

PACKET ON THE NEGRO IN AMERICA
A GUIDE FOR
SECONDARY TEACHERS OF HISTORY, CIVICS, GOVERNMENT AND PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY

Prepared by

THE AMISTAD RESEARCH CENTER

Fisk University
Nashville, Tennessee 37203

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FOREWORD

In recent years many extensive bibliographies on the Negro American have been published, usually without comment on the materials or with only brief descriptive statements. The bibliographies included in this packet were compiled after reviewing voluminous amounts of materials and selecting those items which our staff of historians and teachers considered basic and most valuable to teachers and students. We hope the annotations will be useful and serve as a guide to the use of the materials.

The packet is incomplete. It is our intention not only to add other items but also to revise the packet periodically. We hope you will write us about good materials you have used and can recommend. We will be very grateful for your critiques, of the packet as a whole, of parts, or of specific selections.

Please inform us if you wish your name to remain in our mailing list.

WHAT DIRECTION FOR NEGRO HISTORY IN OUR SCHOOLS?

Protest against neglect and misrepresentation of the Negro in the teaching and writing of American history is not a recent development. Early nineteenth century Negro leaders and their friends recognized that views of history contribute significantly in shaping values, behavior and institutions. Samuel E. Cornish and John Russwurm, owners and editors of America's first Negro newspaper, Freedom's Journal, proclaimed in their opening editorial, in 1827, that "too long has the public been deceived by misrepresentations," and pledged their paper to print "everything that related to Africa," believing that as "that vast continent becomes daily more known . . . many things will come to light, proving that the natives of it are neither so ignorant nor stupid as they have generally been supposed to be." The first serious effort by an American to tell the history of the Negro was the work of a fugitive slave, James W. C. Pennington, whose Textbook of the Origin and History . . . of the Colored People appeared in 1841. In his treatment of the Negro in Africa and the origins of slavery in western Europe and the Americas, Pennington deliberately worked to disprove the misconceptions which he felt provided the basis for the prejudice of white Americans against the Negro. The pioneer efforts of Pennington were followed by a large number of nineteenth century Negro writers intent on counteracting the unbalanced and biased treatment of the Negro in American history by writing works portraying not only the African heritage of the Negro but also detailing his contributions to the development of America. Some of these, including William C. Nell, William Wells Brown, and particularly George Washington Williams, wrote notable studies which compared favorably with the best historical scholarship of their day. Nevertheless, their impact upon the writing and interpretation of American history by the mass of white writers was negligible.

A major breakthrough in the study of Negro history came in 1915 with the establishment, under the leadership of Carter G. Woodson, of the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. Besides publishing books on Negro history, the Association began issuing The Journal of Negro History in 1916, with Woodson, a trained historian and creative scholar, as its editor, thus opening unprecedented opportunities for publication of the writings of Negro history scholars. The Journal of Negro History gradually developed into one of the leading historical periodicals of the nation, and the Association published a large number of important monographs produced by Negro scholars and also a monumental general history of the Negro written by Woodson. Meanwhile, more and more white scholars were attracted to the study of the Negro and new channels were opened for publishing the writings in the field. By the opening of the Civil Rights Revolution there was a voluminous accumulation of scholarly writings dealing with practically every aspect of negro life and history. To this has been added a flood of publication in recent years. Negro history, which as a result of the efforts of Woodson and his followers only recently obtained respectability as a field of scholarly study, has within the last decade become overwhelmingly popular among historians of all races.

Publishers are not only searching for new works but they are rushing to reprint early writings in the field.

In spite of the long years of productive scholarship, few of the facts or interpretations resulting from it are being transferred into the average classroom. Consequently, students, civil rights organizations, journalists, teachers, historical associations, and even the National Education Association have joined in demanding a more balanced treatment of the Negro in American history. Most of the critics of the present-day treatment of the Negro have directed their attack on textbooks. They have found that with few exceptions textbook writers have been influenced very little, if at all, by recent scholarship in Negro history. Two recent extensive and penetrating analyses of American history textbooks have revealed that not only is the Negro frequently misrepresented by the omission of significant facts, but that there remain in many books glaring examples of unconscious bias and overt racism.*

Misrepresentation of the Negro's role in American history is apparent from the very beginning of most texts. While discussions of the Greek and Roman origins of European civilization and the European background of American history are considered mandatory by many textbook writers, few give any attention to African civilizations or to evidence accumulated by recent scholarship of the Asiatic and African backgrounds of European history. The omission entirely of any discussion of African civilization denies in effect that the Negro had a history prior to coming to America and helps to perpetuate the myth of the Dark Continent inhabited by backward and savage peoples.

The initial appearance of the Negro in most American history textbooks comes with the arrival of the first members of the race at Jamestown in 1619. Few texts mention that Negroes accompanied Spanish explorers in North America and thus preceded the migration of English colonists to the continent. These omissions serve to blot out the names and contributions of Negroes who were explorers and pioneers in their own right. Most textbook writers also fail to observe that the first Negroes were not brought to Jamestown as slaves, but as indentured servants and that the institution of slavery developed by gradual steps in the seventeenth century. Such treatment precludes any suggestion that slavery, not based on race, had existed in the Old World, that the racial inferiority of the Negro was not an accepted fact by the early colonists, and that a variety of factors, both economic and social, led to the development of American slavery.

Having offhandedly introduced slavery into Virginia, most texts ignore the institution until discussing the abolition crusade or background of the Civil War. It is then generally treated in the

*Irving Sloan, The Negro in American History Textbooks (Washington, D. C.: American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO, 1967); Kenneth Stampp, Winthrop Jordan, Lawrence W. Levine, Robert L. Middlekauff, Charles Sellers, George W. Stocking, Jr., "The Negro in American History Textbooks," Integrated Education, II (October-November 1964), 9-26.

very narrow terms of a labor system, often with the implication, if it is not explicitly stated, that slavery was necessitated by the plantation economy in a sparsely populated country. Few texts mention the slave trade and the methods by which Negroes were wrested from their homelands and brought to America. Seldom are students told that slavery existed in the North until after the American Revolution, and the life of the Southern slave, if treated at all, is discussed superficially with little or no attention to work patterns, diversity of occupations, disciplinary practices, housing, clothing, diet, health, unstable family life or the Negro's resistance to his enslavement.

Needless to say, few textbook writers attempt to look at slavery from the slave's point of view. The free Negroes, North and South, are frequently totally neglected, thus failing to show that discriminations based on race were the national practice, and, of even greater significance, obliterating the noteworthy achievements of some individuals in the arts and sciences and their contributions to the struggle for freedom through participation in the American Revolution and the abolition crusade and operation of the Underground Railroad, which, incidentally was largely a Negro enterprise. The myth that the Negro did not work and fight for his freedom but had it handed over to him by white liberators is further perpetuated by failure to discuss his military service and heroism in the Civil War.

After considerable, though most often biased, treatment during Reconstruction, the Negro drops completely from the pages of many textbooks, perhaps to appear again only with the Civil Rights Revolution. The disfranchisement and legal proscriptions of his civil rights in the South after 1877 and continuing discrimination in the North are seldom discussed, and lynchings are almost never mentioned. Also neglected are the achievements of individuals, some of whom reached international prominence in spite of their economic and educational deprivations. A more serious omission is the failure to discuss the continued efforts of Negroes to attain freedom and equality through individual and organized efforts.

Ignorance of recent scholarship, although unforgivable, might account for some of the errors of omission found in American history textbooks, but we can assume that racial bias is also responsible for multitudinous errors. Certainly among some textbook writers there is an underlying assumption that Negroes are not Americans in a real sense. Such an assumption is all pervasive and frees the authors from the responsibility of examining the American Creed or America's development in terms of what they have meant to the Negro. Less insidious, perhaps, but no less offensive to all fairminded persons and certainly to the historian who regards his craft as dedicated to the search for truth, are the slips of racism which appear here and there in many, if not most, texts. Examples of such slips are found in the frequent portrayal of the slave as a childlike, docile, happy-go-lucky creature, or in the attempts of justification of post-Civil War Black Codes and the activities of the Ku Klux Klan as necessary for controlling the shiftless, wandering and vicious freedmen, or in ignoring Negro protest leaders such as Gabriel Prosser, Denmark Vesey, David Walker, Nat Turner, scores of Negro abolitionists, W. E. B. DuBois, Marcus Garvey, Martin Luther King and Malcolm X while giving

attention to such men as Booker T. Washington and George Washington Carver who better fit the racist image of "the Negro in his place."

There is no doubt that textbook content is a reliable indicator of what is being taught in many if not most classrooms of America. Fortunately, agitation and protest have alerted textbook publishers and many are now looking for or publishing books which give more attention to the Negro's role in American history. In spite of these results, there are some basic fallacies in directing the concern for the improvement of the teaching of history into a concentrated attack on textbooks. In addition to the fact that it requires considerable time for recent scholarship to be synthesized and incorporated into general texts, there are other factors that would suggest a more fruitful approach to improving the teaching of American history in general and about the Negro in particular.

American history textbooks are conventionally narrative in style designed to trace the building of the nation and develop the idea of the onward progress of its government and people towards the reality of the American Creed; myth-building becomes more important than critical inquiry or historical method. Consequently, most textbook writers are concerned with collecting revered facts of past politics and painting portraits of venerated national heroes. The history of America thus becomes largely a history of the elite and of national consensus. National failures and transgressions or the frustrated aspirations of the oppressed are not to be allowed to mar this glorious panorama. To superimpose the achievements and heroes of the Negro on such a picture of the American past would only serve to compound unreality with incongruity. More fundamental change is demanded. If there is any concern for historical accuracy and for educating responsible and intelligent decision makers for tomorrow rather than indoctrinating patriotic citizens, the study of American history must be more than exaltation of the nation's past; it must provide an opportunity for critical analyses of the myth-structure, which should include realistic evaluation of the historical roles of all racial and ethnic groups, in depth examination of the conflicts between practices and professed American ideals, and honest treatment of the nation's relations with its neighbors. Not only do textbook writers fail to recognize the need for explaining the development of Negro slavery and white racism, but they also fail to recognize such inconsistencies as treating imperialism as an evil while justifying or giving tacit approval to Manifest Destiny and America's treatment of the Indian.

Proponents of Negro history are not alone in their disapproval of the American history textbook. It has come more and more under attack recently, not only because of its weaknesses in content, but also as a teaching tool. In the last decade or so there has developed a widespread movement for developing new approaches to the teaching of history which has enlisted support from both educationists and historians and produced dozens of experimental projects working toward a "new history." The narrative study of history has been almost universally rejected by these reformers for approaches based on the belief that the student learns more by pursuing answers to meaningful or relevant questions. Introducing such teaching strategies as inquiry, directed discussion, discovery exercises, reflective thinking,

Socratic-analysis discussion and others, the "new history" projects are replacing the textbook by a variety of sources and/or raw data in the form of written, audiovisual, and manipulative materials. The aim is not to teach the student generalizations handed down by the writers of history, but to allow him through using the historical method to reach his own conclusions, with the idea that by learning through practice he will be equipped to go on learning through life and consequently become a useful, independent citizen.

The teachers of this "new history" are not required "to cover the course," i.e., the contents of a text, which in most cases could be done only superficially and badly in the allotted time. Instead, the materials selected for study are chosen carefully with specific objectives in mind which center around the development or inquiry skills and equipping the student to live in a modern world and cope rationally with its problems.

Thus those desiring more realistic and balanced treatment of the Negro in American history are beating a dying horse with their attacks on textbooks. This is paradoxical, because in perhaps no other field of American history have more and better materials been produced which are adaptable for teaching the "new history" than in the area of Negro history. There is no reason why any skilled teacher committed to teaching Negro history should be tied to the textbook, except, of course, in those authoritarian school systems where the teacher has no freedom to choose supplementary instructional materials. While not all teachers are yet committed to teaching about the Negro in American history, the number who are is growing by leaps and bounds and acquiring knowledge and materials in the field is a major concern of secondary and elementary school teachers across the nation. But not all committed teachers are yet ready to accept the fact that to do justice to the history of the American Negro means to challenge the comfortable myths we have accepted as history and recognize that American history is, among other things, a study in moral corruption and racism that has tainted most of our national heroes as well as institutions. Unfortunately, also, so few of these committed teachers are skilled in the techniques of teaching the "new history." This is the major challenge today for the history departments of our colleges and universities. Summer workshops and institutes are contributing to the re-education of teachers and breathing life into the old cliché that content and methods cannot be separated. However, most colleges and universities have not recognized the meaning and significance of this union and the responsibility it places on the academician for serving both as a model and a trainer for teachers.

Added to the development of the "new history" and the concern for a more balanced and accurate treatment of the Negro in American history, there is emerging among historians a sizeable and talented group of young scholars who are challenging accepted views of the American past. All this is to forecast well for the students of today and tomorrow. There is hope that the study of American history will serve to develop critical inquiry and understanding of the common humanity of all men, thus bringing about a union of the methods of the social sciences and the goals of the humanities. It should be

recognized, however, that many of the proponents of the study of Negro history hold concepts of the nature and purpose of history similar to those for which the textbook writers have been so severely criticized. This group, which includes many whites and certainly does not include all black historians or proponents of Negro history, looks to the study of Negro history as essentially a means of building race pride by creating black heroes, martyrs, and myths. These zealots, who of course, regard history as propaganda rather than inquiry, insist that Negro history can be taught only by a Negro because he alone can understand the black soul. This is sheer poppycock, which if followed to its logical conclusion would result in separate and isolated history for every ethnic, racial and national groups, with a myriad of subdivisions in each group. If this course is followed, it will result not only in a further distortion of history but also serve to reduce communication and lessen human understanding. On the other hand, the accurate portrayal of the American Negro's past can help to liberate all Americans from the narrow white mythology that heretofore has been taught in our schools and develop understanding that will help to create a spirit of empathy, without which cooperation in solving the nation's problems is impossible. The true scholar of history knows that without manufacturing myths there is much that is noble in the history of the American Negro. And the humanistic historian will not wish to deny the humanity of the Negro by denying his human weaknesses and failures. If history is to have a constructive relevance to the problems of today we must follow the course of the "new history." We cannot go backwards to patriotic or chauvinistic history, which while it can serve as a source of group pride, has also well fed such ideologies and movements as wars, imperialism, racism, facism and nazism.

Clifton H. Johnson
Director
Amistad Research Center and
Race Relations

APPROACHES TO TEACHING AFRO-AMERICAN HISTORY

"It is a complex fate to be an American," Henry James wrote. He would never have gotten that idea from nineteenth century schoolbook. As described by Ruth Miller Elson in *GUARDIANS OF TRADITION*, the world created in those books is essentially a world of fantasy--a static, ideologically simple world abounding in moral prescriptions. "It is an ideal world," she wrote, "peopled by ideal villains as well as ideal heroes . . . Individuals are to be understood in terms of easily discernible, inherent (moral as well as mental) national characteristics as much as in terms of their individual character. (Races are clearly ranked, with Anglo-Saxons at one end of the scale and Negroes at the other.) Virtue is always rewarded, vice punished . . ." History is not a dynamic, ongoing phenomenon, but something that began and ended in the finite past: contemporary problems are conspicuously absent, reform movements ignored or derided. Progress is certain, as in America's moral perfection and the spread of her influence throughout the world.

Studies of contemporary American history books conducted in the 1960's show little change in the composite picture of American life reaching American school children. While many authors today attempt to maintain a value neutral stance toward developments in the United States, the picture which they often convey is that of America as a strapping giant, of a nation moving swiftly, inexorably--and harmoniously--toward the perfect society. Although specific instances of change are cited, students are rarely offered any basis for understanding how social change comes about. The consequences of such vast historical developments as industrialization and urbanization are seldom adequately explored. Characterized largely by "blandness and amoral optimism," contemporary American history textbooks "purvey a sweetness-and-light picture of American history that is both false and vicious in its effects."

Without doubt the group most maligned by this storybook picture of the United States is the Negro American. It is not that the American black man is portrayed as vicious, or as the object of the white majority's hatred, or for that matter as constituting in any way a threat to the American polity. There is, on the contrary, a determined effort to avoid any implication that racial differences have produced strains--much less violence--in America's "melting pot" culture, and a basic unwillingness to acknowledge that race operated as a factor in U. S. history. The most striking thing about these books is the virtual omission of the Afro-American: for the most part, in their pages black men simply do not exist as Americans. Where they do appear, it is in a drastically dehumanized form: either within the institution of slavery, in which capacity Negroes do not appear as persons at all; as an inert mass; or in caricature.

America's collective "sense of the past" did not come only packaged in history texts; the image described above of the Afro-American has endured in popular culture as well. Of the millions who watched Bill Cosby narrate C.B.S.'s "Of Black America" series last summer, how many were aware of a painful lesson learned by Cosby

as a child and recalled for a New York Times reporter: "We only had two Negro teachers in my elementary school (in an all-black Philadelphia ghetto), and one of them taught my fifth grade. I remember her being terribly upset one day when we came back from an assembly program. She cried, and she made us promise we'd never sing 'Old Black Joe' again."

For two hundred years the fate of the Negro American at the hands of textbook publishers has been not to be despised, only ignored. The widespread assumptions of white superiority and Negro inferiority of the last century have persisted into the present one; aided by the sensitivity of publishers to the Southern textbook market, these racist views pervade a majority of history textbooks used in the classrooms of the 1960's. The cryptic statement attributed to one expert remains true today: the Negro appears in American history books before the Civil War as a slave, afterwards vaguely as a problem, if at all. Two eminent American authors who wrote of the black man's experience in America--Ralph Ellison in THE INVISIBLE MAN and James Baldwin in NOBODY KNOWS MY NAME--have eloquently confirmed a judgment made earlier by George Bernard Shaw. "The worst sin toward our fellow creatures," Shaw wrote, "is not to hate them but to be indifferent to them; that is the essence of inhumanity."

Nevertheless, changes have begun to occur along a number of fronts. For one thing, the schools of the twentieth century no longer have a monopoly on image-making in history. Narrative accounts of the Afro-American experiences can be found in magazine articles like those appearing in Tuesday (a Sunday supplement to several urban newspapers) and in "Beyond the Mayflower" and "Pioneers in Protest," two series of articles written by Lerone Bennett for EBONY. The Establishment press, too, has discovered the black man: a leading national women's magazine runs feature stories on the life of a slain Mississippi rights leader Medger Evers, and Aretha Franklin brings soul to the middle-class readership of TIME the weekly newsmagazine. Negro jazz, blues and the folk music of the civil rights revolution continue to gain in general popularity; the same is true of many local painting and photography exhibits which depict the black experience. Very recently, Afro-American museums have sprung up in cities across the country and an experimental black theatre is in the making. It is even possible to learn the history and practice of "soul cooking" in television demonstrations, feature articles on the women's pages of big city dailies, and lavishly illustrated and annotated ethnic cookbooks. All of these media--but especially television--have made the Negro revolution an historical experience more accessible to more Americans, black and white.

Another change involving mass communication is the increasing availability of a large variety of high quality source materials on the Afro-American experience. Recent gains in publishing and scholarship have been touched on in Dr. Johnson's article. The mushrooming paperback book industry also has been a boon to the study of black history. For junior and senior high school students there is the exciting and eminently readable three-volume collection of original sources by Milton Meltzer, In Their Own Words (1967), and a

good one-volume compilation by Richard Wade, The Negro in American Life (1965). College students would surely profit from consulting Leslie Fishel and Benjamin Quarles' The Negro American (1967), a bulky and rich collection of first-hand materials tied together by narrative sections that are almost comprehensive and penetrating enough to constitute a text in themselves. In addition to the two basic hardbound books in the field, John Hope Franklin's From Slavery to Freedom (1947; rev. ed. 1967) and a more recent interpretation by August Meier and Elliott Rudwick, From Plantation to Ghetto (1967) there are now two paperback narratives: Benjamin Quarles' thorough and interesting survey, The Negro in the Making of America (1964; suitable for high school and college use), and C. Eric Lincoln's The Negro Pilgrimage in America (1967; with its abundant photographic and other contemporaneous illustrations, well-suited generally for junior and senior high school readers). In addition, there are many, many other superior primary and secondary sources on the Afro-American experience--both classics and newer works--now available on the paperback market.

Government agencies, too, have been developing an interest in the Negro American past. The bureaucracies of education in a number of cities have put together supplementary guides on the black experience for classroom teachers' use. Half a dozen states have adopted (and others are considering) laws aimed at increasing coverage of minority groups in the schools. Of these several states, unfortunately, only one apparently had the pre-science to devote explicit attention to textbook selection--one area in which legislation could (by prohibiting the use of flagrantly biased books) be maximally effective. At the federal level, a handful of NDEA Institutes around the country each with thirty to forty teachers, have been structured around the topic of Negro American history. The Office of Education has recently been involved in a survey of the curricular treatment of black Americans in school districts across the nation. And a call has been issued by a few Americans for a Presidential Commission on Negro History. Laudable as these measures taken by the public sector are, however, most of them are dependent on moral suasion to the virtual exclusion of legal accountability of any sort; it is difficult to know just how effective they will--or can--be. Certainly the majority of American classrooms remain untouched by these reforms, real and potential.

In spite of the changes that have been made in the last decade, public protest shows no signs of abating. The beginning was a scant six years ago, when, on the heels of the civil rights revolution, organized groups in the big cities--most notably local chapters of the N.A.A.C.P. and of the American Federation of Teachers, along with concerned parent groups--began to pressure boards of education for adequate coverage in the schools of Negro American history. As city after major city drew up supplementary curriculum guides, and publishers (also under pressure) began to revise texts using the guides as a basis, it seemed that these pioneering protest groups would have their way. Today their success may appear a little more equivocal. However, since other analyses of racially biased books had been made in the past (as long ago as 1949, by the American

Council of Education), it is difficult to avoid crediting organized protest groups in the cities for many of the changes that have occurred in publishing. Today strident demands are heard more and more frequently from black communities across the country--- especially from students--for black studies programs in colleges as well as in public school systems.

What about textbooks? Until recently the major target of demonstrators, textbooks have now been seized upon by some educational pundits who proclaim, somewhat prematurely, that the textbook industry (which grossed an estimated \$350,000,000 in 1965) is in the middle of a "revolution." While it is true that changes in the direction of a more balanced racial history have been made in some books, and are contemplated in others, the vast majority of texts remain in need of substantial revision. Some publishers have made available separate supplements on the black American experience; although many of these are substitutes for serious treatment of that experience within the textbooks themselves, Doubleday-Anchor has made an outstanding contribution with its Zenith Book Series, written for junior high school students by professional historians.

Only six years ago one publishing house was hailed in the nation's liberal press for taking the "courageous" step of putting out two editions of a textbook--an integrated version for the North, and, as the industry euphemism goes, a "de-integrated" one for Southern states. Today such a practice is derided by rights leaders and apologized for by publishers (many of whom nevertheless continue the practice). Other ingenious devices have been found; publishers are now coming up with texts segregated in their "integration." One common practice is to concentrate all of the book's Afro-American history in a short supplemental section sandwiched between chapters or at the end of the book. The effects of this arrangement is to make coverage optional by leaving the question of (official) inclusion to the teacher. These "new," 1960's variety separate-and-unequal versions of the nation's racial past have dubious educational value. Not long ago a thoughtful publisher commented: "The immediate response to Anglo-Saxon materials seems to be non-Anglo-Saxon materials. . . .(publishers) do books about Negro heroes instead of books about heroes--white and Negro--and so replace our previous exclusion with separatism. We now speak after the same mythic simplicity, but in a new style, instead of attempting to cope with the increasing complexity of American reality." That is precisely the problem faced by today's educator in the social sciences: doing justice to the historical complexity which we call the American experience.

In trying to deal with the racial complexity of the nation's past, one quickly becomes aware of the fact that there are a number of different ways--more accurately, degrees--of integrating American history. None of these modes of integration is adequate by itself; some, however, are more pernicious than others when used in isolation.

The easiest--and the least effective--way to arrive at an inter-racial history is, as Spelman College's Vincent Harding has derisively paraphrased it, simply by dropping an occasional individual "chocolate

drop" into the national melting pot. The dangers of this individual approach are multiplied when (as is often the case) these persons are grouped together for consideration and treated essentially as Negro rather than as American leaders. For example, William Katz has pointed out that Frederick Douglass is usually studied as an escaped slave and black abolitionist rather than on the same stage as other Americans, as a major figure in nineteenth century reform movements. This kind of bloc classification is sometimes defensible--e.g., when trying to make a case for the Afro-American experience as a "cultural whole" (for suggestions on treatment of black Americans as a subculture, see below on teaching problems connected with race). However, the isolation of minority Americans, without justification, in special categories of their own is not only to distort the truth but to imply that their history is not worthy of consideration as a part of the national experience.

The alternative to inserting black individuals as blocs in the American saga is to scatter them singly throughout the narrative. Thus in some books we read that Matthew Henson accompanied Admiral Perry to the North Pole, Jan E. Matzeliger invented the shoe lasting machine, and Garrett Morgan, a Cleveland Negro, invented the traffic light. This approach, too, is insufficient. First, the black individuals chosen for inclusion are often those who are least offensive to the white American's image of himself and who, in their times, least threatened to upset the racial status quo. Booker T. Washington has far greater market value in the textbook world than either Nat Turner or Malcolm X. Even in cases where blacks and whites are chosen on the basis of comparable historical criteria, the picture is still not a complete one. This is because--much of American historiography and most of her conventional wisdom notwithstanding--there is no very good reason for assuming the typicalness of the American Illustrious Individual, whatever his color. Thus a great many American history books provide us with a picture of a certain kind of upwardly mobile elite, but little in the way of a chronicle of the experience undergone by the majority of Americans appears, nor does a description of structural factors shaping American life. Since this individualist approach (whether singly or in blocs) is the one most often followed today in "correcting" American racial history, we are in danger of manufacturing a whole new set of darker-hued Horatio Alger heroes--and leaving the rest of American history unaltered.

There is another way to perpetuate the injustice done to black American citizens in the history books even while including them. Benjamin Quarles identified it when he criticized American historians for making the Afro-American into an "unperson" by portraying him solely as part of a monolithic mass, which in turn was seen as the cause or the effect of something. For instance, under the institution of slavery blacks have typically been seen exclusively as a labor force; later, during the Civil War, they were often analyzed as a mass in terms of their potential as resource or liability to the war effort.

In a variant of the mass approach Negro Americans are seen as an issue affecting the course of history--not by their actions (as suggested above--but merely by their presence. While some instances

of this kind of mass characterization appear to be legitimate, much is not. Two well-known examples are the way in which the existence on American shores of a large number of enslaved black men affected the deliberations of the Founding Fathers at the Constitutional Convention, and later the relationship between the institution of slavery (especially its spread) and the Civil War. One less familiar is the effect which the presence of a large number of Negro slaves in the South had on American policy toward the Indians (e.g., in the Cherokee removal controversy of the 1830's). Many accounts give no hint that Afro-Americans were anything other than docile and obedient slaves before the Civil War, or that not all Negroes were then slaves, or that individual blacks distinguished themselves in any way. Ironically, sometimes this treatment of Negroes only as part of a mass comes at the hands of liberal historians who, in their eagerness to establish the persistent fact of white racism in America and to absolve blacks from any of the onus of the past, and (perhaps unwittingly) by reconstructing social reality in such a way that Negroes are left with only one role to play: objects of oppression. Quarles is right in contending that to write American history treating Negroes solely as part of an undifferentiated mass is to denigrate that race --regardless of the intention or of the point being established.

Regardless of what is conveyed to us in textbooks, the history of a nation is neither merely the sum total of the stories of the individuals within it, nor the mute tale of masses of men. Drawing on the vast gains made in the social sciences in this century enables the historian to organize the experience of a society over time in another way. Contemporary social science concepts applied to history make it possible to analyze American society at any point in time as a coherent social system, (for our purposes) to identify the Afro-American's role within that structure, and to study the evolution of social change in an incredibly dynamic society. Thus not only are individuals actors, but organized groups and social movements also can influence and be influenced by history. Key social institutions such as the family and the church have a greater part to play in black American history reconstructed; groups such as the N.A.A.C.P. and A. Philip Randolph's Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters become important especially in the study of social change. Greater attention should be devoted to Marcus Garvey's "Back to Africa" movement of the 1920's and the civil rights and black power movements of our times. The experience of blacks as a minority group can be compared to that of other (racial, ethnic and religious) minorities in the American past; "the minority group experience" (if one can be identified) should also be examined vis a vis that of the majority. In any case, America should be viewed as a coherent but constantly changing social structure, the component parts of which can be broken down and analyzed separately as well as in relation to the whole. Although race is only one component part, it is a major one; once the factor of race is taken account of, many themes from the unreconstructed version of United States history will need revision and new ones will have to be added (for example, the Afro-American's struggle for freedom).

Once a social structural approach is taken to the study of American history, white racism will be seen for what it is; an institutional phenomenon with deep roots in all facets of our society.

We will no longer be able to explain away the injustices inflicted on blacks by white Americans through verbal euphemisms which obscure more than they explain (e.g., "the peculiar institution," "the troublesome presence"). We cannot read that injustice out of the national past by seeing it as a fundamentally un-American happening entirely alien to the "real" American history. Nor can we take the overly sanguine view that white racism did exist, but only as a momentary lapse which was cleared away by the Civil War and its aftermath. It should be obvious to every American in the 1960's that if there ever were a time when we could indulge ourselves in such illusions, that time is not now. Almost twenty-five years ago Gunnar Myrdal identified the "problem of the Negro" as "predominantly a white man's problem"--and one which cannot be treated in isolation. Any careful student of the Afro-American past will be hard put not to conclude that white racism, on the one hand, and black degradation on the other, have been constant and pervasive factors intricately interwoven throughout American history. Until that painful fact is affirmed we shall remain ill-equipped to confront the problems of the insistent present.

Why, then, teach an interracial American history? The scholar's answer first: it's true--that is how it happened. A false picture of America's past can offer a few reliable guidelines to sorting out the nation's present problems. Of those who do not accept on principle the need for a comprehensive and accurate history, few will be able to reject it as an expedient. It should be obvious in 1968 that few American youth, black or white, will settle for illusions over reality where the past is concerned. By continuing to put forth a mythology which has little basis in fact, we shall be teaching contempt for history and for the white world which is its purveyor, as well as contributing to the already considerable degree of cynicism among many American young people today.

We cannot, as individuals or collectively as a nation, approach social maturity as long as we continue to prop ourselves up with false images which prevent us from seeing the past as it was. Rather, we must develop the ability to see culturally different individuals for who they are (or were), ourselves for who we are, and human beings as they are. On the individual level, this will involve new self-concepts for all Americans: the unearned sense of inferiority which has been a large part of the national legacy to black people must be traded for a new sense of pride in themselves and their ancestors; whites must divest themselves of the falsely inflated notions of self and of the unspoken, unacknowledged yet apparently impregnable sense of superiority which has been their unearned increment at the hands of history. Significantly, the latter change is the one more often omitted by spokesmen for a new national history, though it may well necessitate a more difficult and painful transition for those involved (many whites, however inarticulately, will see themselves as having nothing to gain and a great deal to lose). The two changes are equally important, however: both races must learn, in Thomas Pettigrew's phraseology, a new "equal citizen's role." Nothing less than our character as a nation-- and perhaps even national survival--is at stake.

These remarks presume what is almost universally accepted as the primary goal of the social studies: education for citizenship. Although this aim is variously (and imperfectly) understood by almost all who assert it, it generally proceeds from the assumption that the knowledgeable citizen is the good citizen (i.e., that knowledge accumulated is somehow transformed into effective political action). Social knowledge should be seen as a necessary but not sufficient condition for responsible citizenship. If this assumption holds any water at all, it becomes necessary to look at the world in which American citizens will be called upon to function. At home, at the present time, we are a conflict-and hate-ridden people, torn apart of the issue of race. Overseas, we shall increasingly be called upon to relate to "the other two-thirds of the world"--non-Christian, non-Western, non-affluent, and for the most part non-white--a world bearing little resemblance to the American experience. These two tasks are not unrelated, for the United States has in the Afro-American background a major link to the experience of the majority of the world's people.

There is a need to establish realistic goals in teaching about cultural difference. Ideally, the study of the social sciences should illuminate an individual's understanding of himself and of his people, as well as of people differing from himself, and finally of man's humanness. In coming to terms with his social world, one must then learn to make distinctions between what about a man is human, what more narrowly is cultural, and finally what is peculiar only to the individual. Anthropologist Frederick Gearing has suggested two reasonable educational profits to be gained from the study of another culture. Such a study would, first, permit a student to recognize that any culturally patterned behavior, however bizarre it may at first appear, at bottom makes plausible sense, is believable and fully human (not personally attractive, necessarily, nor 'good' necessarily, but humanly believable). Second, it should ". . . help a student to see well-accurately and in some measure of completeness --the social world immediately around him, his own social world which is often too familiar to quite see. To study (another culture) is, through comparison, to see ourselves."

To transpose such a framework into the perspective of American history is problematic. First, does the Afro-American experience fit this paradigm, i.e., is it another culture? Too many who have been close to the black experience have emphasized the radical disjunction between white (middle-class especially) and Negro (especially lower-class) lifestyles to leave very much room for doubt. In so far as the Negro American experience is a cultural whole, it ought to be transmitted as such, as well as integrated into the national story where appropriate. The task of dealing with the black experience as a subculture requires the imposition of an essentially social science conceptual scheme on American history. However, rather than attempting to see the social system at any point in time as a whole, and setting out to do an analysis only of one carefully delineated element of that structure, historians of the American experience have tended, on the one hand, to lift out the sagas of individual Americans and put these forward as the American experience in microcosm, and on the other hand, to attempt comprehensive surveys of relatively vast periods of time (with both approaches typically operating to perpetuate the national

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mythology). The latter alternative would not be so demaging if it were not for the tendency of some writers of history to delude themselves--and worse, their readers--into concluding that "their" period had then been "covered", rather than qualifying the significance of their work by identifying it as dealing with a single small aspect of that period, as seen through only one angle of vision. The historical discipline is perhaps the most unconsciously and unmethodically selective of all of the social sciences (thus leaving itself peculiarly vulnerable to cultural bias); the survey approach in particular, by getting more and bigger conclusions for less research, is deceptively efficient.

This somewhat haphazard selection process is pregnant with consequences for any minority group; in the area of Afro-American history the tendency has been--when blacks are included at all--to select out those Negroes whose lives best reflected what was purportedly "American" (those selected generally have resembled the middle-class white American "on-the-make"). Putting forth this overly assimilated version of our history as the American story is particularly unfortunate in a country whose richness and variety of population are almost unparalleled in history. As Benjamin Quarles has observed, taking an "in-group approach" to the history of a pluralistic society is bound to result in the denigration of some groups. Where the black American experience as a whole is concerned, what is called for is the transmission of that culture with its differences in tact--not the presentation of a group Americanized beyond recognition, featuring Negroes as no more than white men colored brown." Ironically, if this is done, cries of opposition will be heard from--of all places--some liberal quarters, where any attempt at differentiation is seen as discrimination. Equality is not sameness, however; and if we are to develop any reasonably accurate conception of what happened in American history, this course (supplemented by others where appropriate) must be followed.

Whether the black experience from America's past is portrayed as having a cultural unity of its own or is (as is more frequently the case) broken down from inclusion and analysis, the most ticklish of all of the problems involved in transmitting that experience is the one stemming from the emotional investment which we have in our own identity--national and racial, both blacks and whites. Only a few years ago feelings connected with this subject were buried, fugitive, hidden; many whites at least could believe that they didn't exist. Today the emotional ramifications of race are no longer undertones, but seem rather to have an inner dynamic of their own which compels a public hearing (or, more accurately, public expression). While these tensions are probably most acute in an integrated teaching situation, they are not peculiar to that setting. Common reactions of both races to black American history are disbelief, resistance and frustration; furthermore, the feelings exposed in many cases may be counterproductive to learning. Students who are white have been known to react with shame, guilt, frustration and, at the other extreme, withdrawal covered by an aggressive form of defensive chauvinism. For black students the experience could intensify (and help to make articulate) existing feelings of oppression, turning resentment into anger, rage, even hate. No more than white students are blacks immune from reactions of shame and guilt, sometimes confrontation with the fact of the slave past or, for

some students, mention of the African experience will evoke these emotions (especially in integrated situations where the problem is sometimes exacerbated by the taunts of other students). To some, such a reaction may seem strangely inappropriate, yet it wasn't twenty years ago (before the major revisionist work of slavery) that one black historian noted similar perceptions in the work of Negro scholars on slavery and another proclaimed that "the topic of slavery in the U. S. has been virtually exhausted," concluding that further study would be a "waste of time." Whatever the direction or intensity of the reaction, it is clear that--contrary to at least one expert's assumptions merely to bring real feelings into the classroom arena is not to assure that anything constructive will result.

The emotional resistance to be encountered in teaching about race in America should not be underestimated. The problems are complex, depending only in part, however, on who is teaching what to whom. Whatever the teaching situation, resistance can be counted on from teachers, parents, and most of all from the students themselves. While there is no panacea for the classroom tension which will almost inevitably be generated, there are some approaches which might allow a teacher to circumvent the emotion--and even a few through which he can exploit it to serve his own education aims. For one thing, Professor Gearing's anthropological format is relevant here (especially to difficult teaching situations but to most other ones too): the first educational imperative is to revise downward our expectations concerning changes in attitude and behavior. Instant appreciation of the other race should not be a major aim, nor should one expect overnight behavioral change. Gearing's proposed educational "profits" seem far more sensible: Students should first learn to accept cultural behavior differing from their own as "humanly believable"; from this awareness, respect and understanding should eventually follow. Once the teacher's goal is restrained somewhat, any of the following courses of action might be pursued: (1) emphasis on self-expression and communication (student-student as well as student-teacher); (2) as nearly as possible approximating real life conditions which promote understanding (within, of course, the limits imposed by the classroom situation); and (3) use of the inquiry approach to learning. It should be kept in mind that the appropriateness of the strategy used will vary with the teaching situation; for example, on this subject the first approach would be well suited for a class of black students while it probably should not be attempted in an integrated situation unless the instructor knows how to make constructive use of the emotions evoked.

In order to open lines of communication across cultural boundaries, anthropologist Paul Bohannan has stressed the need constantly to probe beneath the surface of observable emotion and behavior in order to uncover underlying values, unstated assumptions, basic motivations, etc. With the same goal in mind but from an American urban perspective, Herbert Kohl has taken a slightly different tack in his excellent booklet, TEACHING THE "UNTEACHABLE". The book emphasizes the radical disjunction between the daily experience of ghetto children and the progress-oriented history which,

according to a standardized curriculum, they are supposed to be taught. Kohl advocates scrapping a course of study which is at best irrelevant to the children's lives and using as a starting point the children's experience, moving from their perceptions about themselves and their world to experience common to all mankind. Experiments in drawing, painting and photography have been used successfully, especially with "disadvantaged" children. An enterprising teacher at an inner city school in Chicago devised a plan combining both creativity and the search for models: fourth-graders chose historical or contemporary figures whom they admired and made cubic mobiles (one side was used for a portrait of the figure, the other three for a brief biographical sketch. Another Chicago instructor taught reading to her fourth grade class by teaching them songs (which she accompanied on her guitar). In a Detroit junior high school, a Negro history teacher came up with a device to assist youngsters in learning the names and accomplishments of outstanding Afro-Americans: the game which he created is a variant of "Monopoly," with black American notables substituting for the properties and "Simon Legree plantation" for the jail; advancement is via Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad. Other techniques that work well with students who have had fewer educational advantages are dramatization (of events, plays, situations); small group work which rewards oral participation, and the use of such non-verbal materials as records, pictures, and regalia of all kinds (a good one-volume collection is A Pictorial History of the Negro in America edited by Langston Hughes and Milton Meltzer). As with photography, the intelligent use of technology--in this case, tape recorders can not only encourage the mastery of language (and artistic) skills but give a boost to the child's ego as well.

Under certain conditions, the possibility of transforming attitudes on race through first changing behavior patterns has been established empirically. Ideally, children's attitudes would be influenced by informal interracial experience in their daily lives. Within the present public school system, however, this is seldom possible; first, because schools remain segregated (eighty-six percent of all American schoolchildren attend racially segregated schools; more children are in segregated schools today than in 1954); second, because conditions in American classrooms seldom meet the criteria for positive attitude change. Specifically, classroom situations tend to be competitive rather than cooperative; there are often differences in status among the students; and classmates typically strive toward individual goals rather than a common group goal requiring interdependence of action. Nevertheless, it is possible to structure educational experiences (vicarious or first-hand) which approximate the constructive interracial situations in the real world that are presently denied the great majority of American students. In this way teachers can exploit the social context which is one of the classroom "givens" in order to influence those attitudes which are rooted neither in the students' past histories nor in their personalities, but in the current social fabric.

One such approach is role-playing or socio-drama. Under the direction of a skilled teacher and preceded by substantial student research, role-playing can be especially effective in changing

students' perceptions of themselves and of others. A plantation scene might be reenacted, or a more contemporary confrontation between employer and employee attempted, or the situations of Southern slave and Northern factory worker compared dramatically. Martin Duberman's provocative *IN WHITE AMERICA* is a dramatic presentation which recapitulates the history of blacks in this country and is admirably suited to classroom use; some teachers and students have used it as a model but put together their own script from original sources, varying the tempo with songs, choral readings, dance, etc. Students develop explicitly verbal as well as historical skills through debate (for example, Southern slaveholder vs. New England abolitionist), or in holding a mock trial (e.g., Plessy vs. Ferguson). Simulation games with racial themes can be set up (one recent suggestion was the establishment of a biracial committee in a given town). In an integrated teaching situation, students might experiment with exchanging racial roles and analyzing these experiences.

Generally, more ingenuity is called for in the typical segregated setting. An imaginative teacher from a small Midwestern town (who was featured last year on the Johnny Carson show) solved the problem in her all-white grammar school class by dividing the students into two groups, by eye color (blue and brown). On the first day she assigned all of the privileges to the blue-eyed children (first in line at recess, best toys, etc.); at the end of the day all of the children recorded their reactions to the treatment they had received. On the succeeding day the status order was reversed, the brown-eyed children receiving preferential treatment and those with blue eyes discriminated against. Generally, the children reported strong feelings alternately of superiority and resentment; the students--not their teacher--made the analogy between what they had experienced and the situation of American Negroes today.

One of the most exciting prospects for social science education is in the area of "sensitivity training". Implementation of these precepts holds great potential for working out better ways of dealing with the subject of race in the classroom, although this too requires a sensitive and skillful practitioner in charge. Recently a professor of education attempted to engender in her students (who were teachers themselves) greater creativity, spontaneity and empathy through the application to teacher education of the acting methods of the great Russian performer, Stanislavski. By means of a variety of physical and mental exercises, students were taught to sharpen up their powers of observation and concentration and to develop an "emotional memory" which would enable them, on the one hand, to recreate sensations which could then be communicated to an audience, and, on the other hand, to determine the objective of another person by analyzing his visibly emotional behavior. The resulting heightened awareness in the students transferred directly to teaching for example, at the end of the course one student, with the aid of masks and music arranged in advance, "held" a Zuni ceremonial rain dance that was so vivid and life-like that the rest of the class experienced a feeling of presence at the ceremony.

A second application of sensitivity training has been developed by a skilled teacher of Afro-American history from Baltimore and

involves the use of "rumor clinics". This approach is well-suited for use in high school classrooms and is one technique that transforms the emotion aroused by the race issue into a definite educational advantage. Three students are sent out of the room and the remainder of the class is shown a picture whose meaning is ambiguous (an effective one was the portrait of a Negro woman holding a baby, apparently white); the class arrives at an understanding of the picture's meaning through discussion. After that the first student returns and is shown the picture; then the second one is admitted (but not shown the picture) and told by the first what he has seen, after which the last student returns and the picture described to him by the second one. Distortion almost invariably occurs in these accounts and members of the class have been eye-witnesses to the making of a rumor. Through subsequent discussion they try to pinpoint where breakdown(s) in communication occurred and why, then consider the implications of "selective perception" or "frame of reference" for the study of history. (I have observed this technique in action several times, and have yet to see a student who was uninterested--or, more impressively--who failed to get the point.) In all of these examples the student learns through his own experience; in no case is he lectured at by a teacher more imbued with evangelical zeal than with a genuine concern for student learning.

There are a number of other learning activities which require involvement on the student's part, but are not typically so heavily invested with emotion. One which resembles the "rumor clinic" in conception is the assignment of several students (separately) to "cover" (or report) a single event, then comparing their independent reports. Students can learn a great deal through participation and observation in political action; by devising, conducting and analyzing opinion polls on relevant topics, and through "doing" their own local history. In the area of black history an important and timely service can be performed by students who conduct oral history interviews (particularly with older people).

Special needs become apparent in particular student audiences. For example, the schooling that black students receive is viewed by some as a potentially important antidote to the degradation which has been their lot in an unjust society. Thus the authors of Negro Self-Concept conclude that because of the nature of his life-experiences, "the Negro child, from earliest school entry through graduation from high school, needs continued opportunities to see himself and his racial group in a realistically positive light." At a minimal level this requirement would seem to call for a larger number of black models (especially men) whom students could emulate and who would serve as a spur to incentive. Only recently, however, has it been recognized that to be effective, these models should be of a particular sort; that is, not impossibly, unattainably (and therefore irrelevantly) great, but realistic and down-to-earth enough that a majority of black students could believe in--and act on--the possibility of "making it" in America. The need for such "middle-range models" is pointed to in a passage written by Lena Horne about her own youthful (and unsuccessful) search for identity: "I certainly never learned anything about my identity in school, because the only Negro mentioned in history books was George Washington Carver, and he was

too pure and good to believe. . . ." A recent experiment at the University of Chicago's School of Education indicates one possible solution: in a series of field-trip visits to businesses owned and operated by blacks, Negro junior high school students were significantly affected by face-to-face contacts with business executives of their own race. Local (even national) political, labor and civil rights leaders could easily serve a similar function; if they are unable to appear personally, it is often possible to bring at least their voices live to the classroom by means of teletape through a simple and relatively inexpensive arrangement with the local telephone company.

Another aspect of the need to convey a "realistically positive" image of the black American concerns the instructor's selection of content within the general framework of Afro-American history. It is obvious that this kind of image would not be conveyed, for example, by emphasizing slave docility to the exclusion of the many and varied forms of slave protest that sprang up among slaves. There is, however, another kind of black history that is dysfunctional in a less conspicuous way. It generally involves a "white liberal" teacher--occasionally even a black militant--who is compelled by not very good psychological reasons of his own to give an endless recital of the injustices inflicted on black people by white racist society tends to become in student minds the subject of black history. Afro-American achievements are relegated to a distinctly second-class position in the narrative.

That brings up the explosive topic of history by and for blacks only. While I cannot suggest a way out of the dilemma, neither do I consider it as bifurcated an issue as some have made it seem. It is not as though there were two species of history in the world, one biased and the other unbiased; there are, rather, differences in degrees and kinds of bias in all historical writing and teaching. Nor is it necessarily true that a history which celebrates the Afro-American past cannot also conform to high standards of scholarship. In trying to understand the present wave of black nationalism (of which the cry for "black history" is a major part), one should remember that the use of history for chauvinistic purposes is not new to the United States. For more than a hundred years after the Founding, at first Washington and then Lincoln were made into demi-gods, and references made to the Constitution as "o magic parchment," celebration of the national past was the primary function of history in the classrooms. Around the turn of the century, when a critical spirit finally began to characterize American historiography generally, a variety of different ethnic chauvinisms dominated the field of immigration history. There are also good reasons for the greater intensity of today's black nationalism than was true of its European ethnic counterparts of half a century ago; (1) the much longer duration of American blacks as a minority group and the far more thoroughgoing, institutionalized forms of oppression which they suffered; (2) the relative speed and suddenness of the "progress" of many blacks since their post World War II emergence onto the national scene, and the disproportionately high expectations generated by such a meteoric rise; and (3) because of their greater identifiability, the effective denial to Negro Americans both of the assimilationist

alternative open to ethnic minorities and of the almost cyclical changes of emphasis between denying and asserting their separate ethnic pasts which characterized national subcultures. Some serious questions about "black history" which remain for the moment unanswered could easily become very severe liabilities; for example, the duration of this period of heightened Afro-American nationalism; the possibility of teaching black pride without at the same time fostering hatred of whites. There is also potentially a gigantic gain--something which money is unlikely to bring and which very possibly it could not buy anyway. Oscar Lewis identified it when he pointed out that the "culture of poverty" would be far more difficult to eradicate than mere (material) poverty, then went on to say: "Any movement. . . which organizes and gives hope to the poor and effectively promotes solidarity and identification with larger groups, destroys the psychological and social core of the culture of poverty." Given the political realities of 1968, when the "War on Poverty" has dwindled to scarcely more than a skirmish and is likely to be reduced even further, who can fail at least to consider the real benefits of black nationalism?

Quite a different problem is presented by those white students who are likely to be unreceptive to the study of an interracial American past--and they are not products only of the Ciceros and Birminghams of the U. S., nor are they confined to the high school level and below. For reasons different from those of the black students, these students too are likely to resist authority--especially when the authority is an avowed "liberal" and the approach a didactic one. A Minneapolis teacher who sensed that her students had simply tuned her out whenever she broached the subject of race, came up with the idea of showing pictures, without comment, to the students and allowing them to draw their own conclusions about meaning. Any non-evaluative primary source materials which are themselves vivid and exciting would serve a similar purpose; for example, the paintings of Charles White, the music of Leadbelly or Bessie Smith; Langston Hughes' poetry; a recording of selections from Frederick Douglass' autobiography. Used judiciously, fiction can be very effective in interesting students and in yielding historical insights. Visual material of all kinds is especially good and films perhaps best of all.

The cross-cultural approach is undoubtedly the best context from which to proceed to a study of race. Because of unevenness of preparation, many teachers may find it difficult to manage, but wherever possible it should be attempted. With resistant white students especially it becomes almost a necessity: an abrasively single-minded insistence on studying only the black minority is sure to misfire. Whether the basic approach taken is anthropological or historical, it is hard to imagine a better over-all setting than the American experience. A beginning point might be the study of contributions made to America by different minorities. Another indirect tactic is to look at American civilization through the eyes of others (e.g., foreigners). If generalizations are approached cautiously, comparison of the various American subcultures--American Indians, ethnic immigrant groups, racial and religious subgroups--can be illumination. (Unfortunately, they can also be very damaging

if the effort is a haphazard one.) The interrelations of these various groups, as well as the relation of each to the dominant culture, needs far more careful study than it has been given.

Paradoxical as it may seem, in some particularly difficult cases it may be that the best approach to the historical study of race is not through primary sources, nor through comparison, but by skirting the whole issue--for a while, at least. The producers of CBS' "In Black America" noted that it is useless to beat an audience over the head with the facts of poverty or violence; after a certain point, they simply do not hear. Professor Gladys Forde of the Fisk University drama department has suggested a remedy for such situations: teaching cross-cultural understanding through "indirection." One might approach the study of race in America through the history, fiction, drama, films, etc., on related subjects (for example, the persecution of groups other than Negroes, inside and outside of America; or the harrassment of persons holding non-conformist views). A particularly interesting adaption of the indirect method has been suggested by Frederick Gearing, which depending on student readiness, could or could not prepare the way for a direct confrontation with the black-white issue.

Not all of what happens in the classroom can stimulate experience or revolve around the student's effort to express himself. The general approach best suited to the study of black American history appears to be the "inquiry" or discovery strategy. As described by one of its major exponents, "the emphasis (in the inquiry approach) is on giving the student not the conclusions of the scholars but the raw materials with which the scholar works, asking him to formulate the questions and work his way through to his own conclusions. . ." For a number of reasons this approach seems particularly well adapted to the study of Afro-American history. First, the use of non-evaluative primary source materials is insisted upon; some of the best work in the field of Negro American history is in this form. Second, the discovery strategy encourages the use of comparative (or cross-cultural) materials which are particularly well calculated for allowing a student to see in clearer outline the black and white American experiences. Moreover, as a student pushes from particular sources toward conclusions of his own, he is forced to develop an awareness of the many different kinds of biases in historical writing and to become familiar with the idea that everyone writes from a particular "frame of reference." There are advantages for both teacher and student in the greater emphasis on historiography than on history. The teacher, simultaneously released from the strait jacket imposed by the textbook and from the onus of "covering" a subject chronologically from beginning to end, is forced to make decisions about content selection which are otherwise too often made by default. This can result in the development of criteria which emphasize an issue's relevance to the community and/or its potential interest and meaning to students.

Whatever the subject selected for study, the student learns analytical skills which he can use in the identification, analysis and solution of other problems, and which are prerequisites to participatory democracy. The structure of dialog is built into

many of the inquiry units--they almost demand discussion. In this sense, unlike textbooks, they are made to order for the classroom situation. By taking advantage of the potential of the class as a group which thrives on cooperation in the solution of intellectual or social problems, reinforcement is given to democratic values and habits over those that are more narrowly and destructively individualist, competitive, authoritarian. The student is encouraged to become an active inquirer rather than merely a memorizer of someone else's conclusions. Since throughout the learning process the teacher acts only as a guide and each student is responsible for drawing and testing his own conclusions, no one is allowed the luxury of feeling that unpalatable conclusions have been forced upon him. In this way the problem of resistance to authority--and to learning--that is often heightened by controversial subjects is controverted. Perhaps the most important gain is in the idea conveyed of the American experience and the citizen's role in it; American history can no longer be written off by students as a string of events fixed immutably in a dead past, but must be seen, even felt, as a dynamic, ongoing process which demands citizen participation.

A great deal remains to be done. At the most fundamental level, some amazing research gaps remain to be filled. There has been no study to date on the relationship between a textbook's treatment of race and the attitudes (including self-concept) formed by students who read it. The impact of the mass media in crucial areas of attitude formation needs study, as does the relative effectiveness of the mass media vis a vis the schools in influencing children. Research on the effect of the black nationalist movement on black children's self-perception and on their learning could result in major revisions of the integrationist recommendations made by the two recent major studies on the relationship between race and class composition, on the one hand, and learning, attitude formation and especially identity development all need further work.

In addition to the need for more research in key areas, there is the problem of the cultural lag which exists between educational theory and classroom practice. For instance, the work that has been done on citizenship education (remarkably little for such a universally held American value) suggests that children's political attitudes and values are firmly established by the time they leave the eighth grade and undergo little change during high school. Yet professional scholars are least likely to be involved in preparation of material for grammar school classes and elementary textbooks are the ones most distorted in the area of American racial history. Little effort has been made to apply knowledge about group dynamics to classroom situations and teachers are undereducated in this area--in spite of the fact that classes are and will remain groups for some time to come. The business community has been more receptive to "sensitivity training" than has the world of public school teaching. And despite all of the work done by sociologists on race, almost no guidelines have been offered on how to teach in this explosive subject area, much less in a difficult interracial situation.

There is a need for new contributions to historical scholarship, although in the field of Negro American research much of this work is in progress. A greater lack is in the area of articulation between the subject fields and the schools. Recently some scholars have become involved in criticism of materials now in use in the schools--an important first step. But how many in the social sciences have performed the more demanding task of writing a book in their field for use in the schools? For that matter, how many have looked into what passes for history in the books read by American schoolchildren in their most formative grammar school years? (For those who haven't, I can guarantee that the experience will be a sobering one.) Increasingly, college teachers must broaden their understanding of their responsibilities in order to include the training in their disciplines of good teachers for the schools. And they must act on that commitment not only by example, but by evaluating available classroom materials in the field--a task for which they are far better qualified than most education instructors, by thoughtful consideration of the problems teachers will face in their classrooms, and by explicit instruction in the art of teaching their subject to younger students.

Certainly there is much that ought to be done by classroom teachers, both through self-education in the area of Afro-American history and in developing greater commitment to increasing racial understanding. When this is said, however, it must be recognized that the problem is too big for classroom teachers alone to solve. Robert Coles is right in noting that it is a little too easy for the rest of us to get off the hook by pointing the sole finger of blame at the (already beleaguered) teacher on the beat. The human tendency to seek out a scapegoat is currently getting reinforcement from another development which, although little-headed, is threatening to pave the way for an even greater copout. The call for self determination by blacks is increasingly being read by "white liberals" as their exit line from the race relations arena; it is easier to oblige, to get out, than to find a more imaginative way of working (behind the scene, if necessary) toward the same goals. Yet there is scarcely a school system in this nation whose textbooks could not, first, profit from examination, and second, if (they are) found to be deficient (as most of them will), whose teachers and school boards --not to mention national publishing houses--should not feel some pressure from the community. For it can only be through the combined efforts of blacks and whites, as teachers, publishers, scholars and citizens, that an adequate racial education for all American children will be achieved.

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A LIST OF BASIC BOOKS FOR TEACHERS OF THE HISTORY OF THE NEGRO AMERICAN

In recent years the number of studies published dealing with the Negro American and his past has been voluminous. Many of these studies are excellent and significant contributions to scholarship, but too many are based on neither sound research nor knowledge of scholarship in the field. Consequently, they frequently present distorted views of history. The prolific scholarship in Negro history has been accompanied by the publication of numerous bibliographies in the field. Although several of these have been designed to serve specifically as guides for teachers, most of them have some very serious weaknesses which limit their value for the beginning student of Negro history. The most common weaknesses are that the compilers have indiscriminately listed an enormous number of titles without any, or only superficial, annotations to guide the reader. Therefore, the beginning students of Negro history, and especially the teacher whose valuable time should not be wasted reading materials that do not contribute reliable information, are discouraged by the overwhelming volume of suggested readings.

The following books have been selected and annotated by the staff of the Amistad Research Center and Race Relations Department, Fisk University. The titles were chosen after reviewing hundreds of books and studying numerous bibliographical essays written by authorities in Negro history. It was very difficult to narrow the list to ten books; there are many other significant studies that might have been included and other compilers might have made different selections. However, these selections not only present a comprehensive survey of the history of the Negro American, but they also give in-depth treatment of the most significant institutions and movements in American History in which the Negro has played a major role.

The books are listed in the order in which it is suggested they should be read. However, some readers may prefer to save until last reading the history by John Hope Franklin and the collection of documents by Fishel and Quarles, which together present a synthesis and supply documentary evidence of the eight special studies.

Franklin, John Hope. FROM SLAVERY TO FREEDOM: A HISTORY OF AMERICAN NEGROES. Third edition, revised and enlarged. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1967. Special textbook edition, \$7.50.

Immediately after the publication of the first edition, in 1947, this book became the standard college textbook in the field. Based on extensive research in primary and secondary sources, it provided a synthesis of Negro American history which represented the best scientific scholarship. This new edition is a complete revision, reflecting new scholarship and the perspective gained through the events that have occurred during the twenty years since it was first published. It begins with a discussion of pre-Columbian African civilization and traces the history of the Negro American from Africa through the Civil Rights Revolution of the 1960's. The author, who is presently chairman of the history

department at the University of Chicago, has described not only the Negro's contributions to American history, but he also analyzes the impact of American history and culture on the Negro and integrates the whole story into the mainstream of American development. This book is required reading for anyone seriously interested in studying the Negro and it should be on the reference shelf of every history teacher.

Fishel, Leslie H. Jr. and Quarles, Benjamin. Editors. **THE NEGRO AMERICAN: A DOCUMENTARY HISTORY**, New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1967, \$6.95.

Several excellent collections of documents in the history of the Negro American have been published in recent years. The documentary history contributes information and a flavor of Negro history that are difficult to present in the standard textbook narrative. In addition to the volume here selected, **A DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF THE NEGRO PEOPLE IN THE UNITED STATES**, two volumes, edited by Herbert Aptheker. New York: The Citadel Press, 1967, \$2.75 a volume, and **EYEWITNESS: THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY**, edited by William L. Katz, New York: Pittman Publishing Corporation, 1967, \$9.75, are also highly recommended.

Professors Fishel and Quarles have more nearly succeeded in selecting documents representing all aspects of the Negro American's history from his African heritage to the present day than other editors. The documents and illustrations in this book provide teachers with excellent sources for using the discovery and inquiry methods in the classroom. It is, however, the sound scholarship and balanced judgment of editors, reflected in the introductions and notes, that set this volume apart as superior to other documentary histories.

This book should be read and studied the first time simultaneously with and as a companion volume to Franklin's **FROM SLAVERY TO FREEDOM**.

Herskovits, Melville J. **THE MYTH OF THE NEGRO PAST**. Boston: Beacon Press, 1967. \$2.45.

It has often been assumed either that the Negroes brought from Africa had no cultural background worthy of the name, or that, even if they had, the conditions under which they were enslaved effectively destroyed all vestiges of African culture in the New World. This volume was written, and first published in 1941, to demonstrate that both of those views are erroneous, that Africa has a rich cultural heritage, and that much of this heritage survives on this side of the Atlantic. It was originally prepared as a research memorandum for the Carnegie Corporation study of the Negro conducted by Gunnar Myrdal.

In his first chapter, "The Significance of Africanisms," the author indicates that lack of knowledge, not only of the cultures of Africa, but also of African-derived cultures in the New World, has led even scholars and men of good will to deny the existence of

African survivals in the United States or to minimize their significance. The second chapter on "The Search for Tribal Origins" shows that the slaves were not brought from all parts of Africa--which had been used as an argument against the retention of African traits, since this would indicate a wide variety of diverse and perhaps incompatible cultural traditions--but that most of them came from West Africa, an area stretching roughly from Senegal to the Congo. In this region, while cultural diversity was indeed present, there were many underlying similarities, facilitating the retention of many features of West African life in the New World. Following this, in "The African Heritage," Herskovits outlines these common features, and at the same time shows that the social, political, religious, and aesthetic patterns of the area were far from simple or underdeveloped.

The following two chapters, on the period of enslavement and the processes of acculturation, indicate how it was possible for African culture traits to be retained, even under the rigorous conditions of slavery. In his discussion on acculturation, Herskovits shows that the Negroes were able to adopt many features of the respective European cultures with which they were in contact, without losing all memory of their former ways. As in all instances of acculturation, both old and new patterns were reinterpreted in terms of the other. Further, he stresses the point that acculturation is not a one-way process, and that while the Negroes were learning European ways, the white people without clearly realizing it were also learning African ways. The author devotes three chapters to specific African features in the secular, religious, and artistic life of Negroes living in various parts of the New World. While conceding that African survivals are far fewer in the United States than in the more isolated Afroamerican societies of the Carribean and South America, he says that this does not in any way diminish their importance.

Herkovits concludes with a statement on the significance of this research, not only for its practical implications for American race relations, but also for its theoretical values in deepening our understanding of the processes of culture change. His "ethnohistoric" approach to an understanding of American Negro life was specifically critical of earlier sociological studies for their neglect of historical factors and was, in turn, criticized by sociologists who felt that he laid too much stress on the remnants of a distant African past. Since this was primarily an argument over method and emphasis, rather than over the validity of the data employed, the work remains stimulating and important. No one can quarrel with its basic conclusion that both scholars and laymen have too long accepted the myth that Negroes as a people have no historical past of their own.

This is not a book for the casual reader. But it is a provocative book and the serious teacher can gain insights and perspectives from reading it that will be beneficial in teaching and understanding not only Negro history but the historical method in general.

Tannerbaum, Frank. **SLAVE AND CITIZEN: THE NEGRO IN THE AMERICAS.**
New York: Vintage Books, 1946. \$145.

The purpose of this intriguing comparative study is to investigate why the social status of Negroes in Latin America today is generally much more favorable than it is in the United States. It is Tannenbaum's thesis that the reasons lie in the fact that slavery in the two areas developed in quite different legal and moral settings, which reflected very basic differences in cultural traditions. In Spain and Portugal in the fifteenth century, slavery was a long-established institution, regulated by law and recognized by the Catholic Church. In this setting, while slaves were deprived of personal freedom they still retained the legal protection of the state and the moral protection of the church. In England, on the other hand, ancient and medieval traditions affecting slavery had died out, nor were the English accustomed, as the Iberians were, to dealing with the darker-skinned individuals.

When Negroes were brought as slaves to the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in the New World, their treatment continued to be conditioned by Iberian traditions, with the result that they were never considered simply as property, but rather as human beings who had certain rights despite their unfortunate condition. The church demanded that they be instructed in the faith and baptized, that they be allowed to contract legal marriages, and it also encouraged manumission. In the English colonies, however, Negro slaves came to be considered as chattels under the absolute control of their masters. Moreover, the Protestant Church did not exert the same concern for their salvation and well-being; baptism was not unknown, but slaves were seldom allowed to contract legal marriages and they were frequently denied the privilege of keeping their families together. Finally, manumission was much less frequent and was usually discouraged by legal enactments. In this situation, the terms "Negro" and "slave" became synonymous in the English colonies and later in the United States.

In conclusion, Tannenbaum cautions that he is concerned with the results of slavery, rather than with the condition of the slaves. Slavery everywhere is inhuman to slaves and degrading for their masters, for the institution has a logic of its own which works its way into the total social structure. Nevertheless, since in Brazil and in the Spanish colonies there was a constantly growing number of free Negroes, while in the British West Indies and in the United States their numbers were few, the position of Negroes after emancipation was very different. In Latin America the emancipated slaves were easily absorbed into a society in which status did not depend directly upon color and in which inter-marriage was not unusual; in the English speaking areas, however, free Negroes had had their legal rights severely restricted, and the freedmen inherited this anomalous condition.

Stamp, Kenneth M. **THE PECULIAR INSTITUTION: SLAVERY IN THE ANTE-BELLUM SOUTH.** New York: Vintage Books, 1956. \$195.

For many years the accepted view of American slavery was that depicted by Ulrich Bonnell Phillips in **AMERICAN NEGRO SLAVERY: A**

SURVEY OF THE SUPPLY, EMPLOYMENT AND CONTROL OF NEGRO LABOR AS DETERMINED BY THE PLANTATION REGIME. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1918. Now available in paperback from Louisiana State University Press. \$295. To a great extent the view Phillips presented of slavery was that of the Southern planter. In a review of Phillips' book, in 1918, Mary White Ovington wrote, "Unless the descendant of the slave writes an exhaustive book from his standpoint, this might be the last word on the subject." Stamp is not a Negro, but he came very near to writing a book from the standpoint of the slave. This is a hard-hitting and thoroughly revisionist interpretation of American slavery, based on exhaustive research and carefully documented. Stamp swept away the romantic myths and apologies that have for long clouded the historical interpretations of the institution of slavery. He found that the slaves were overworked, poorly clothed and fed, inadequately housed and provided with little or no medical attention. He maintained that slavery robbed the Negro of his African culture and in return gave him only "vocational training." Instead of the legendary contented and happy-go-lucky slave, he found that the Negro was a "troublesome property," who frequently made the life of his master miserable by passive and overt resistance to the system. Nevertheless, the South persisted in clinging to the system because it was profitable. Here, too, Stamp disagrees with Phillips and earlier interpretations.

Litwack, Leon F. NORTH OF SLAVERY: THE NEGRO IN THE FREE STATES, 1790-1860. Chicago: Phoenix Books, 1965. \$2.45.

This excellent study is the first effort by a historian to give a comprehensive account of all aspects of the ante-bellum life of the Northern Negro. The extent to which the Negro throughout the North suffered political, economic and social proscriptions is well documented and provides conclusive evidence that the myth of white superiority was not confined to south of the Mason-Dixon line. In 1860, only Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont provided equal rights of suffrage for the Negro. New York allowed the Negro to vote, but there were special property and residential requirements that did not apply to whites. Elsewhere there was general disfranchisement. The Negro's rights in the courts were circumscribed; most states excluded Negroes from public education or provided inferior separate schools; and most churches discriminated either by denying membership entirely or by setting aside special Negro pews. Litwack has ably covered all these aspects and also discussed the free Negro in the abolition crusade and the joint efforts of white abolitionists and Negroes to improve conditions. A significant value of this work is that, whenever possible, Litwack allowed the Negro to tell the story through extensive quotations. This study provides the facts for making an interesting comparison with the present-day status of the Negro in the North.

McPherson, James M. THE NEGRO'S CIVIL WAR: HOW AMERICAN NEGROES FELT AND ACTED DURING THE WAR FOR THE UNION. New York: Vintage Books, 1965. \$1.95.

As the author of this book has pointed out in his introduction, the belief persists among many historians and generally among laymen

that the Negro played "no important or effective" role in Civil War. That this belief has no basis in historical fact is conclusively proven by the evidence compiled by McPherson. This is a documentary history, mostly in the words of Negroes, with the documents tied together by interpretative introductions and transitional discussions so that the presentation is in narrative form. The narrative is divided, basically chronologically, into chapters covering differing subjects. Approximately a half million Southern Negroes came within Union Army lines during the Civil War, and many of these served as laborers or soldiers. From both the North and South, more than two hundred thousand Negroes were enlisted in the Union Army and Navy. The documents presented here reveal not only why they fought but their bravery and heroism as well.

This book, however, deals with more than the military contributions of the Negro. It shows his reactions to political and social developments and covers every aspect of his efforts to effect social change. The Civil War Negro worked for the emancipation of the slave but his ultimate goal was to achieve all the rights of full and equal citizenship. This book is indispensable for the student who wishes to understand past and present hopes, aspirations and frustrations of the Negro American.

Woodward, C. Vann. THE STRANGE CAREER OF JIM CROW Second revised Edition. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966. \$1.50

The first edition of this book, composed of lectures delivered by Professor Woodward at the University of Virginia in 1954, was published in 1955. It was immediately recognized as a significant landmark in the history of race relations in the United States; it was widely read and acclaimed by historians and laymen, and its implications were hotly debated by friends and foes of segregation. This revision is written with a new perspective gained from recent scholarship and from the developments of the Civil Rights Revolution since 1954. It is a history of origins, development and decline of the legal segregation and proscription of Negro in the United States. The focus of the book is on the South, but this edition gives some attention to segregation in the North.

The most original contribution of this book is the author's thesis that state segregation statutes, or Jim Crow laws, have relatively recent origins in United States history. Legal segregation was not established during slavery; it would have been impractical; and it did not appear immediately after Reconstruction. Laws requiring separation of the races did not become widespread in the South until after 1890, and the disfranchisement of the Negro by statutes establishing the poll tax, property qualifications and the white primary was a development of the two decades after 1895. While these laws were comparable to the black codes of the ante-bellum period, Professor Woodward maintains that the latter were less harsh and rigid, and in practice were softened by laxity in enforcement.

Between the end of Reconstruction and the 1890's, three indigenous Southern alternatives to the extreme racism of Jim Crow were offered the South and rejected. George Washington Cable and Lewis H. Blair, among others, proposed the recognition of equal rights for all persons. Equalitarian liberalism, however, found very few supporters. Most popular was the aristocratic paternalism proposed by Southern conservatives. The conservatives believed that the Negro should occupy a subordinate position in Southern Society, but that whites had a responsibility for his uplift and development and should not allow him to be ostracised, humiliated and degraded. The third alternative was offered by Populist radicals. They proposed equalitarianism based on a belief in the need for bi-racial cooperation in the self-interest of each race. The rejection of these alternatives and the capitulation of the South to the extreme racism of Jim Crow were products of the power struggle between the conservatives and the Populists at the turn of the century. Professor Woodward analyzes the factors that influenced the capitulation.

The book is a study of Jim Crow and not of the whole system of racial discrimination and injustices. Professor Woodward recognizes that racism is much older in American history than Jim Crow and that the idea of the innate inferiority of the Negro was reflected in effective segregation and proscription by custom in many areas before given the sanction of law. The importance of his thesis on the origins of Jim Crow is only one of many reasons why this book should be required reading for all students of race relations in the United States. The author's treatment of the growth and development of legal segregation in the twentieth century is sound and perceptive, as is also his analysis in historical perspective of its decline and death.

King, Martin Luther, Jr. WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE: CHAOS OR COMMUNITY? New York: Bantam Books, 1968. \$.95.

Carmichael, Stokely and Hamilton, Charles V. BLACK POWER: THE POLITICS OF LIBERATION IN AMERICA. New York: Vintage Books, 1967. \$1.95.

It would be impossible to select one or two good books which describe comprehensively and accurately the complexities of the Civil Rights Revolution of the last two decades. The basic difficulty in attempting to make such a selection is that writers and reviewers have been too close to the events to develop perspective and objectivity. This means that the hundreds of books and articles written on the subject, many of which are excellent and some of which have used the methods of scholarly research, have more or less expressed a point of view. If one reviews the literature written by Negroes in this field, it soon becomes clear that there is no "Negro point of view." This, of course, is also a historical fact. Throughout American history the individuality and humanity of Negroes have been manifested in ideological differences, cleavages and schisms, and especially has this been true among reform leaders. "What the Negro Thinks" is more a shibboleth than a fact.

These two books were chosen because they represent this diversity among Negroes as reflected in the thinking of two of the most prominent and charismatic leaders of the Civil Rights Revolution. The writings of other leaders might have been selected--Malcolm X comes to mind immediately--but it appears that the philosophies of Martin Luther King, Jr. and Stokely Carmichael are the most influential competing voices among Negroes in the late 1960's. While these are not history books but are the stuff from which history is written, both books reflect an interpretation of American history and the authors' reactions to their historical heritage.

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE? First printed in 1967, was the last published book of Martin Luther King, Jr. before his death. It expresses a moderate and judicious point of view and reflects a maturity of thought not evident in some of Dr. King's earlier writings. While in earlier books he aimed at awakening America through attacking the evils of society, in this book he is concerned more with the development of constructive programs. Nevertheless, he did in this book, a year before the REPORT OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON CIVIL DISORDERS, identify and attack white racism as the primary cause of America's racial crisis. He, of course, rejected Black Power, but his discussion of the movement is not hostile but a reasoned analysis of its origin, meaning and implications. Dr. King's sympathy for the poor and oppressed knew no bounds of race or nation, and he made a reasoned plea for wide collaboration among all concerned Americans to bring about a national commitment for equality and justice for all men. His fervent dedication to nonviolence is the heart of the book.

Charles V. Hamilton, who collaborated with Stokely Carmichael in writing BLACK POWER, is chairman of the department of political science at Roosevelt University in Chicago. While the authors have presented a revolutionary philosophy, there is in their approach a marked degree of reason and of concern for accurately portraying conditions as they are. On a flyleaf preceding the text, the authors have stated the basic assumption on which the book is based:

This book presents a political framework and ideology which represents the last reasonable opportunity for this society to work out its racial problems short of prolonged destructive guerrilla warfare. That such violent warfare may be unavoidable is not herein denied. But if there is the slightest chance to avoid it, the politics of Black Power as described in this book is seen as the only viable hope.

Only time and events will determine the validity of this statement. Nevertheless, the concerned American has the responsibility to study the meaning of a philosophy which has appealed to so many black, and white Americans.

If the books listed above are not available at your local bookstore, you may order them from Mills Bookstore, 711 Church Street,

Nashville, Tennessee 37203. Mills has agreed to keep all the books in stock and will mail them promptly on request. If payment is enclosed with the order the books will be sent postage prepaid. Make check or money orders payable to Mills Bookstore. Tennessee residents should add sales tax.

In cases where books are available in both hardcover and paperback, we have selected and quoted the price of the less expensive paperback editions.

TEACHER BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR GOVERNMENT AND PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY

Baldwin, James. **NOBODY KNOWS MY NAME: MORE NOTES OF A NATIVE SON.** New York: Dell, 1961, \$.50.

America has had a multitude of commentators on her national life, but only a few have been as insightful and as literate as James Baldwin. In this collection of essays, Baldwin explores a variety of situations (the Negro in Europe, Harlem, the rural South) and personalities (Faulkner, Wright, black and white males) to discover what it means to be Black and to be an American. His discoveries are conveyed with a candor and civility that are rarely encountered in contemporary conversations between blacks and whites. In a later long essay, **THE FIRE NEXT TIME**, New York: Dell, 1963, \$.50. Baldwin retained his candor, but unleashed some of his rage on white America.

For a partial non-fictionalized statement of Richard Wright's reflections on being black in America, see **BLACK BOY: A RECORD OF CHILDHOOD AND YOUTH.** New York: Harper and Row, 1937, \$.95. The two contemporary popular works on the same subject are Claude Brown, **MANCHILD IN THE PROMISED LAND.** New York: The American Library, Signet Book, 1965, \$.95, and Malcolm X, **AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF MALCOLM X.** New York: Grove Press, 1964, \$1.25.

Drake, St. Clair and Cayton, Horace R. **BLACK METROPOLIS: A STUDY OF NEGRO LIFE IN A NORTHERN CITY.** New York: Torchbook of Harper and Row, Publishers, 1945, Volume 1/\$2.75, Volume 11/\$2.45.

St. Clair Drake and Horace Cayton's examination of Negro life in Chicago is still the most comprehensive, thorough, vivid, and frank account of a Negro community. The book reconstructs the history of Negro migration from the South and the patterns of life developed in the Northern urban setting, both in relation to whites and within the segregated black community. The historical section (Part 1) provides much-needed information on one of the two crucial population movements affecting America in this century. The parts dealing with life in the 1930's and early 40's treat broad structural features of the community; but they also present perspectives on the black community from the "inside," especially through the liberal inclusion of residents' own statements. The Torchbook edition is updated with two postscripts on Black Metropolis in 1961.

The book is exciting reading, but the reader who lacks the time to tackle both volumes can quite profitably select only the sections most relevant to his interests. The teacher of government may find the one chapter devoted explicitly to politics too brief, but will find much politically relevant material in other sections.

Kalven, Harry, **THE NEGRO AND THE FIRST AMENDMENT.** Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965, \$2.45.

Dr. Kalven presents a lucid, well-informed analysis of the impact of civil rights protest action on Constitutional law. He approaches his subject by examining in some detail the reasoning of the Supreme Court, both in the major protest cases that have come before the Court during this decade, and in the relevant earlier cases

(especially those involving labor unions and religious groups). The book delineates the alternatives which have been available to the Court and the Court's hesitant movement toward an interpretation of the First Amendment as guaranteeing "an absolute privilege for the citizen when engaged in his official business of discussing public issues of any sort". As a guide to the developing Supreme Court doctrine on civil rights protest, and as a statement of the legal debate over the nature and limits of Constitutionally legitimate protest, the book is unmatched.

Commentary on cases which have come before the Court since the completion of Kalven's book (1965) can be found in the annual issues of SUPREME COURT REVIEW, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Key, V. O., Jr. SOUTHERN POLITICS IN STATE AND NATION. New York: Vintage of Random House, 1949, \$2.95.

V. O. Key's study of Southern political life is regarded by most political scientists as a "classic" in the literature on American politics. Although completed in 1948, the book continues to provide an excellent starting point for understanding Southern politics. It includes analyses of political patterns in each of the eleven former Confederate states and an examination of Southern political behavior in the U. S. Congress. Central to the book is a concern with the nature of the Negro's role in the post-Reconstruction politics of the South.

Efforts to increase Negro political participation in the South are chronicled in Pat Watters and Reese Cleghorn's, CLIMBING JACOB'S LADDER: THE ARRIVAL OF NEGROES IN SOUTHERN POLITICS, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967, \$8.95. Effects of the 1965 Voting Rights Act on Negro voting and candidacy for office are described in POLITICAL PARTICIPATION, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1968. Available for \$.75 from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402. For a more comprehensive and exact updating of SOUTHERN POLITICS see Donald R. Matthews and James W. Prothro, NEGROES AND THE NEW SOUTHERN POLITICS, New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1966, \$3.50.

King, Martin Luther, Jr. "Letter from a Birmingham Jail" in WHY WE CAN'T WAIT, New York: Signet of the New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1963, \$.60.

In the midst of the Birmingham struggle (April, 1963), Dr. King addressed this response to eight white Alabama clergymen who had published a statement opposing the non-violent demonstrations. Speaking to the clergymen in part as religious spokesmen, but also as representatives of the "moderate" sector of white America, the letter presents a carefully reasoned, lucid argument for the legitimacy of non-violent protest.

In King's last book before his assassination, he again turned to the subject of non-violence, but this time in response to statements by Black Power advocates. See Chapter II, "Black Power," in

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE: CHAOS OR COMMUNITY?, Boston: Beacon Press, 1967, \$1.95. The latter book and WHY WE CAN'T WAIT also contain King's own understanding of major events in the civil rights movement. For other writings by King, see Broderick and Meier's excellent collection of documents, NEGRO PROTEST THOUGHT IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY, Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1965, \$3.45.

Lewis, Anthony and THE NEW YORK TIMES. PORTRAIT OF A DECADE: THE SECOND AMERICAN REVOLUTION. New York: Bantam Books, 1964, \$.95.

Anthony Lewis, a Pulitzer prize-winning journalist has utilized the resources of one of the country's best newspapers to portray the decade of change in race relations which began with the Brown decision. The book is full of relevant information, including much contemporary comment on people and events, as well as data from sociological, economic and political studies of Negroes and whites. The information is skillfully employed as part of the narrative of rapid change. (Probably no single book provides as sound an overview of the civil rights movement and rights movement and reaction to it up through 1964.) Events since 1964 have pointed up some shortcomings in the book (e.g., its' virtual silence on the thought of Malcolm X), but they are few. For a concise updating of Federal Government activity, see the C. Q. Background Report, REVOLUTION IN CIVIL RIGHTS, 4th edition (June, 1968, \$2.95.) Available from the Congressional Quarterly Service, 1735 K Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20006.

Breitman, George. MALCOLM X SPEAKS, New York: Grove Press, 1965, \$.95.

The major speeches given by Malcolm X during the year before his assassination have been collected in this volume. The speeches convey both Malcolm X's roots as a Black Muslim and his contributions to the thought of many contemporary non-Muslim Black Power advocates. Prominent are his critiques of American society and of the "classical" civil rights movement, and the reasons for his commitment to black solidarity.

Stokely Carmichael and Charles V. Hamilton present a more restrained elaboration of similar themes in BLACK POWER: THE POLITICS OF LIBERATION, New York: Vintage of Random House, 1967, \$1.95. Malcolm X's extraordinary life is presented in the AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF MALCOLM X, New York: Grove Press, 1964, \$1.25.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON CIVIL DISORDERS.
New York: Bantam Books, 1968, \$1.25.

The Korner Commission's Report is the most comprehensive and sophisticated effort now available to understand recent urban social disorders. A great deal of public comment has focused on the prescriptive section (Part III) of the Report. But for the teacher of Government and POD courses, Part I and II may well be more useful. Part I, the descriptive section of the Report, is a concise review of the major riots that occurred between 1963 and 1967, and a careful effort to identify their common elements. Part II, the section devoted to the causes of the disorders, sketches and political role of the

Negro in America historically, analyses ghetto life and identifies the dissimilarities between Negro and immigrant experiences. Its examination of the position of the Negro in contemporary America provides a sound basis for understanding not only riots, but also much Negro political action today.

For more historical perspective and urban racial disorders, see Elliott Rudwick's study, *RACE RIOT AT EAST ST. LOUIS, JULY 2, 1917*, Cleveland, Ohio: The World Publishing Company, 1966, \$2.25. The classic study on the 1919 Chicago race riot has recently been made available again: *The Chicago Commission on Race Relations, THE NEGRO IN CHICAGO: A STUDY OF RACE RELATIONS AND A RACE RIOT*, New York: Arno Press and The New York Times, 1922, \$15.00.

Rustin, Bayard, "From Politics to Protest: the Future of the Civil Rights Movement", in *COMMENTARY*, February, 1965, pp. 25-31. Also available as a *COMMENTARY REPORT*, 165 East 56th Street, New York, New York 10022, \$.50; and in Broderick and Meier, *NEGRO PROTEST THOUGHT IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY*, Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1965, \$3.45.

Mr. Rustin, himself one of the shapers of the civil rights movement, is a knowledgeable and perceptive observer of the American political scene. His article interprets the meaning of the "classical" phase of the civil rights struggle and of new trends emerging in the mid 60s. It is a persuasive statement of the relation of civil rights events to the larger economic and political scene, both historically and at present. For a later, more pointed statement, see Rustin, "Black Power and Coalition Politics", in *COMMENTARY*, September 1966, pp. 35-40 (also available separately as a *COMMENTARY REPORT*).

Silberman, Charles E., *CRISIS IN BLACK AND WHITE*, New York: Vintage of Random House, 1964, \$1.95.

Charles Silberman's book should be read as a good introduction to controversy over the racial crisis in America. The author is a knowledgeable journalist with a rare ability to detail the contemporary relevance of the past (including major historical studies of the Negro), to interrelate the various sectors of modern life, and to pinpoint issues and alternative solutions. Most readers will gain from the book (at the least) a good sense of where to go next in their reading and a strong (even angry) desire to pursue the subject. One should, however, read *CRISIS IN BLACK AND WHITE* with caution. The other side of Silberman's merits is a tendency to half-state the alternatives which he rejects. For a part of the continuing debate over his position on education, for instance, see Joseph Alsop, "No More Nonsense About Ghetto Education," *NEW REPUBLIC*, July 22, 1967, pp. 18-23 and R. Schwartz, T. Pettigrow and M. Smith, "Fake Penances for Ghetto Education: A Reply to Joseph Alsop," in *NEW REPUBLIC*, Sept. 23, 1967, pp. 16-19. The articles have been bound together as a reprint available from The New Republic, 1244-19th Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

II B. SUPPLEMENTARY BIBLIOGRAPHY IN NEGRO HISTORY

This list of books is a supplement to the ten volumes described in "A List of Basic Books for Teachers of the History of the Negro American," which are recommended not only for purchase by teachers but also as a core of library holdings in Negro history to be made available to students. The books listed below have been carefully selected to support courses in which students are required to do supplementary reading and to prepare reviews, research papers and oral reports. Some of the books can be read with profit by all levels of high school students. Others will appeal only to the more mature students who are capable of critical analysis.

It is recognized that budget limitation in some schools will not allow the purchase of all the recommended books in one year. For this reason we have marked with an asterisk those considered of primary importance and it is recommended that they be purchased first.

*Aptheker, Herbert, Editor. A DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF THE NEGRO PEOPLE IN THE UNITED STATES. Two volumes. (Volume I: From Colonial Times through the Civil War; Volume II: From the Reconstruction Years to the Founding of the N.A.A.C.P. in 1910.) New York: The Citadel Press, 1951, \$5.50.

In 1943, Herbert Aptheker published American Negro Slave Revolts, a drastic revisionist study, in which he maintained that organized efforts at freedom among the slaves were a "regular and ever-recurring phenomenon in the life of the Old South." Historians generally accepted Aptheker's thesis and regarded his work as the best study of the subject, but some felt he had overstated the cases and he was criticised for sometimes accepting flimsy evidence and for his Marxist philosophy of history. In Volume I of this work he has collected the documentary evidence not only of the Negro's resistance to slavery, but also of the contributions of individual Negroes to American history, and in Volume II the documentary history is presented of the Negro's reaction to the end of chattel slavery and the developments which proscribed his freedom in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. From these documents the mature student will be able to construct his own interpretation of the history of the Negro American. The teacher will find the volumes invaluable reference books.

*Baker, Ray Stannard. FOLLOWING THE COLOR LINE: AMERICAN NEGRO CITIZENSHIP IN THE PROGRESSIVE ERA, with an introduction by Dewey W. Grantham, Jr. New York: Harper and Row, 1964, \$2.25.

Ray Stannard Baker was one of the leading muckraking journalists at the turn of the century. Baker's premise for this study was that the plight of the Negro presented America with a problem that was both urgent and national. Through prodigious research, most of which was conducted in the field, he reviewed the problem in all its aspects and in every region of the country. In his efforts to present "a clear statement of the exact present condition and relationships of the Negro in American life," Baker also revealed much of the

conditions and relationships of other minority groups in the nation as well as those of the dominant white Protestant majority. Baker was assiduous in his attempt to present an impartial study. Although his view was far in advance of American thought on the race issue, he was no radical. Most reviewers, Negro and white, regarded the book as a penetrating and objective analysis, but some of the more militant Negroes felt that greater emphasis was placed on the Negro's responsibilities than on his rights. Baker had no ready solution for solving this urgent problem. But as Professor Grantham points out the tragedy is that the Progressive reformers of the period did not attack the problem with the sympathy and understanding and in the spirit of true democracy that Baker recommended.

This book provides easy reading and is an invaluable source for the study of the Negro and race relations during the Progressive Era.

Bardolph, Richard. THE NEGRO VANGUARD. New York: Vintage Books, 1961, \$1.85.

This is a comprehensive study of "the most celebrated Negro Americans" from the colonial period to the present. It is the lives of individuals rather than a study of the Negro as a group or as a problem. The Negro student will find here his race heroes and the white reader will come to realize that the Negro has also moved and shaped American history.

The book is well written and will make fascinating reading for students at all levels. Its major weakness is that the author appears to place undue emphasis upon the factor of mixed blood. Although he has pointed out in the Prologue that it is the Negroes of lighter skin who have been allowed greater opportunities in both slavery and freedom for development of talents and leadership abilities, and there are sufficient examples of darker Negroes discussed to negate any implications that mixed blood determined achievements, the emphasis placed on color is a serious flaw and should be a subject for serious classroom discussion and evaluation when studying the book.

Bond, Horace Mann. THE EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO IN THE AMERICAN SOCIAL ORDER. New York: Octagon Books, 1966, \$12.50.

This book, first published in 1934, is a study of the history of Negro education from the Reconstruction period with a detailed analysis of conditions in the early 1930's. It is based on the premise that the Negro could not take a productive role in the social order emerging from the rapidly changing economic system unless the Negro child was given educational opportunities equal to those provided for the white child. Bond amassed definitive evidence to prove that, in spite of the increased expenditures for Negro education in the South after World War I, new services in the white schools designed to prepare the white child for the emerging social order had resulted in the Negro child receiving a smaller proportion of public funds in the 1930's than at any time since the establishment of public school systems.

Bond studied all aspects of Negro education in the North and South--and he found significant inequities existing in the North--but he devoted most attention to the legally segregated systems of the South. He did not argue for racial integration of the schools, but equalization. He recognized, however, that none of the Southern states had the economic resources to support even one school system comparable in quality to those of the North and that the dual systems were wasteful and inefficient. This book conclusively documented the fallacy of the "separate but equal" system of education twenty years before the United States Supreme Court declared the system illegal.

Broderick, Francis L. W. E. B. Du Bois NEGRO LEADERSHIP IN A TIME OF CRISIS. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1959, \$5.00.

William Edward Burghart DuBois was a giant among men. His versatility is demonstrated in that while he was always in the forefront in the fight for the rights of the Negro, he made significant contributions as a historian, sociologist, teacher, social commentator, novelist, and editor.

Raised in Great Barrington, Massachusetts, he was educated at Fisk University, Harvard University and the University of Berlin. He taught at Wilberforce, Pennsylvania and Atlanta Universities. He was a leader in the formation of the N.A.A.C.P., and he served as the editor of the Association's organ, the Crisis.

As he became more and more frustrated in his effort for an equal and integrated society, he came in the 1930's to advocating racial cohesiveness and exclusiveness. This led to a break with the N.A.A.C.P.; he resigned from the Crisis and returned to Atlanta University. At Atlanta, he founded the Phylon, a journal of sociology that concentrated on the Negro and his problems. Meanwhile, he was turning more and more toward Marxism.

Although the mass of DuBois papers were not available to the author, this is a very well written biography, based on extensive research. Du Bois' life is helpful in understanding the activities of angry Negroes today.

Chalmers, David, M. HOODED AMERICANISM: THE FIRST CENTURY OF THE KU KLUX KLAN, 1865-1965

Although the definitive history of the Ku Klux Klan is yet to be written, this book is a good up-to-date study based on broad research and written in a very readable style. The book describes the forces behind the Klan and identifies its supporters from among powerful members of the establishment. It is particularly valuable for its treatment of the resurgence of the Klan in the 1920's. In fact, only one chapter is devoted to the history of the Klan before its resurgence after World War I.

Cox, John H. and LaWanda C. POLITICS, PRINCIPLE AND PREJUDICE, 1865-66 DILEMMA OF RECONSTRUCTION AMERICA. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1963, \$6.95.

This is an excellent revisionist interpretation of the conflict between President Andrew Johnson and the Radicals in Congress, an interpretation that has not yet found its way into most American history textbooks. The authors found that the Radicals were not all motivated by economic or strictly political interests, and that their opponents, including Johnson, exploited race prejudice in their efforts to discredit them. This is required reading for one who wishes to understand the history of the Reconstruction period.

*Cronon, Edmund David. **BLACK MOSES: THE STORY OF MARCUS GARVEY AND THE UNIVERSAL NEGRO IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATION.** Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1955, \$6.00.

The phenomenon usually known today as "black nationalism" has antecedent that students of Negro thought and history have not yet sufficiently explored. Its most spectacular manifestation, and until now the most successful mass movement ever to appear among American Negroes, was the Garvey movement following World War I. Marcus Garvey (1887-1940) was born in Jamaica, where he first founded his Universal Negro Improvement Association. He came to the United States in 1916 to establish the organization here, and by the end of the war he had begun to attract a large following, particularly in the urban North.

While he was scorned by the Negro middle-class, his powerful appeals to race pride had a tremendous impact on more ordinary people, who were economically deprived and disillusioned that the victorious outcome of the war had brought no improvements in their status. He told his followers that the only hope for American Negroes was to leave their white oppressors and go to Africa, where they would create a free and independent nation. He organized a host of subsidiary organizations and business ventures and surrounded these with ceremony and ritual. In 1921, when the movement had reached its peak, with perhaps a million members, he proclaimed himself provisional president of Africa. But criticism continued to mount, and he was arrested by federal authorities for using the mails to defraud in connection with his Black Star Steamship Line. He was eventually imprisoned in 1925, but was pardoned and then deported two years later. He tried to maintain his organization from the West Indies, but the movement was effectivly broken, and he died in London in 1940.

This is the first full-length scholarly book about Garvey and his movement. It contributes not only to understanding the 1920's but also to understanding the "black power" movement of today.

*Davidson, Basil. **LOST CITIES OF AFRICA.** Boston: Little, Brown, 1959, \$6.95.

This book deals with civilizations of Africa, south of the Sahara Desert, during a period approximately 1500 years before the colonization of the continent by West Europeans. Through a superb blending of the research findings of historians, anthropologists and archaeologists, it successfully undermines old myths and assumptions about Africa. It is basic reading for any student who wishes to understand the Negro's past.

Duberman, Martin B. Editor. THE ANTI-SLAVERY VANGUARD: NEW ESSAYS ON THE ABOLITIONISTS. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1965, \$10.00.

In the 1930's American historians seemed to be reaching a consensus concerning the character of the abolitionists--they were portrayed as extremist or fanatical and irresponsible agitators. Recent scholarship, particularly of the last two decades, has questioned this interpretation. Therefore, in American historiography The Anti-Slavery Vanguard is a most significant book. The volume contains seventeen essays by as many different authors; all except one were written especially for this book. The editor conceived the volume with two objectives in mind: "first, to excavate and encourage the tendency toward a more sympathetic appraisal of the (abolitionist) movement, but second, to include all scholarly points of view, so that disagreements in interpretation might be further clarified." He was unable to find contributors to present the traditional view; consequently, all the essays present new viewpoints and are generally sympathetic to the abolitionist movement. None of the authors, however, has considered it his function to defend or vindicate the abolitionists.

Only a few of the new viewpoints found here can be mentioned. Fawn M. Brodie charges that writers who have given the traditional view of the abolitionists have distorted history by both vituperation and omission. For example, he says that in their efforts to glorify Robert E. Lee, historians have glossed over his support for slavery, while, on the other hand, they have over-emphasized Lincoln's differences with the abolitionists and ignored "the steady evolution of Lincoln's attitudes toward Negro rights and massive evidence of his cooperation with men in the radical wing of his party and they with him." Donald G. Mathews, Irving H. Bartlett, and Benjamin Quarles, in essays on Orange Scott, Wendell Phillips, and Frederick Douglass, indicate the complexity of the problem of generalizing about the characters and motivations of the abolitionists. The essay by James M. McPherson and Willie Lee Rose reveal the fallacy of ignoring the constructive work of abolitionists during the Reconstruction and labeling them as irresponsible fanatics and iconoclasts. Staughton Lynd maintains that in the Philadelphia Convention the issues of slavery and sectionalism were very potent forces in the shaping of the Constitution and that any interpretation of the convention which stresses economic factors, large and small state rivalry, or democracy versus conservatism while leaving out the slavery issue is an inadequate interpretation. Robin W. Winks maintains that Canada was neither the great haven for the fugitive slaves and stronghold of freedom nor the supporter for American abolitionism that most historians have assumed. Howard R. Temperley insists that fair comparison of British and American abolitionism must consider the differences in character and magnitude of the problems they faced as well as tactics and effectiveness. Howard Zinn gives an able and thoughtful defense of the tactics of the abolitionists and compares them to the tactics of the "Freedom-Riders" of the 1960's.

*Douglass, Frederick. LIFE AND TIMES OF FREDERICK DOUGLASS, edited by Barbara Ritchie. New York: Crowell, 1966, \$3.95.

Frederick Douglass (c. 1817-1895) was born in Maryland, the son of a white father, whom he never knew, and a slave mother. Although he did not have an easy life as a slave, there were pleasant periods, during one of which he learned to read and write. He escaped to New York in 1833, was married by James W. E. Pennington (another escaped slave) and Anna Murray, a free Negro who had followed him from Baltimore, and settled in New Bedford, Massachusetts where he worked as a common laborer. In 1841, he gave an extemporaneous speech at a meeting of the Massachusetts Anti-Slavery Society and was immediately employed by that organization as a lecturer. He soon became the best-known and most influential Negro in the abolitionist movement. His fame caused him to fear re-enslavement and he fled to England in 1845, where the funds were raised that enabled him to purchase his freedom.

Douglass began his abolitionist activities as a devoted disciple of William Lloyd Garrison, but the two men soon fell into disagreement. After 1847, Douglass edited and published the North Star (the name was changed to Frederick Douglass' Paper in 1850), an independent journal for the Negro people. A supporter of the Radical Republicans during the Civil War and Reconstruction, Douglass exerted pressure for the employment of Negro troops on a basis of equality in the union Army, and, of course, he was persistent in demanding universal emancipation of the slaves as a war measure. He continued after Reconstruction to lead the struggle for equal rights for the Negro. However, his humanitarianism embraced more than a concern for the rights and development of his own race. He was an early advocate of equal rights for women; he supported the organized labor movement; he was active in the temperance movement; and he urged a national system of aid to education as a means of providing better schools by serving as Minister Resident and Consul General from the United States to the Republic of Haiti.

This book is an edited version of the final revision of Douglass' autobiography, published in 1892, which was begun as a brief narrative first published in 1845. It was expanded and republished in 1855 under the title My Bondage and My Freedom. The third revised and enlarged edition, published in 1881, carried the title Life and Times of Frederick Douglass, Written by Himself. His Early Life As A Slave, His Escape from Bondage, and His Complete History to the Present Time, including His connection With the Anti-Slavery Movement. The final edition carried this same title, but was enlarged to cover his tour of duty in Haiti. The work is a classic in American autobiographical writings and it is an invaluable source for the study of slavery, the abolition movement, the Civil War and Reconstruction, and race relations in the later nineteenth century. For the 1966 edition, Barbara Ritchie has eliminated much of the verbose and rambling style, while maintaining the spirit, of the original.

*Du Bois, W. E. Burghardt. THE SOULS OF BLACK FOLK: ESSAYS AND SKETCHES. New York: Blue Heron Press, 1953, \$2.00.

This book, first published in 1903, has become a classic in American literature. In poetic prose, Du Bois reveals the hurt and humiliation suffered by an intelligent, educated and sensitive Negro as a result of the oppression and injustices of American racism. Living and writing in the South at a time when the movement towards universal disfranchisement and legal segregation of the Negro was reaching its conclusion, and lynching was rampant throughout the region, Du Bois, in the first two of the fourteen essays that make up his book, criticized the policies of Reconstruction that failed to provide the economic and social basis for the franchise which would have allowed the Negro to protect his rights as a citizen. Here, at the dawn of the century, Du Bois warned: "The problem of the twentieth century is the problem of the color-line." However, Du Bois in 1903 was not the completely disillusioned and cynical Marxist of his later years. Instead of despair, he voiced hope for the triumph of the basic democratic and humanitarian principles which America has historically proclaimed. Typically American, he regarded education as the key to the advancement of a people. In the essays "Of Mr. Booker T. Washington and Others" and "Of the Training of Black Men," he leveled an attack that is devastating in its rationalism on the educational philosophy of Booker T. Washington and argued that liberal education which feeds the Negro with the spirit of freedom and allows him to develop his talents to the fullest is the sure road to racial peace and a strong America.

The casual reader of today might find the Du Bois who speaks in The Souls of Black Folk to be a moderate, but in 1903, and throughout his life, he was far in advance of American thought on racial issues. The Southern press condemned the book as the wildest radicalism and dangerous for Negroes to read. In fact, the book was a call to Negroes for action in creating a better America. Shortly after its publication, Du Bois was helping to form the Niagara Movement, the forerunner of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People of which he was a prominent leader and spokesman for many years.

*Dumond, Dwight Lowell. ANTI-SLAVERY: THE CRUSADE FOR FREEDOM IN AMERICA. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1961, \$20.00.

This monumental study by one of the foremost scholars of abolitionism traces the anti-slavery movement from its beginnings in colonial America. It is an encyclopedia of facts; every phase and function of the movement are treated in detail and many long neglected anti-slavery leaders are discussed. More attention is given to Negro leaders than in any other general treatment of the movement. While the book is scholarly, it is a vivid and sympathetic account that reflects the author's love of freedom. The handsome and voluminous illustrations alone are worth the price of the book.

*Elkins, Stanley M. A PROBLEM IN AMERICAN INSTITUTIONAL AND INTELLECTUAL LIFE. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959, \$5.00.

Blending the methods and materials of history, economic, anthropology and social psychology, this book presents a bold

analysis of the heretofore neglected institutional aspects of slavery. It is an exciting addition to American historiography, but its value can be appreciated only by the mature student. Maintaining that the institutional framework of slavery in the United States differed from that in other parts of the world, Elkins argues that this, not race, was the dominant factor in determining the personality of the American slave.

Egypt, Ophelia Settle, Masuoka, J. and Johnson, Charles S. Editors.
UNWRITTEN HISTORY OF SLAVERY: AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT OF NEGRO EX-SLAVES. Washington, D. C.: Microcard Editions, 1968.

This book contains the reminiscences of thirty-seven former slaves of their personal experiences on the eve of and during the Civil War. The interviews which produced the documents were conducted during 1929 and 1930 by Mrs. Ophelia Settle Egypt of the Research Staff of the Fisk University Social Science Institute. While the documents provide rare first-hand accounts of the institution of slavery by the victims of the institution, their value does not lie in their factual content or the accuracy in details of the reminiscences, but in the tone or general attitudes, sentiments and conduct of slaves that survived and defined race relations, particularly in the South, after the institution was abolished.

The documents will especially appeal to young people. They are moving accounts reflecting personal warmth and human interest. The introduction by the editors places and narratives in their historical and sociological settings.

*Franklin, John Hope. THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION. Garden City: Doubleday, 1963, \$3.50.

This is a concise and balanced history of the evolution in the mind of Lincoln of the Emancipation Proclamation and also an interpretation of its significance for contemporaries and future generations of Americans. From this book students will gain not only a better understanding of the Emancipation Proclamation and the forces that shaped it, but will also come to have a better understanding of what writing good history is all about.

*Franklin, John Hope. RECONSTRUCTION: AFTER THE CIVIL WAR. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1961, \$5.00.

In recent decades historians have been questioning older interpretations of Reconstruction and in their search for more valid answers they have produced a large number of revisionist studies that give a more favorable interpretation of the Radical Reconstruction governments in the South and of the role of the Negro during the period. Franklin's study, while it is also based on much careful original research, gives the best synthesis that has yet been published of the revisionist literature. Franklin concludes that the rule of the Radical governments was marked less by excesses and revolutionary change than by moderate liberalism, and that the Negro office holders as a group were competent and responsible leaders.

The book is brief, well-written, and provides easy reading. It emphasizes political rather than economic and social developments.

Frazier, E. Franklin. THE NEGRO FAMILY IN THE UNITED STATES. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966, \$6.00.

The problems arising from the instability of many Negro families were designated a "case for national action" in a highly controversial government report in 1965. Those who wish to approach these problems with scientific detachment and insight will find Frazier's study, done more than a quarter century earlier, an indispensable reference. The best indication of its lasting significance is that it has become a standard source for students of family organization in general. The author, for years professor at Howard University, was one of the foremost sociologists of his time and one of the most diligent students of Negro life in America.

In research extending over a period of nearly ten years, Frazier studied family organization among Negroes and produced this history of the various forms it has taken. Through the use of historical accounts he depicted the complete breakdown of the family which resulted from the transplantation of Negroes from Africa to America and under the circumstances of plantation life, following this with a description of the emergence of new family patterns following emancipation. Moving forward to the current scene he gathered a mass of sociological data on both parents and children to illustrate the conditions of family life when Negroes migrated to what he called "the city of destruction." He graphically described the difficulties of maintaining stable families in the face of the severe economic discrimination suffered by Negroes, particularly Negro men.

Frazier's delineation of the "matriarchal" family which frequently results from these circumstances has become the starting point for all future discussions. In many of these, however, the use of the concept has frequently been more stereotypic than scientific, and it will be well for the reader to heed what Ernest Burgess says of this study: "It explodes completely, and it may be hoped once and for all, the popular misconception of the uniformity of behavior among Negroes. It shows dramatically the wide variations in conduct and in family life by social classes and the still wider differences between individuals in attitudes, interests, ideas, and ideals. The first prerequisite in understanding the Negro, his family life, and his problems is the recognition of the basic fact that the Negro in America is a cultural and only secondarily a biological group and that his culture with all its variations is American and a product of his life in the United States."

This edition was revised and up-dated by Frazier before his untimely death and it contains a foreword by Nathan Glazer.

*Higginson, Thomas Wentworth. ARMY LIFE IN A BLACK REGIMENT. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1960, \$4.50.

This is the story of the First South Carolina Volunteers, the first regiment of former slaves to be mustered into the United States

Army in the Civil War. Higginson, a Massachusetts clergyman and dedicated abolitionist, took command of the unit as its colonel in 1862 and remained with it until 1864, when he was invalided home. His narrative of camp life and military engagements, much of it in diary form, is vividly written and aside from its interest to historians is considered to be a literary masterpiece. The regiment was formed in the Sea Islands of South Carolina and its missions took it into Georgia and Florida as well. While it was not engaged in any major battle, Higginson credits it, along with other Negro regiments of the Department of the South, with helping to insure the success of Sherman's march to the sea.

Higginson had the highest regard for his men, praising them as good soldiers and defending their interests in the face of the considerable body of Northern opinion which had been opposed to their enlistment. (The story of the part he played in the fight to secure equal pay for Negro soldiers is included in an appendix.) While some of his remarks seem patronizing today, their effects are offset by the admiration he displayed for the courage and intelligence shown by his men in escaping from enemy territory and while serving under fire. He was proud, too, that some of them later became prominent in politics during Reconstruction, though his optimism that this state of affairs would continue was not justified. Beyond its other merits, this book serves as an account of the life and folklore of the Sea Islands, whose people even today retain features of a once distinctive culture.

*Meier, August and Rudwick, Elliott M. FROM PLANTATION TO GHETTO: AN INTERPRETIVE HISTORY OF AMERICAN NEGROES. New York: Hill and Wang, 1966, \$5.75.

This book is an authoritative and sympathetic interpretation of the history of the Negro American with particular emphasis on ideologies and protest movements. While it does not give the encyclopedic details of Franklin's From Slavery to Freedom, it better conveys the human aspects of Negro history and more vividly describes what slavery and racial discrimination have meant to the individual and group. Students will find it exciting and easy reading.

Metcalf, George R. BLACK PROFILES. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1968, \$6.95.

This book might have been entitled "Black Profiles in Courage." It includes brief, but penetrating, biographies of eleven Negro pioneers, who have demonstrated leadership and courage in the Negro's struggle for freedom and equality. The subjects for the biographies are Martin Luther King, William E. B. Du Bois, Roy Wilkins, Thurgood Marshall, Jackie Robinson, Harriet Tubman, Medgar Wiley Evers, James Meredith, Rosa Parks, Edward W. Brooke, and Whitney Young, Jr. The list of Negroes who have demonstrated similar courage and determination in the fight for freedom could be extended indefinitely. In fact, for a Negro to survive and retain his integrity in America is an act of courage. Thus one cannot question the inclusion of these eleven courageous men and women, but one might question why many others were

not included by the author. But while the number of persons treated is limited, the book is very well written and American young people, black and white, will find the eleven studies inspiring and informative.

*Myrdal, Gunnar. AN AMERICAN DILEMMA: THE NEGRO PROBLEM AND MODERN DEMOCRACY. Revised Edition. New York: Harper and Row, 1962, \$16.50.

Of all the books ever written on the position of the Negroes in American Society, An American Dilemma has undoubtedly been the most comprehensive and significant. Its significance rests in part on the fact that it was published during World War II, at one of the most crucial times in American history, and just prior to a period in which profound changes were to take place in American race relations. Its exhaustive treatment of the subject has been indispensable ever since, as a base line against which these changes can be measured, studied and analyzed. But its importance goes much deeper. When it appeared, it was widely read, reviewed, and acclaimed, and quickly became part of the social and intellectual history of the time, to the extent that it came to influence some of the very changes it foretold.

The unifying theme of the book around which the mass of data is organized is that there is a deep and continuing conflict between the moral valuations of what Myrdal calls the "American Creed" and the nation's treatment of its Negro citizens "who do not by far have anything approaching a tenth of the things worth having in America." This is the dilemma referred to, and it locates the "Negro problem" essentially in the minds of white Americans, saying in effect that no changes in race relations can come without corresponding changes in the thinking of white people.

This twentieth anniversary edition contains a new preface written by Myrdal and a postscript by Arnold Rose, one of Myrdal's closest assistants, which reviews developments since the study was first published.

Quarles, Benjamin. THE NEGRO IN THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1961, \$6.00.

Although the Negro was used in the American Revolution only when the "pressure of expediency made it absolutely necessary," he made a significant contribution both in number and by his bravery in America's struggle for independence. It is clear from this study that the Negro's desire for his own freedom to a large extent motivated his action, whether he served the Americans or British.

This book is representative of the best in historical writing based on exacting and detailed research which is judiciously presented.

Quarles, Benjamin. THE NEGRO IN THE CIVIL WAR. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1953, \$10.00.

This book deals with Negroes, both North and South, on the home front as well as in military service during the Civil War. As true in

previous wars, the Negro was anxious to get into the fight but was forced to wait until it was not only militarily but also politically expedient. However, before the war's end, more than 180,000 Negro troops had served in the Union Army.

The Negro troops were discriminated against in pay, equipment, and assignment, and were often thrown into battle inadequately trained and armed. However, their devotion to freedom and determination frequently brought honor and respect.

In addition to serving as soldiers, Negroes made contributions to the war effort as spies, scouts and nurses, and they, of course, worked on the home front in factories, on farms and in military construction. Meanwhile, their leaders were agitating for recognition of their rights as free men.

This is a well written and balanced study, based on painstaking research. It completely demolishes the myth that the Negro did not contribute to the war for his freedom.

*Rose, Willie Lee Nichols. **REHEARSAL FOR RECONSTRUCTION: THE PORT ROYAL EXPERIMENT.** With an introduction by C. Vann Woodward. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1964, \$6.50.

When the Union Army captured the Sea Islands off South Carolina and the planters fled, the military, civil government, businessmen, educators, missionaries and other philanthropists tried out various plans for the economic, social and political development of the former slaves. This excellent study is not only a description of what was done, but it also documents the betrayal of the Negro by his liberators.

This book won the Allan Nevins Award of the Society of American Historians and has been universally praised by scholars of the Reconstruction period.

*Walker, David. **DAVID WALKER'S APPEAL.** New York: Hill and Wang, 1965, \$3.00.

David Walker (1795-1830) was born in North Carolina of a slave father and a free mother. He developed an intense hatred of slavery, left the South, and after extensive travels in the United States settled in Boston in the 1820's where he operated a second-hand clothing store. This pamphlet, which he published at his own expense in 1829, was proclaimed in the North and the South to be incendiary. Even Benjamin Lundy and William Lloyd Garrison criticised its inflammatory nature. The four articles--(1) "Our Wretchedness in Consequence of Slavery," (2) "Our Wretchedness in Consequence of Ignorance," (3) "Our Wretchedness in Consequence of the Preachers of the Religion of Jesus Christ," and (4) "Our Wretchedness in Consequence of the Colonizing Plan"--were an appeal to the slave to revolt and to the free Negro, not only to come to the aid of the slave, but to join together in an all-out fight against racial discrimination.

Walker circulated the pamphlet widely and managed to get many copies into the South, which influenced state legislatures to pass laws against the circulation of such seditious literature. Walker died under mysterious circumstances--he was probably murdered--in 1830. Meanwhile, his appeal had gone through three editions. The historical significance of the pamphlet is that it marks the transition from the anti-slavery movement which advocated gradualism to abolitionist crusades based on the demand for immediate emancipation. The reader will gain insight into the frustrations and aspirations of the Negro that have influenced the "civil rights revolution" of our time.

*Washington, Booker T. UP FROM SLAVERY. New York: Dodi, \$3.95.

Booker T. Washington (1856-1915) was born into slavery in Virginia. Soon after emancipation, his family moved to West Virginia where he grew up, working at odd jobs and managing to get a rudimentary education. He entered Hampton Institute in 1872. After graduating from Hampton he went out to teach school, but soon returned to serve as secretary to Hampton's Samuel Chapman Armstrong. Armstrong responded to a request from some Alabama citizens, in 1881, by sending Washington to Tuskegee to establish a normal school for Negroes. The school opened that year with forty students in a dilapidated building. By 1915, Washington had built Tuskegee Institute into a school with 1,537 students and 197 faculty members who taught 38 trades and professions. The Institute had 200 buildings, endowments of nearly \$2,000,000 and an annual budget of \$290,000. During the last decade of the nineteenth century and until his death, Booker T. Washington was the most influential Negro in America, respected by both Negroes and whites, Southerners and Northerners. However, there was a significant group of Negro intellectuals, of whom W. E. B. Du Bois was the most prominent, who attacked his educational philosophy and what they regarded as his accommodations to racial segregation and the white man's concept of the status the Negro should occupy in American life.

This book is more than Washington's autobiography, it is also the history of the Negro from slavery to the turn of the century and a statement of Washington's philosophy of education.

II-B SUPPLEMENTARY BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR
CIVICS, GOVERNMENT AND PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY

As the heading of this section suggests, the following books are recommended to supplement the materials listed in the bibliographies for teacher and student. The latter represent the core of material that, in the opinion of the Center staff, should be in every good library. Those supplementary titles, and others reviewed by the school staff, might then be added as interests expand and funds permit.

1. Bennett, Lerone. **WHAT MANNER OF MAN: A BIOGRAPHY OF MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR.** Chicago: Johnson Publishing Co., 1964.
2. Brink, William and Louis Harris. **THE NEGRO REVOLUTION IN AMERICA.** New York: Simon & Shuster, 1964.
3. Clark, Kenneth B. **DARK GHETTO: DILEMMAS OF SOCIAL POWER.** New York: Harper and Row, 1965.
4. Clark, Kenneth B. **PREJUDICE AND YOUR CHILD.** Boston: Beacon Press, 1955.
5. Killian, Lewis M. **THE IMPOSSIBLE REVOLUTION.** New York: Random House, 1968.
6. King, Martin Luther. **STRIDE TOWARD FREEDOM.** New York: Harper, 1958.
7. Lincoln, J. Eric. **THE BLACK MUSLIMS IN AMERICA.** Boston: Beacon Press, 1961.
8. Lomax, Louis E. **THE NEGRO REVOLT.** New York: Harper, 1962.
9. Marshall, Burke. **FEDERALISM AND CIVIL RIGHTS.** New York: Columbia University Press, 1964.
10. **THE NEGRO AMERICAN**, edited and with an introduction by Talcott Parsons and Kenneth Clark. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.
11. Pettigrew, Thomas F. **A PROFILE OF THE NEGRO AMERICAN.** Princeton: Van Nostrand, 1964.
12. Silver, James W. **MISSISSIPPI: THE CLOSED SOCIETY.** New enlarged ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1966.
13. Taper, Bernard. **GOMILLION VERSUS LIGHTFOOT: THE TUSKEGEE GERRYMANDER CASE.** New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.
14. Thompson, Daniel C. **THE NEGRO LEADERSHIP CLASS.** Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.
15. Wilson, James Q. **NEGRO POLITICS: THE SEARCH FOR LEADERSHIP.** New York: Free Press of Macmillan, 1960.

III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS

- A. American History
2. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS
 - a. Movies and Filmstrips

HARRIET TUBMAN AND THE UNDERGROUND RAILROAD from CBS "Great Adventure" Series (Teacher's Guide included.)

16 mm/2-27 minute reels/B/W
McGraw-Hill Text-films
330 West 42nd Street
New York, New York 10036

The film's effectiveness is due in part to an unusually fine cast including Ruby Dee, Ossie Davis and Brock Peters. It provides little information about slave life on a plantation or about escaped slaves' difficulties in the North (especially with the Fugitive Slave Laws). But the movie gives some picture of measures taken in the South to control, retain and market slaves, and an excellent portrayal of the underground railroad in operation during the 1850's. In addition, it is an exciting commentary on a fascinating character.

A HISTORY OF THE NEGRO IN AMERICA--1619-1860: OUT OF SLAVERY

16 mm/20 minutes/B/W
McGraw-Hill Text-films
330 West 42nd Street
New York, New York 10036

The movie has the merits of a consistently skillful use of old pictures and occasional emphasis of aspects of Negro history that have been suppressed in most texts (e.g., the diversity of skills possessed by slaves and their resistance-revolt-rebellion against slavery). But its demerits are also considerable. It is sketchy, covering 241 years of history in 20 minutes. And it omits or distorts some Negro history (e.g., it implies that white Europeans introduced slavery into Africa and that chattel slavery appeared in America fully developed in 1619).

Commentators generally agree that the three films in this series are less effective than the McGraw-Hill filmstrip series on the Negro American. See below under "materials not yet previewed."

THE INHERITANCE

written by Mill and Campbell, directed by Harold Wrayner, guide included.

16 mm/60 minutes/B/W
Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith

One of those rare films that is both technically excellent and historically insightful, THE INHERITANCE portrays the immigration of Europeans to America in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, their struggle to improve their new life (especially

through unionization) and resistance to their efforts. The use of contemporary materials, including photos, newsreels, letters, journals and songs (all skillfully presented) allows the film to convey a vivid sense of the immigrants' struggle, including the slow progress and many set-backs.

The only explicit reference to the Negro occurs at the conclusion to the film, where the narrator suggests a relation between unionization efforts and the fight for civil rights. The failure to deal with racial discrimination by the unions is the major deficiency of the film, but even that omission could be profitably used in a discussion of the movie.

A NATION OF IMMIGRANTS

16 mm/52 minutes/B/W
Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith

The film does not deal with Negroes, but focuses on European immigrants, including their reasons for immigration to the U. S., reception here (an excellent sequence on Ellis Island) and contributions to democracy. Over emphasis on the "they-made-America-great" theme keeps this documentary from being first-rate, but it has many well-done parts that would make it useful in a comparative unit on minority groups.

THE NEGRO IN U. S. HISTORY (with script)

35 mm filmstrip/50 frames/color
Scholastic Filmstrips
906 Sylvan Avenue
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

No single filmstrip of usual length could possibly do justice to the Negro in America. Even so, this effort by Scholastic is surprisingly good. With very little distortion, the filmstrip presents crucial information on the Negro, using old pictures and maps well, and including biography only as illustrative of general assertions. If a teacher wishes to begin a unit with an overview of Negro history this could be an effective aid.

The following films have not yet been previewed for the packet but have been recommended to the Center and so are called to your attention. Comments or distributors' descriptions are included where available.

AMERICANS FROM AFRICA: A HISTORY

is the title of a thirty program education television series prepared by the Central Virginia Educational Television Corporation of Richmond, Virginia. The series will be nationally available through the Great Plains National Instructional Television Library of the University of Nebraska.

THE HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO

8-35 mm filmstrips/40 frames each/color and B/W
McGraw-Hill Text-films
330 West 42nd Street
New York, New York 10036

According to W. L. Katz, in **TEACHER'S GUIDE TO AMERICAN NEGRO HISTORY**, this is "the most complete visual aid produced on this subject, and in organization, clarity, and exciting content far surpassing most filmstrips of any kind." The eight filmstrips cover the entire period of Negro history from African enslavement to the present. The whole series probably should be previewed by the teacher and relevant strips (or frames) selected for the study of particular periods.

FREDERICK DOUGLASS, from the Profiles in Courage Series

16 mm/2-25 minute reels/B/W
I. Q. Films, Inc.
689 5th Avenue
New York, New York 10022

THE NEGRO SOLDIER

16 mm filmstrip
Army Signal Corps
Washington, D. C.

III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS

- A. American History
2. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS
 - b. Records and Tapes

ANTHOLOGY OF NEGRO POETS

Folkways/Scholastic 9791; 1-12" LP; \$5.79. Edited by Arna Bontemps, with poems and readings by Langston Hughes, Sterling Brown, Claude McKay, Countee Cullen, Margaret Walker and Gwendolyn Brooks.

The selection of poems from major Negro poets is varied and includes many that would be useful for social studies work. Brown and Walker give excellent readings; the others are mediocre or worse.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF FREDERICK DOUGLASS

Folkways/Scholastic 5522; 1-12" LP; \$5.79, Edited by Philip Foner and read by Ossie Davis, with transcript included.

The recorded portions of Douglass' autobiography deal with his childhood in slavery, escape, adjustments to freedom and developing commitment to the abolitionist movement. But the record is more than a personal account. Frederick Douglass was a keen observer of his times and offers insights into the effect of the slave institution on the character of Southerners (black and white), the Jim Crow system in the North and the violent resistance to the abolitionists. The recording could be used alone as "illustrative" material, but would be especially profitable if used in combination with other contemporary commentaries on the pre-Civil War period.

THE FISK JUBILEE SINGERS

Folkways/Scholastic 2372; 1-12" LP; \$5.79. Directed by John W. Work with transcript of lyrics included.

In 1871 the Fisk Jubilee Singers introduced Negro spirituals to the American public as a serious musical form. On this recording, the institutional descendants of the Singers continue the tradition of sophisticated choral performance of the old Negro folk music. The teacher could profitably select several pieces for emphasis and supplement with additional information on the function of spirituals in the slave culture. For one of the earliest published treatments, see chapter 9 in T. W. Higginson, *ARMY LIFE IN A BLACK REGIMENT*, P. F. Collier, Inc., New York: 1962, \$3.95. For more detail see Fisher, *NEGRO SLAVE SONGS IN THE UNITED STATES*, New York: 1953.

THE FOLK BOX, The Electra Corporation; 4-12; LP; lyrics and notes included, \$9.96.

These recordings contain a wealth of comparative material from most racial and ethnic groups in America.

For extensive material in special areas, especially jazz, see:

JAZZ

Folkways/Scholastic 2801-2811; 11-12" LPs; \$5.79 each.

THE GOLDEN ERA SERIES

Columbia re-issues of hard-to-get recordings of older musical artist.

NEW ORLEANS: THE LIVING LEGENDS

Riverside recordings of traditional jazz as played today. Bill Grauer Productions, Inc.; 235 West 46th Street, New York, New York 10036.

VINTAGE SERIES

RCA Victor re-issues of hard-to-get recordings of great personalities from popular, jazz and folk music worlds.

IN WHITE AMERICA

Columbia KOL 6030; 1-12" LP; \$3.55. Written and edited by Martin Dubermann; performed by the original Broadway cast.

Mr. Dubermann's two-act play is a carefully selected collection of historical documents (of all types) on the Negro in America and white reaction to him, from 1619 to the present. When performed by the Broadway cast, the documents become real drama, with a hard, unsentimental impact. Without any doubt this is the best single recording on Negro history. It could be used to introduce a unit (overview) or as an aid for study in specific areas (e.g., slavery).

For a less effective treatment of many of the same sources, tied together by a historical narrative, see *THE GLORY OF NEGRO HISTORY*, (Folkways/Scholastic 7752; 1-12" LP; \$5.79), written and narrated by Langston Hughes.

MISSA LUBA

Philips PCC206; 1-12" LP; performed by Les Troubadours du Roi Baudouin.

In addition to native songs of the Congo, the Congolese boys choir performs a mass in "pure Congolese style." Though notes included, words of songs are not translated. The record is nevertheless a good device for presenting an impression of a part of the "African background," especially with students who are familiar with the traditional Western mass.

NEGRO FOLK MUSIC OF AFRICA AND AMERICA

Folkways/Scholastic 4500; 2-12" LPs, \$11.58. Edited by Harold Courlander, with a forward by R. A. Waterman.

Mr. Courlander has successfully included in this album examples of "pure" ethnic music from a wide variety of cultures in Africa and the Americas. The recordings are especially useful for a comparative study of African retentions within various American slave systems. Selections could, of course, be used for concentration on the Negro in North America. Waterman's very helpful notes should be supplemented with maps and pictures of the relevant musical instruments. For a recording that concentrates on West Africa, see *AFRICAN TRIBAL MUSIC AND DANCE*, Counterpoint CPT-513; 1-12" LP; performed by Sonor Senghor and his Troupe.

THE STORY OF JAZZ

Folkways/Scholastic 7312; 1-10" LP; written and narrated by Langston Hughes, with documentary recordings, \$4.15.

Hughes' story includes both a narrative of the chronological development of various jazz forms (up to 1950) and an attempt to analyze the musical peculiarities of those forms. Although aimed at children, the recording could be used with junior high students, especially if supplemented with readings or other listenings. It also provides a good format for any teacher who wants to create a more extensive (hopefully updated) treatment of "the story of jazz."

SONGS OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO SLAVES

Folkways/Scholastic 5252; 1-12" LP' sung by Michel Larue (un-accompanied), with a note on Negro songs by J. H. Franklin and an introduction by R. Knight. Transcript of lyrics included.

The recording includes thirty songs, all of which could be profitably used in a study of slavery, especially if lyrics were distributed to students and songs were studied in conjunction with other primary sources (e.g., ex-slave journals). Larue's voice is excellent, and the absence of accompaniment allows the drama of the songs themselves to come through. Franklin's notes provide a good, though too brief, introduction to the songs.

The following recordings have not yet been previewed, but their descriptions sound promising:

FOIK TALES FROM WEST AFRICA

Folkways/Scholastic 7103; 1-10" LP; \$4.15.

ASHANTI FOIK TALES FROM GHANA

Folkways/Scholastic 7110; 1-10" LP; \$4.15.

NEGRO FOIK SONGS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

Folkways/Scholastic 7533; 1-12" LP; \$5.79.

NEGRO PRISON CAMP WORK SONGS

Folkways/Scholastic 4475; 1-12" LP; \$6.79.

SONGS OF THE CIVIL WAR

Folkways/Scholastic 5717; 2-12" LP; \$11.58.

BORN TO LIVE

Folkways/Scholastic 5525; 1-12" LP' \$5.79.

THE NEGRO PEOPLE THROUGH THEIR SONGS AND BALLADS

Heirloom Records, Brookhaven, New York, script on request, \$4.98.

JOHN BROWN'S INTERROGATION

Lincoln Filene Center
Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

- III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS
- a. American History
 2. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS
 - c. Photos, Document Reproductions and Maps
 - (1) AFRICA.

..AFRICA HERITAGE CHART

London: Pictorial Charts Educational Trust, available from Social Studies School Service, 4455 Lennox Blvd., Inglewood, California 90304, \$1.95.

This map is a bit overcrowded with information, but is still useful. The chart includes a helpful time-line.

NIGERIAN IMAGES: THE SPLENDOR OF AFRICAN SCULPTURE

Fagg, W. and H. List, New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1963.

The book includes excellent photographs of older sculpture from various Nigerian groups, including the extraordinary bronzes of Benin.

Fisk University Art Slide Units

Division of Cultural Research, Department of Art, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee 37203. Available January 1, 1969.

As now planned, selected slides of works by Black artists will be grouped into two units. The first will include African art. The second will be devoted to art by 20th century Negro Americans. Write directly to the Division for description and price.

THE HISTORY OF AFRICA IN MAPS

Gailey, Harry A. Jr., Chicago: Denoyer-Geppert Co., 1967, \$2.45.

Approximately half of this 96 page book is devoted to full-page, 8½ x 11 maps on virtually every conceivable topic of African geography and history. A brief (half-page) text accompanies each map. The book's only short-coming is its failure to utilize multi-color techniques: all maps are in black and white.

For information on wall maps of Africa and other study guides, ask Denoyer-Geppert for their circular on "Maps and Atlases of Africa."

NEGRO HISTORY AND CULTURE: SELECTED MATERIALS FOR USE WITH CHILDREN

Chicago City Missionary Society, 19 South LaSalle, Chicago, Illinois 60603, \$.75.

The nine black and white maps of Africa included in the booklet deal with population distribution, geography, size, climate, the three West African Kingdoms, European domination and African political divisions today.

Scotfield, John. "Freedom Speaks French in Ouaga dou gou," in National Geographic, vol. 130, no. 2 (August, 1966)

The region described in the article was the homeland of most of the Africans who were enslaved for labor in North America. The article itself is sketchy and suffers from the author's tendency to equate western industrialization and civilization. But the photography is excellent and might be profitably used to portray the cultural variety within West Africa, both past and present. Included with the issue was a map supplement, "Northwestern Africa," which can be obtained separately for \$.50 from:

National Geographic Society
Department 337
Washington, D. C. 20036

Check the magazine's yearly index for other relevant material.

Not yet previewed for the packet, but included in B. K. Boyer's selective bibliography on Africa is A. M. Healy and E. R. Vere-Hodge, **THE MAP APPROACH TO AFRICAN HISTORY**, third edition, University Tutorial Press Ltd., Clifton House, Easton Road, London, N. W. 1, \$.65.

WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA

Chicago: Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, 1968.

The latest edition includes separate multi-color maps for each topic (e.g., climate, political organization, etc.)

(2) UNITED STATES

EYEWITNESS: THE NEGRO IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Katz, William L., New York: Pitman Publishing Company, 1967,
\$4.95.

This book of documents contains pictures of individuals and events. Many are too small for classroom use, but some might be used with an opaque projector.

ANTI-SLAVERY: THE CRUSADE FOR FREEDOM IN AMERICA

Dumond, Dwight Lowell, Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1961.

This volume is expensive for a good reason: it gives much space to clear, large reproductions of lithographs, photos and documents on slavery. Enough varied materials are included that an "inquiry" unit on slavery could be constructed from this book alone (with the aid of an opaque projector).

Fisk University Art Slide Units
(see above, under "Africa")

HISTORIC NEW YORK TIMES FRONT PAGES

Box 557, New York, New York 10036, \$100.

Relevant front pages include the days of the Dred Scott decision, the Emancipation Proclamation, the abolition of slavery, the Supreme Court ban on school segregation, federal troops in Little Rock, Dr. King's assassination, etc. Request front pages for dates you consider crucial in American history since 1851.

IN THEIR OWN WORDS: A HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO
Vol. I, edited by Milton Maltzer, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell
Co., 1964, \$1.45.

Maltzer's excellent book of documents includes many reproductions of pictures and documents. Volume I (1619-1865) concentrates on slavery in North America, volume II on the period 1865-1916, and volume III on the years since World War I.

LAY MY BURDEN DOWN: A FOLK HISTORY OF SLAVERY
edited by S. A. Botkin, Chicago: The University of Chicago
Press, 1945, \$1.95.

The book includes photographs of the ex-slaves who tell about the earlier days in bondage.

PIONEER HISTORICAL SOCIETY
Harriman, Tennessee 37748

The SOCIETY specializes in reproductions of American posters, handbills, signs, etc., including slave auction notices, reward posters for runaway slaves, and civil war recruiting handbills. The reproductions are large enough for bulletin board use and in many cases contain the kind of information useful for "inquiry" units. Write directly to the Society for a complete listing of available materials, with prices.

SNCC Calendar
The Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee, 360 Nelson Street
S. W., Atlanta, Georgia 30313.

Produced yearly by SNCC., the calendar includes large photos of Negro life in America and information on crucial dates in Black history. For a more conventional calendar write for either Calendar: Pictures and Important Dates in Negro History, Educational Heritage, Inc., 733 Yonkers Avenue, Yonkers, New York, or Negro Progress. Calendar Digest: 1968, 1970, North Carolina Mutual Life Insurance Company, Mutual Plaza, Durham, North Carolina 27701. The latter has a very useful "time scale" of Negro history, but its photos are stilted, posed re-enactments of historical events.

TWENTIETH CENTURY AMERICANS OF NEGRO LINEAGE
Friendship Press, 475 Riverside Drive, New York, New York 10027.

This collection of good quality, 11' x 14' prints includes twenty-four prominent 20th Century Negroes. It is, however, biased toward the "acceptable" Negro, excluding men like Marcus Garvey and Malcolm X.

The following have not yet been previewed for the packet, but have been recommended to the Center staff:

THE SLAVE TRADE AND ITS ABOLITION
Jackdaw Contemporary Documents Kit JD 6, available from Social
Studies School Service, 4455 Lennox Blvd., Inglewood, California
90304, \$1.95.

A PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE NEGRO IN AMERICA.
Langston Hughes and Milton Seltzer, New York: Crown, 1961,
revised edition.

W. L. Katz, in Teacher's Guide to American Negro History, calls
this "the best available picture history of the Negro American and
an invaluable classroom tool."

III RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS

B. Civics, Government and Problems of Democracy

1. BOOKS AND PERIODICALS

The problem of finding material appropriate to the lower secondary grade levels is perhaps more acute here than anywhere else in the packet, for the most part, the books and periodicals listed below can be read by conscientious juniors and seniors and accelerated junior high students. In a few cases (i.e., BLACK LIKE ME, WHAT'S HAPPENING, IN THEIR OWN WORDS and the Quigley CIVICS CASEBOOK), junior high students will be able to utilize the material without difficulty. Other material could be adapted by the teacher for use with junior high students if time permits.

a. Race and Prejudice

Racial prejudice has long been a general issue dealt with in most courses on Problems of Democracy, so available resources are familiar to most teachers. A good and brief general treatment of race is Ruth Benedict and Gene Weltfish, THE RACES OF MANKIND (Public Affairs pamphlet No. 85). On prejudice, see Peter I. Rose, THEY AND WE. New York: Random House, 1964, \$1.95. In addition to other materials on the Negro in this list, two other sources are especially good for stimulating discussion: John H. Griffin, BLACK LIKE ME, (P2709) pap. \$1.60. (New Am. Lib.) and Lillian Smith, KILLERS OF THE DREAM, pap. \$1.25, Doubleday.

b. Negro Perspectives

NEGRO VIEWS OF AMERICA, Columbus, Ohio: American Education Publications, 1968, \$.25. The AEP Unit Books are, in general, excellent educational ventures. The booklet on Negro views is no exception. Through well-chosen excerpts of Negro comments on America, the unit aids the student in his effort to understand what it has meant to be black in this country. Information on that booklet and the rest of the Public Issues Series can be obtained from American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, Ohio 43216.

The unit might be supplemented with some of the materials listed in the comments on the Kerner Commission Report (below) or with James Baldwin, NOBODY KNOWS MY NAME, New York: Dell Press, pap. \$1.65, or THE FIRE NEXT TIME, Delta Press, 1963, pap. \$.50; Martin Luther King, Jr., WHY WE CAN'T WAIT, New York: New American Library, Inc.; Signet Books, 1964, \$.60, or Malcolm X, MALCOLM X SPEAKS, NEW YORK: Grove Press, 1965, \$.95. Recordings are available of speeches by all three men (see A-V section below), but would be especially appropriate with the orators, Dr. King and Malcolm. Students who want to share the thoughts of ghetto teenagers should see WHAT'S HAPPENING: AN INDEPENDENT STUDENT VOICE, a bi-monthly magazine published by a group of New York City teenagers. For back issues (\$.50) and subscriptions (\$2/year) write WHAT'S HAPPENING, 253 Macy Annex, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027. Good comparative material is available in the AEP unit on immigration: THE IMMIGRANT'S EXPERIENCE.

c. Life-conditions

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON CIVIL DISORDERS, New York: Dutton Books, 1968, \$1.25. For use with students, see the thirty page summary (pp. 1-30), which is available separately from many organizations, including the Southern Regional Council, Inc., 5 Forsyth Street, N.W., Atlanta, Georgia 30303, (\$.10 each for ten or more copies).

A more restricted study of life-conditions in THE NEGRO FAMILY: THE CASE FOR NATIONAL ACTION, Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965, \$.45. For information on the controversy over this document, see Leo Rainwater and William Yancy, THE POLITICS OF CONTROVERSY, Cambridge: M. I. T. Press, 1967, \$3.95.

Conditions in particular communities can be studied from a variety of sources. The Sept. 26, 1966 issue of THE NEW LEADER, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10010, is devoted to the testimony of Claude Brown (author of MANCHILD IN THE PROMISED LAND and Ralph Ellison's novel is itself a good source for such study, as are James Baldwin, GO TELL IT ON THE MOUNTAIN, Dell Press, \$.60, and Richard Wright, NATIVE SON, New York: New American Library, 1940, \$.75. Sharply contrasting perspectives can be gained from Lorraine Hansberry's play, RAISIN IN THE SUN, Random House, \$1.95, and Malcolm X, THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF MALCOLM X, New York: Grove Press, 1964, \$1.25. The movie version of RAISIN IN THE SUN (Brandon International Films) is excellent.

The U. S. Commission on Civil Rights has published excerpts from testimony before the Commission under the title, A TIME TO LISTEN . . . A TIME TO ACT: VOICES FROM THE GHETTOS OF THE NATIONS' CITIES Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967. Finally, the Southern Regional Council has published reports on the situation in Memphis, both before and after Dr. King's assassination. See J. Edwin Stanfield, IN MEMPHIS: MORE THAN A GARBAGE STRIKE, IN MEMPHIS: TRAGEDY UNAVERTED and IN MEMPHIS: MIRROR TO AMERICA? Write to Southern Regional Council, Inc., 5 Forsyth Street, N. W., Atlanta, Georgia 30303 for a listing of other relevant publications and prices.

For a statement that puts many problems of the ghetto in a larger context, see Michael Harrington, THE OTHER AMERICA (S223), Penguin Books, Inc., Baltimore: pap. \$.95. A comparative study of the conditions and their effects might utilize William Foote Whyte, Street Corner Society Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943, \$2.95 and Lewis, Oscar, LA VIDA, New York: Random House, 1966, \$2.95. Relevant sections of LA VIDA were published as articles in Harper's: "Mother and Son in a Puerto Rican Slum" (December, 1965) and "Felicitia" (January, 1966).

d. Political Action

Berman, Daniel M. A BILL BECOMES A LAW: THE CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1960, New York: The MacMillan Co., 1962, \$1.95.

This case study is valuable as a portrayal of power at work in Congress and as background to the 1964 and 1965 acts. See also two other relevant Congressional case studies: H. E. Thuman, "Senate Rules and the Civil Rights Bill: A Case Study" (the 1957 act) in LEGISLATIVE POLITICS U. S. A., 2nd ed., edited by T. J. Levi, Boston: Little Brown and Co., 1965, \$1.95, and H. O. Price, "Race, Religion, and the Rules Committee: the Kennedy All-to Education Bills," in THE USES OF POWER, edited by Alan F. Westin, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962, \$2.95.

BLACK PROTEST: 1619 TO THE PRESENT, edited by Joanne Grant, Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1968, \$2.95. Over half of this collection of documents and analyses is devoted to the post-1954 period, with excellent selections on community action, both South and North. No other single source will provide the student with so much pertinent material on Negro protest movements. Other relevant documents will be found in IN THEIR OWN WORDS: A HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO, vol. III (1916-1966), edited by Milton Meltzer, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1967, \$1.45.

For a brief comparison with labor organizing activity, the teacher might use THE RISE OF ORGANIZED LABOR, Columbus, Ohio: American Education Publications, 1968, \$.30.

LEADERSHIP IN AMERICAN SOCIETY: A CASE STUDY OF NEGRO LEADERSHIP, (Available from Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools, 503 First National Building, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48108) \$1.

The American Sociological Association established the "Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools" project in order to acquaint the high school student with the sociological perspective. The material on Negro leadership has historical depth and contemporary balance in the figures selected for study; it might be a good beginning point for an analysis of Negro political action.

Other material on a variety of kinds of Negro political action can be found in BLACK PROTEST (see above). In addition, see James Q. Wilson's article on William L. Dawson and Adam Clayton Powell, TWO NEGRO POLITICIANS: AN INTERPRETATION, (available as a reprint from Bobbs-Merrill Co., 4300 West 62nd Street, Indianapolis, Indiana, \$.25, and Charles Silberman's article on THE WOODLAWN ORGANIZATION (available as a reprint from COMMENTARY Magazine, 165 East 56th St. New York, New York 10022, \$.50.

Lubell, Samuel. THE FUTURE OF AMERICAN POLITICS, 3rd edition, rev. New York: Harper and Row, 1965, \$1.95.

The noted pollster's analysis of the American political system includes chapters on "The Civil Rights Melting Pot" and "The Conservative Revolution" (the South). For advanced students it is an excellent aid in a comparative study of ethnicity and race in American politics.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION: A REPORT OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSION ON CIVIL RIGHTS, 1968, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1968, \$.75.

See especially Part I "History of Negro Political Participation" and Part II ("Progress under the Voting Rights Act of 1965").

REVOLUTION IN CIVIL RIGHTS, 4th Edition (June, 1968) \$2.50. Available from Congressional Quarterly Service, Education Department, 1735 K Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20006. Also of interest may be: Representation and Apportionment, August, 1966, \$2.50, FEDERAL ROLE IN EDUCATION, April, 1967, \$2.50, FALL 1968 GUIDE TO CURRENT AMERICAN GOVERNMENT, \$2.50, SPRING 1969 GUIDE TO CURRENT AMERICAN GOVERNMENT, available January, 1969, \$2.50.

U. S. Supreme Court Reports

The decisions and opinions of the Supreme Court have played an important and prominent role in race relations since DRED SCOTT VS. SANFORD (1857). Much can be learned about that role by contrasting the two best-known court cases in the area of race: PLESSY VS. FERGUSON (1896) and BROWN VS. THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF TOPEKA, KANSAS (1954). Case background for those and other decisions on race include DRED SCOTT VS. SANFORD (1857), the SLAUGHTER HOUSES CASES (1883) and especially the CIVIL RIGHTS CASES (1883). Crucial contemporary cases include BROWN on education (see above), HEART OF ATLANTA MOTEL, INC. VS. U. S. et al. (1964) on public accommodations, EDWARDS VS. SOUTH CAROLINA (1963) on freedom of speech, SHELLY VS KRAEMER (1948) on restrictive covenants in housing, and SMITH VS. ALLWRIGHT (1944) on primary elections.

Copies of the U. S. SUPREME COURT REPORTS, the official publication of court decisions and opinions, will probably not be available in most secondary school libraries. Joseph Tussman has reprinted most of the important cases up to 1963 in THE SUPREME COURT ON RACIAL DISCRIMINATION, New York: Oxford University Press, 1963, \$1.93. Many opinions have been published individually by Chandler Publishing Co., San Francisco, Calif. 94105 (write for a complete listing). The JUDGMENT series of the magazine SOCIAL EDUCATION at present includes only one decision involving race ("Poll Tax As Voting Requirement"), but the series is the best single-case publication for secondary school students and should be watched for future relevant material. Further information can be obtained from Civic Education Service, 1733 K. Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20006. On the decisions regarding race and education, including two of the background decisions mentioned above, see Benjamin M. Ziegler, DESEGREGATION AND THE SUPREME COURT, Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1958, \$.50. Finally, perhaps the most useful case material for elementary and secondary school students has come out of the California experimentation in the teaching of law.

YOUR RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES AS AN AMERICAN CITIZEN: A CIVICS CASEBOOK, by Charles N. Quigley Boston: Ginn and Company, 1967, \$1.48, is simply and clearly written and provides excellent guidance for discussion. See especially Unit II, Part II and Unit IV. Quigley has also written a teaching guide, but more useful for the teacher will be THE BILL OF RIGHTS: A SOURCE BOOK and THE BILL OF RIGHTS: A HANDBOOK by Cohen, Schwartz and Sobul, New York: Benziger Brothers, 1968, \$3.00. THE SOURCE BOOK may also be useful with students.

For helpful treatments of the Court and race, see Gilson, **THE NEGRO AND THE FIRST AMENDMENT** (teacher bibliography above) and Louis H. Pollak, "Emancipation and Law: A Century of Process," in **100 YEARS OF EMANCIPATION**, Chicago: Rand McNally Company, 1961, \$1.95. On the NAACP's litigation efforts, see the article by Clement Vose (below).

Vose, Clement E., "Litigation as a Form of Pressure Group Activity," in **THE ANNALS OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES**, vol. 319 (September, 1958). Reprinted as Chapter 8 in **READINGS IN AMERICAN POLITICAL BEHAVIOR**, edited by R. E. Wolfinger, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966, \$3.95. One of Mr. Vose's primary examples is the NAACP, whose skillful legal action has been a crucial ingredient in Negro protest action.

III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS

3. Civics, Government and Problems of Democracy
2. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS
1. Movies and Filmstrips

The staff of the Center has provided many student materials and has selected for inclusion in the packet those resources that are accurate, well executed, and have high utility for secondary school social science study. Each item is accompanied by brief and descriptive and evaluative notes, including suggestions for special teaching uses where appropriate.

Good materials provided in the future will be added to the packet in supplements. Non-provided materials that have been recommended to the Center have been listed separately. We urge the teacher to request preview copies directly from distributors. In addition, as with other parts of the packet, we welcome recommendations of materials which you have used and found promising.

BLACK JOURNAL, Shown the second Wednesday of every month, beginning July, 1968 on NET T. V. channels.

Black Journal is a new program of depth news analysis of interest to black Americans. It ranges over the whole of the "third world" and, in its first showings, has featured newsreel footage of significant national and international events, excellent commentary, and interviews with eminent guests.

CONFRONTATION: DIALOGUE IN BLACK AND WHITE, 16 mm/35 minutes/B/W
lease \$100 per year, rental \$15.00, Indiana University A-V
Center.

At the end of a tense summer in Chicago, one-hundred citizens were invited to a T. V. studio to confront each other with their views on the racial situation. Prior to the debate, the hundred viewed a short, un-edited film on Chicago's West Side, produced and directed by a Negro militant. The Confrontation itself is an excellent study of the psychological defenses (including rationalizations) often used in American race relations. It is followed by a short, insightful commentary on the confrontation by Robert Coles.

5/2: **REFLECTIONS ON AN AGE**, 16 mm/25 minutes/B/W/rental \$10.00,
Office for Audio-Visuals, 1501 Race Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
19102.

Here is a fresh, close look at what it's like to be a five year old growing up in an American city. Not quite incidentally, five year old Jonathan Coleman is Negro, and the intimate glimpses one gets of him, his family and his friends provide insights into the development of Negro self-concepts. The film's strong point is its success in capturing vibrant critical moments in real-life situations, including some of Jonathan's ponderings about himself. It's one weakness is sound, which is sometimes difficult to follow.

IN BLACK AMERICA :

In the summer of 1968, CBS showed a series of "specials" on the Negro American. Especially the first of the series (including a review of Hollywood's portrayal of the Negro) and the half hour on "The Negro Soldier" were excellent. Re-showings may occur during the fall and winter, with release for school use after that time.

LAY MY BURDEN DOWN, 16 mm/60 minutes/ B/W/sale \$200, rental \$9.15,
Indiana University A-V Center.

Released last year, this film documents the economic and educational plight of Negro tenant farmers in the South today. It is poignant and informative. For possibilities of use with other films, see also Harvest of Shame (migrant workers) and THE TENEMENT (Negroes in Northern urban centers).

NO HIDING PLACE, from CBS "East Side-West Side" Series, 16mm/51 minutes/
B/W/Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith.

An excellent cast (including George C. Scott and Ruby Dee) dramatizes the "crisis" created when a middle-class Negro family moves into a formerly all-white suburb. The whole range of reactions to the event is explored (including block-busting). The movie closes without settling the fate of the neighborhood or its residents, thus making the film an excellent discussion-opener. It's only defect is the strong tendency to equate all-Negro neighborhoods with slums.

RAISIN IN THE SUN, 16 mm/128 minutes/B/W/rental \$25.00, Brandon
International Films, 221 West 57th Street, New York, New York
10019.

Lorraine Hansberry's play, filmed with Sidney Poitier and Claudia McNeil, recounts the tensions in a Negro family trapped on Chicago's South Side. It puts the viewer inside a ghetto family with middle-class aspirations and lets him witness the struggle for American respectability.

The film is well-done and could be profitably used in a unit on Negro views of America, presenting a perspective that is not often heard in current Black Power literature.

THE REVEREND DR. MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR. (with script), 35 mm/sound
filmstrip/43 frames/B/W, Society for Visual Education, Inc.,
1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Illinois 60614.

Like most filmstrips this one has difficulty conveying the drama of events. But it does outline the major biographical data on Dr. King's life, especially since the Montgomery bus boycott.

For a more detailed view of Dr. King's last works, see the film
MARTIN LUTHER KING: THE MAN AND THE MARCH (listed below).

TALE OF TWO LADIES, from the "Epitaph for Jim Crow: Series, 16 mm/
30 minutes/B/W/Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith.

The film provides a useful framework for a study of race relations in America by identifying the different kinds of factors that shape the interaction of blacks and whites. The framework is effectively developed out of "eavesdropping" on every-day conversations about why the races behave as they do, beginning with a historical explanation and proceeding through others. Unless the framework (or a variant of it) is to be used in subsequent study, however, the film's impact will not be lasting.

While some of the films are in need of updating, all of the films in the "Epitaph" series are still good teaching aids. They include: FOURTEENTH GENERATION AMERICANS (historical predecessors of the early-60's protest activity), THE NEWEST NEW NEGRO (the distinctive characteristics of the early-60's protest), FACE TO FACE (the conditions necessary in order for racial contact to lead to racial tolerance, and the role of law in bringing about those conditions), and CONFORMITY AND THE CRUTCH (two different types of prejudice and their effects on behavior).

THE TENEMENT, 16 mm/40 minutes/B/W/Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith.

This CBS Reports documentary follows the lives of nine families who live on Chicago's South Side. The film breaks the monolithic stereotype of ghetto residents. But it also conveys the common conditions of life in many urban areas in America today. In addition to an excellent production effort in a sensitive situation, the film has the virtue of including a follow-up on the residents after an urban renewal project has evicted them.

WHERE IS PREJUDICE?, 16 mm/60 minutes/B/W/sale \$240, rental \$10.15, Indiana University A-V Center.

Twelve college students of different races and faiths are candidly shown while participating in a week-long workshop to test their common denial that they are prejudiced. Latent prejudices gradually emerge, and participants have considerable difficulty coping with them. Students who view the film will be virtually compelled to discuss the viewpoints and reactions of the workshop members. But the film will put the discussion in an emotionally explosive context, so the teacher must be well prepared.

The following films have not yet been previewed specifically for this packet, but have been recommended to the Center and so are called to your attention. Comments or distributors' descriptions are included where available. From Encyclopedia Britannica Educational Corporation, 425 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60611.

BUMA (African Sculpture Speaks)
16 mm/9 minutes/color/sale \$135

A sensitive and dramatic presentation of Central and West African sculpture. Portrays many carved wooden statues and masks by means of which native Africans seek protection from the dangers of every day living, and freedom from fear of the unknown. Authentic native music recorded in Africa adds to the beauty and dignity of this unique film.

EQUALITY UNDER LAW--THE LOST GENERATION OF PRINCE EDWARD COUNTY
16 mm/25 minutes/B/W/or color/sale \$151 or \$224 respectively

When Prince Edward County, Va., closed its public schools rather than integrate them, a generation of Negro children lost four years of education. The Prince Edward case was fought in state and federal courts; a Supreme Court injunction reopened the schools and 99% of the white children continued to attend private schools. Raises the questions: "Did the segregationists win?" "Did the Negro community win?" "Does anyone win in such bitter struggles?"

HARLEM CRUSADER
16 mm/29 minutes/B/W/sale \$167.50

A close-up study of a social worker's activities in Spanish Harlem over a five-year period. Excellent photography captures intimately the lives of these people, the problems they face, and the relationships which were formed between the social worker and the people he tried to serve.

WAR ON POVERTY--A BEGINNING
16 mm/26 minutes/B/W/sale \$167.50

Two case studies review the war on poverty at the local and national level: a Negro boy in the Neighborhood Youth Corps and a white boy in the Job Corps. Why did they join? What are the agencies trying to do? The film examines the problems which must be solved before these programs can retrieve a vital segment of our nation's youth resources.

From Indiana University Audio-Visual Center
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

CIVIL DISORDER: THE KERNER REPORT
16 mm/80 minutes/B/W/sale \$300/rental \$12.50

A documentary in three parts which analyzes the Kerner Report in terms of the symptoms and probable future effect of racism in this country and which documents examples of attempts to promote racial harmony.

LOSING JUST THE SAME
16 mm/60 minutes/B/W/sale \$200/rental \$9.15

The hope and the despair of the Negroes in urban America are illustrated through the life of a single Negro family. The mother is supporting ten children on welfare checks and in spite of the poverty of her surroundings dreams of her children's success. Her 17-year-old son drops out of school and obtains a job in order to fulfill his dream of owning a fine car. The dreams of both mother and son are shattered when the boy is accused of arson and sent to jail.

GOODEYE AND GOOD LUCK
16 mm/30 minutes/B/W/sale \$150/rental \$5.90

A documentary of an encounter between advocates of "Black Power" and a Negro Vietnam veteran. Candid scenes show the GI traveling from Vietnam greeting his family, and then looking for a job. Several Negro militants try to persuade him that he has been duped into killing for the whites. A visit to a draft protest march tends to confound his confusion. He is shown pondering the dilemma of having to choose sides as the film closes.

JUSTICE AND THE POOR

16 mm/60 minutes/B/W/sale \$240/rental \$10.15

A report on the inequities in the present justice system and on some reforms which are being made. The film asserts that the poor receive callous treatment from the police, are penalized by the bail system, and seldom can obtain the services of a qualified lawyer. Various attempts to remedy these situations are documented including bail reforms in New York, police-youth dialogues in Palo Alto, and the use of a UNIVAC machine to provide good lawyers for indigents in Houston.

MARTIN LUTHER KING: THE MAN AND THE MARCH

16 mm/83 minutes/B/W/sale \$325/rental \$12.65

A documentary which records the history of the late Dr. Martin Luther King's "Poor People's March." Dr. King is shown conferring with aides, speaking to rallies, visiting schools, and while traveling as he solicits support for and develops the operational details of the March. Other scenes indicate the methods used by his aides to create interest and support on a local level and with other ethnic groups. The documentary ends earlier than planned because of the tragic slaying of Dr. King.

THE PEOPLE LEFT BEHIND

16 mm/31 minutes/B/W/sale \$150/rental \$5.90

A documentary which depicts the plight of Mississippi's plantation laborers. The cotton picking machine, minimum-wage laws, and legislation which pays farmers for not cultivating land have combined to eliminate unskilled jobs. Former plantation workers describe their situation amid scenes of their impoverished environment. The reasons why he serves on the local poverty board are presented by a plantation owner. In contrast to this, a conservative lawyer says he thinks the jobless should leave Mississippi.

THE POOR PAY MORE

16 mm/60 minutes/B/W/sale \$200/rental \$9.15

This film provides a close look at the special hardships faced by the poor in the area of consumer purchasing. The pricing practices of supermarket chains, the techniques of food freezer salesmen (actually shown through the use of concealed cameras), and the methods of furniture and appliance stores and their association with the finance companies are examined. Officials from various private and governmental programs outline these problems and show how they are attempting to alleviate them.

THE WAY IT IS

16 mm/60 minutes/B/W/sale \$200/rental \$9.15

A vivid documentary which takes the viewer into the chaos of the ghetto school and reports on what is being done in one particular school to remedy this situation. Focusing on Junior High School 57 in the Bedford-Stuyvesant section of Brooklyn, the workers with a New York university special learning project are candidly shown in classroom, teachers' meetings, and visits with parents. Moderate success in reaching the children was achieved only when many different approaches were adopted.

WHAT HARVEST FOR THE REAPER?

16 mm/59 minutes/B/W/sale \$240/rental \$10.15

A documentary which describes how a group of farmworkers get caught in a system that keeps them perpetually in debt. Workers are recruited in Arkansas and carried to Long Island on credit. They work on the farms there but save nothing because of the economic system which keeps them in debt to the recruiter. The labor camps and the type of work are shown. The growers and processors present their side and are refuted by the Migrant Chairman, Suffolk County Human Relations Commission.

ANACOSTIA: MUSEUM IN THE GHETTO

16 mm/17 minutes/B/W/ sale \$100/rental \$4.15

Describes how a neighborhood museum, a branch of the Smithsonian Institute located in Washington, D. C., ghetto, is bringing beauty, creativity, and joy to the children there. Candid scenes depict the museum's policy of involving children in its activities. The Smithsonian's secretary and patrons of the local museum present the rationale for the museum. A youth explains why exhibits are not vandalized. Scenes of the museum's surroundings emphasize a plea for more institutions to enter the ghettos.

From McGraw-Hill Text-films

330 West 42nd Street
New York, New York 10036

HARVEST OF SHAME, migrant workers--SIT-IN, civil rights--SUPERFLUOUS PEOPLE, disadvantaged groups in American society.

III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS

- B. Civics, Government and Problems of Democracy
 - 2. Audio-Visual Materials
 - c. Photos and document reproductions

CIVIL RIGHTS DIGEST: A QUARTERLY OF THE U. S. COMMISSION ON CIVIL RIGHTS

Available from The Civil Rights Digest, 801 19th Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20425, \$.35.

The summer '68 issue was devoted to the Negro in the rural South and included good photographs on that subject. The DIGEST also includes some articles that could be used as student resources.

RENEWAL MAGAZINE

Published by the Community Renewal Society, 116 South Michigan, Chicago, Illinois 60603. Subscription \$4 for 10 issues per year. Extra copies \$.25 in lots of ten or more.

Renewal is a magazine of opinion about the rebuilding of the church in the modern world. It concentrates on urban America and usually includes excellent photographs, as well as articles by prominent men of action and scholarship. Write the Renewal office for information on relevant back issues, specifying your interests.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON CIVIL DISORDERS

New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1968, \$1.25.

The Report includes a photo supplement on the riots and ghetto life.

THE FAMILY OF MAN

Steichen, Edward. New York: Maco Magazine Corporation for the Museum of Modern Art, 1955, \$2.95.

Comparative "life stages" photographs from sixty-eight countries make this book a valuable resource on modern cultures, including the Negro in America.

In addition to these resources, see also the relevant materials listed under "American History", especially:

FISK UNIVERSITY ART SLIDE UNITS, No. 2

IN THEIR OWN WORDS, vol. III

HISTORIC NEW YORK TIMES FRONT PAGES

SNCC CALENDAR

TWENTIETH CENTURY AMERICANS OF NEGRO LINEAGE

III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS
B. Civics, Government and Problems of Democracy
2. Audio-Visual Materials
b. Records and Tapes

Many of the recordings listed under "American History" provide background material and some present-day commentary. See especially:

ANTHOLOGY OF NEGRO POETS

THE FOLK BOX

JAZZ Series

IN WHITE AMERICA

THE STORY OF JAZZ

In addition see:

MESSAGE TO THE GRASS ROOTS, by Malcolm X Afro-American Broadcasting Company, Detroit, Michigan

THE SIT-IN STORY

Folkways/Scholastic 5502; 1-12, LP; Narrated by Edwin Randall, Transcript included, \$5.79.

Side one is a radio broadcast by Randall, which attempts to discover, through interviews, the attitudes of various people involved in the 1960 lunch-counter sit-ins. Side two is a talk by Reverend R. Abernathy at a rally held in support of the Nashville sit-ins. Both sides are valuable primarily as historical documents of the beginning of the modern civil rights movement and can probably be most profitable used as part of a comparative study of the various modes of Negro protest action and white response.

WE SHALL OVERCOME; MARCH ON WASHINGTON

Folkways/Scholastic 5592; 1-12" LP, Temporarily out of print, 1963, \$5.79.

III. RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS

- B. Civics, Government and Problems of Democracy
 - 2. Audio-Visual Materials
 - d. Graphs, charts and tables

THE NEGRO IN THE UNITED STATES

Frazier, E. Franklin. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1957, revised edition, \$8.95.

Although Frazier's work has not been thoroughly revised for some years, it includes useful historical-sociological data, often presented in tabular or chart form.

SOUTHERN POLITICS IN STATE AND NATION

Key, V. O., Jr. New York: Vintage of Random House, 1949, \$2.95.

Like Frazier's book, Key's study does not cover the recent period, but it provides political data on the South, including "political maps", for the 1940's and earlier.

U. S. GOVERNMENT REPORTS

Relevant publications by the Federal Government include:

THE NEGRO FAMILY (Dept. of Labor, 1965) \$3.45.

THE NEGROES IN THE UNITED STATES (Dept. of Labor, 1966) \$1.25.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT (Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1967) \$0.55. The more recent edition may carry a different title.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION (U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1968) \$0.75.

All government reports can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402.

A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS :

FINAL REPORT ON BLACK STUDIES PROJECT

by

Basil Matthews, Talladega College

This work set out to investigate the intellectual and scientific status of Black Studies. It also proposed to come up with a viable model of a Black Studies Program for the small Black College. This model was to be the result of comparative studies of operating Black Studies and of the cooperative effort of the students of Talladega College.

The intellectual investigation led us to a consideration of the Black Perspective or a combined black Philosophy of life and a theory of knowledge or the interpretation of phenomena. This effort called for a wider, background study of the Black Community, specifically, the continuity of the Black Cultural Heritage in the midst of social change. This portion of the work is still very incomplete. In the course of our inquiry into the Black Community we come across something which seemed to be a culturally distinctive Black Cognitive Process. Tentatively, the Cognitive Process appears to hold the key to the definition of Black Studies, Black Studies Programs, the Identity of the Black Community and the interrelationship between Black Studies and the Black Community. The Black Community is seen as a comprehensive phenomenon not restricted to any national grouping of blacks.

Extended visits (several of them repeated) were made to the following institutions: The Institute of the Black World, (Atlanta), The Atlanta University Complex, the Bennett College Consortium of Six Black Studies Institutions, the Claremont Colleges Black Studies Center (California) Dartmouth College, the University of Illinois Afro-American Center, City College of New York, Baruch College of New York, Fordham University (New York, Columbia University, Fisk University (Nashville) and Howard University (Washington, D.C.) Discussions were held and correspondence opened with representative persons of several other interested institutions across the United States and Canada.

A searching Black Studies Questionnaire was administered to 400 Talladega College students with revealing results. A separate and independent sample survey was conducted into Kinship Feeling and Kinship Consciousness in the South. A general survey of all literature relating to Afro-American and Caribbean Anthropology was also undertaken.

The following significant results may be reported from this study which is still far from complete:

1. The recognizable and progressive orientation of large numbers of students and faculty at Talladega College to the Black Perspective. This finding is supported by the periodic reports of different faculty members cooperating in my study.

2. A policy and program of Black Studies for Talladega College has been produced. This document was unanimously approved at a recent meeting of the Talladega Faculty.
3. A curriculum for a Black Studies major to be instituted at Talladega in the Fall of 1970 has been drawn up.
4. Work on this project has helped to gather the elements of ten out of seventeen chapters on my proposed book on Black Community, Black Perspective and Black Cognitive Process.
5. The Social Science Research Council has awarded me a fellowship for the purpose of pursuing studies in the Black Identity and the Black Cognitive Process. Commencing date of the fellowship is June 1, 1970.
6. Requests for monographs on the progress of my work have been received from the Institute of the Black World, the Denver University Center on International Race Relations and the Press of the Columbia University Urban Center.
7. Howard University has offered me a position as Director of Planning of a university-wide Institute of African, African-Caribbean and Afro-American Studies. I have accepted.

I attach copies of documents related to the contents of this report.

Respectfully submitted:
Basil Matthews
Chairman-DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY
May 25, 1970

BLACK STUDIES QUESTIONNAIRE

(Dr. Basil Matthews, Chairman, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY, Talladega College)

Addressed to Six Predominantly Black Colleges and testing in the area of:

- . Intellectual Concern
- . Academic Function
- . The Black Perspective
- . The Black Cognitive Process
- . Sense of Black Family and Kinship
- . Sense of Black Community

Questionnaire to be administered to Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors and Seniors---100 in each group.

S P R I N G 1 9 7 0

YOUR NAME _____

SEX _____

ADDRESS _____

_____ City State Zip Code

Your Class Level _____

FATHER'S OCCUPATION _____

HIS ANNUAL INCOME _____

MOTHER'S OCCUPATION _____

HER ANNUAL INCOME _____

Part I

BLACK STUDIES: Intellectual and Academic

1. The Black community has its own truth, that is to say, its own genius and its own reason for being; also its own unique historical experience. Do you believe this?
weakly
strongly
very strongly
not at all

2. The knowledge of its own truth and the use of its unique historical experience are essential to the continuity, the health and strength of the Black Community. Do you believe this?
weakly
strongly
very strongly
not at all

3. Would you settle right now for a Black Studies major in your field if it gave you all the content of a white studies major and in addition the black truth and the black experience in that field?
Yes
No
I don't know

4. Would you major in Black Studies if it offered you only the black truth and the black experience in your particular field and nothing beyond the Black Experience?
Yes
No
I don't know

5. Do you feel that in a pluralistic society such as the United States, for example, Black Studies expertise ought to be a qualification for job opportunity and public service?
Weakly
strongly
very strongly

6. The study of the black truth ought rightfully to mean as much to the Black Community as the study of Western civilization means to Westerners. Are you in agreement with this?
weakly
strongly
very strongly

7. The truth and the unique historical experience of the Black Community ought to be studied and cultivated in their own right and for their sake by black people regardless of job potential in these black studies. Do you believe this?
weakly
strongly
very strongly

8. In the Black College education is meaningless unless it is made to relate to the truth and to the unique historical experience of the Black Community. Do you agree with this:

- weakly ()
- strongly ()
- very strongly ()
- not at all ()

9. Every student in a Black College owes it to himself to do Black Studies at least as a minor. Do you agree with this?

- weakly ()
- strongly ()
- very strongly ()
- not at all ()

Part II

ON COMMUNITY ACTION

1. Do you feel that College students should be active in the improvement and renewal of the Black Community:

- Yes ()
- No ()
- I don't know ()

2. Do you feel that there should be an upper limit on the number of hours that a college student spends in community action?

- Yes ()
- No ()

3. The maximum number of hours per week per student: 2 4 6 8 10.
Circle one.

4. Do you feel that each and every black student ought to spend some of his time in work for the Black Community?

- Yes ()
- No ()
- I'm not sure ()

5. The student should receive payment or either college credit for the hours spent in this community:

- Yes ()
- No ()
- I'm not sure ()
- Both ()

6. Do you think that any and all kinds of community activism are equally suitable to the College student?

- Yes ()
- No ()
- I don't know ()

7. Name any kind of community activism which you consider unsuited or unappealing to you as a student.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

8. Is there a Black Students Organization on your campus?

- Yes ()
No ()

9. What is its main concentration?

- Civil Rights ()
Student Rights ()
Academic Affairs ()
Community Action ()

10. Do you belong to the Black Students Organization?

- Yes ()
No ()

Part III

THE BLACK COGNITIVE PROCESS

1. Do you feel that Black Studies should be given parity of esteem with the study of Western Civilization, the Humanities, the Social Sciences, the Natural Sciences?

- Yes ()
No ()
Maybe ()

2. Do you feel that Black children ought to be taught in the way that comes easiest and best to them?

- Yes ()
No ()
I'm not sure ()

3. Do you feel that black people have their own best black way of communicating effectively and easily among themselves?

- Yes ()
No ()
I'm not sure ()

4. In your learning or communications experience with whom do you identify best and most easily in order of priority?

- The black preacher ()
The black teacher ()
The black entertainer ()

5. Whom do you understand more readily?

- The book ()
The black teacher ()
Some black teachers ()

6. Have you ever had an effective black teacher in your experience?
 Yes ()
 No ()
7. If yes, to whom did he approximate most in his method of communications?
 The black preacher ()
 The black entertainer ()
 The author ()
 The traffic policeman ()
 The journalist ()
8. Have you ever had a white teacher who really reached you?
 Yes ()
 No ()
9. If yes, whom did he approximate most?
 The black preacher ()
 The black entertainer ()
 The black teacher ()
10. Is the official English language of your classes and school texts the same as the language used in your home or in the black community?
 Yes ()
 No ()
 Much of the same ()
 Not at all the same ()
11. Is the language medium of Black folks the same as the language medium of white folks you know?
 Yes ()
 No ()
 Much of the same ()
 Not at all the same ()
12. In which idiom are you more at home: the idiom of your school or the idiom of the Black Community?
 School ()
 Black Community ()
 White Schools ()
13. After gathering the information from your school books in what language do you do your thinking: the language of the book or the language of black folk?
 Book ()
 Black Folk ()
 Both ()
 White Folk ()
14. Do you feel that the words of black folk convey more than the same words of white folk?
 Yes ()
 No ()
 Equally ()

Part IV

FAMILY AND KINSHIP

1. African society is built upon the sense of family and kinship. Am I aware of my own family and kinpeople wherever they are?
A little ()
Much ()
Very much ()
Not at all ()

2. In order to be stable and successful in life's struggle you need to be able to translate white values in terms of yourself, that is, to marshal white values into the service of the Black identity. Do you agree?
Yes ()
No ()
I don't know ()

3. How many persons reside in your home? ()

4. How many of those are:
parents ()
brothers ()
sisters ()
cousins ()
uncles ()
aunts ()
nephews ()
nieces ()

5. How many of the following relatives do you have anywhere?
brothers ()
sisters ()
cousins ()
uncles ()
aunts ()
grandmothers ()
grandfathers ()
nephews ()
nieces ()

6. Would you say that the home members of your family were close?
Somewhat ()
Much ()
Very much ()
Not at all ()

7. Are the household members concerned about the success of each other?
Somewhat ()
Much ()
Very much ()
Not at all ()

8. Do they show their concern in any particular way you can think of?
- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Somewhat | () |
| Much | () |
| Very much | () |
| Not at all | () |
9. Are you concerned about the happiness and success of your uncles, aunts, nephews, and nieces, your cousins?
- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Little | () |
| Much | () |
| Very much | () |
| Not at all | () |
10. Does their misfortune make you unhappy?
- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Little | () |
| Much | () |
| Very much | () |
| Not at all | () |
11. Do the uncles and aunts, nephews, nieces and cousins visit or call or write your home.
- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Frequently | () |
| Infrequently | () |
| On special family occasions | () |
12. On what special family occasions do the family members get in touch?
- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Frequently | () |
| Infrequently | () |
| On special family occasions | () |
13. Are the members of your family willing to help in time of need or trouble?
- | | |
|-----|-----|
| Yes | () |
| No | () |
14. Do they make interest-free loans of money, foods and services?
- | | |
|------------|-----|
| Entirely | () |
| Partly | () |
| Not at all | () |
15. Are people in your family very aware of their cousins?
- | | | |
|------------|-----------|----------------|
| 3rd cousin | Aware () | Very aware () |
| 4th cousin | Aware () | Very aware () |
16. Are you and your household family joint inheritors of land from an ancestor?
- | | |
|--------------|-----|
| Yes | () |
| No | () |
| I don't know | () |
17. Is your household together with some other family household a joint inheritor of land from some ancestor?
- | | |
|-----|-----|
| Yes | () |
| No | () |

18. Is the funeral of a family member expected to be deferred to wait the arrival of available cousins?
- Yes ()
No ()
19. Would the cousins take it amiss if the funeral was hurried away in their absence?
- Yes ()
No ()

Part V

SENSE OF COMMUNITY

1. Do you believe that black people have a life of their own to live?
- Yes ()
No ()
I'm not sure ()
2. Can black people live their lives without a knowledge of who they are?
- Yes ()
No ()
I don't know ()
3. In the work of finding themselves and doing their own thing do you think black Studies?
- Useful ()
Helpful ()
Necessary ()
Very unnecessary ()
4. Do you desire to find yourself and do your own thing as a black person in your particular sphere of life?
- Yes ()
No ()
5. Is this important to you?
- Yes ()
No ()
- How important?
- Little ()
Much ()
Very much ()
6. In order to find fulfillment and happiness do you think it important to be your own true self as a black person, no matter what your social class?
- Yes ()
No ()
I'm not sure ()

7. What career do you plan in order of preference?
 1.
 2.
 3.
8. Would you prefer to be just a 1, 2, or 3 careerist?
 Yes ()
 No ()
 or a consciously black 1, 2, or 3 careerist?
 Yes ()
 No ()
9. Do you feel that Black consciousness will make you a more dedicated person and professional?
 Yes ()
 No ()
 I don't know ()
10. Do you desire to be part of the rebirth of the Black Community dedicated to its rebirth and its own reconstruction?
 Yes ()
 No ()
 I don't know ()
11. Do you realize that the roots of your black heritage lie primarily in your African past?
 Degrees:
 1. Definitely ()
 2. Somewhat ()
 3. I'm not sure ()
 4. Not at all ()
12. Many black students feel that their experience of learning and teaching Western style is an experience in fragmentation reality and frustrating fragmentation in their struggle with life. Do you agree?
 Weakly ()
 Strongly ()
 Very strongly ()
13. Given absolutely equal facilities and resources at white schools and black schools what kind of school would you want your children to attend.
 All black ()
 All white ()
 Mostly black ()
 Mostly white ()

KINSHIP FEELING QUESTIONNAIRE

- A. 1. Your name
2. Your address
3. Your home state
4. Your locality and neighborhood
- B. Identify by name in writing all relatives under the following categories:
1. Great grandparents
 2. Grandparents
 - Father's side
 - Mother's side
 3. Brothers
 4. Sisters
 5. Uncles
 - Father's side
 - Mother's side
 6. Aunts:
 - Father's side
 - Mother's side
 7. Cousins
 - Male and Female
 - 1st degree
 - 2nd degree
 - 3rd degree
 8. Nephews
 9. Nieces

10. In-laws

Brother

Sister

Uncle

Aunts

C. 1. Name the principal Cities and States in which your kin reside

2. Indicate the activities among your kin

Religious

Educational

Financial

Social

Family Celebration

Death Rituals

3. Indicate existing marriage taboos among your kin

4. Indicate kind and degree of funeral sanctions observed among your kin.

Thank you!
Basil Matthews

SUMMARY OF DATA COLLECTED DURING INSTITUTIONAL VISITS

Faculty

Discussions were held individually and in groups. Reaction to the Black Cognitive Process presentation was significantly different on the part of blacks and whites.

Blacks almost uniformly responded with gratitude. They felt that the Black Cognitive Process was something of which they had somehow been always inwardly aware. They never could articulate it. It tended to produce both embarrassment and internal tension when confronted with the verbalisations and procedures of what is called western scientific thought. Hearing the elaboration of the Black Cognitive Process brought about a freeing of black minds. This was the cause of the gratitude.

White faculty, with some notable exceptions everywhere, at first demurred to the proposition of a distinctive Black Cognitive Process. When their objections were met and their difficulties resolved by illustration and comparative historical analysis and demonstration these whites would allow themselves to be intellectually persuaded. But emotionally they indicated that they saw in the Black Cognitive Process a threat to the canons of traditional learning process.

However, certain white scientists, mathematicians, and philosophers, notably at Dartmouth, Claremont, and Talladega welcomed the promise of the challenging presentation and have pledged me continued professional assistance and moral support in pursuing the work to a successful term.

Students

On the part of all black students there was a sentimental as well as intellectual keenness about Black Studies and its implications. For a variety of reasons mostly independent of the Black Studies programs many students did not register for majors in Black Studies. Minors did not show comparable academic zeal for Black Studies as for other studies. The reasons for this lie deep in the traditional academic structure and in the organization of employment in the larger community outside.

Basil Matthews

A COMPARISON OF THE SPEECH OF SOUTHERN NEGROES AND SOUTHERN WHITES AND ITS APPLICATION TO THE METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN A NEGRO COLLEGE

Report on the LeMoyne-Owen College Study of Southern Speech
by
Juanita V. Williamson

Purpose of the Study

Recently there have appeared a number of articles like the attached one which seem to indicate that the speech of Negroes is so different from the English spoken by other Americans that it must be treated differently in studies and that possibly books used to teach the Negro child should be written in a different kind of English from that written for the white child. If this is true, then our teaching methods in predominately Negro colleges and our preparation of teachers to teach in inner city schools would have to take this "different language" into account.

The present research was undertaken to find out whether the speech of Negroes is significantly different from that of other speakers of English. Southern speech was studied because Negroes, wherever they may now be, have a Southern speech heritage.

Methods Used in the Study

A list of those features often considered "Negro" speech features was made. The list, compiled from lists of features included in articles and studies dealing with the speech of Negroes, includes both pronunciation and grammatical features. The most important of the features are given here:

Pronunciation Features

- Loss of r in such words as door, carry, Carolina
- The occurrence of d in this, that, these, those
- The loss of consonants in final clusters in such words and contractions as let's, tastes, test, desks
- The use of vocalic l in such words as well, wealth, help
- The occurrence of a for an
- The pronunciation of chair as cheer, oil as all, poor as pore, there as they

Grammatical features

- Ain't used for isn't, haven't and as a general negative
- Been used as a finite verb, as in "I been there."
- The omission of to be in such sentences as "You beautiful", "You mad."
- The occurrence of third person singular forms of the verb without -s
- The occurrence of past tense forms without -ed
- The occurrence of several forms of the participle going, as in "I'm o do it", "I'm gonna do it", "I'm go do it."

The occurrence of hissself, theirselfs, theirselves for
himself, themselves
The omission of the auxiliary in questions: "You home?"
"What you want?"
The use of the double negative
The use of a double subject: "Mary she wants some."

The conversation found in the fictional works written by Southerners and the recorded speech in newspapers were studied. Actual speech was also recorded as speakers talked. Radio talk programs in Memphis were taped. Studies of Southern speech made by linguists were checked. Only the speech of white speakers, however, was considered.

Findings

It was found that all of the features studied may be found in the speech of Southerners. Some of the features are used by both educated and less educated speakers. Some are used primarily by the less educated.

Pronunciation Features

Those found in the speech of both and educated and uneducated:
Loss of r (In the speech of the less educated r is lost more frequently in carry, Carolina than it is in the speech of the educated.)
The occurrence of vocalic l
The pronunciation of oil to sound like all, poor to sound like pore
Those found primarily in less educated speech:
The occurrence of d in this, etc.
The pronunciation of chair to sound like cheer

Grammatical Features

Those found in the speech of both the educated and uneducated:
The use of ain't (used more often by the less educated but the educated use it often in informal situations)
The use of been as a finite verb
Questions which have no auxiliary
All of the forms of going mentioned above
Those found primarily in the speech of the uneducated:
Omission of to be in such sentences as "You beautiful", "You mad."
Third person singular forms which have no final -s
Past tense forms which have no -ed ending
The forms hissself, theirselfs, theirselves
The double negative
The double subject

Conclusion

What most persons who write about "Negro" speech are describing is Southern speech, primarily the less educated variety. But some of the features which they treat are found in educated Southern speech--in fact, in educated speech everywhere. In view of this there seems to be no reason to do other than what has always been done--to help students gain an adequate control of their native language on both an informal and formal level.

SENIOR HONORS SEMINAR

I. Purpose of the Seminar

The seminar was designed as an experiment in the teaching of economics which was to combine in-class learning with direct field work application of the material covered in the seminar as well as the basic microeconomic theory developed in a previous course. It was anticipated that placing the student in a situation where he had to try to use what he had learned would demonstrate to him the relevance of economic theory as well as reinforce his learning process.

II. Structure of the Seminar

The first semester began with a series of lectures designed to help prepare the six students for the problems they would confront in their field work. The lectures covered accounting, inventory policy, legal aspects of co-ops and a discussion of the role of student "consultants" in a business run by adults. Students were given the choice of working at Friends of Children of Mississippi in Jackson and a small candy co-op in Edwards. Three went with each of the organizations. The weekly sessions were devoted to reporting back on what had been learned in the field and group discussions of the problems encountered. Toward the end of the first semester the sessions were turned over to lectures in mathematical microeconomics.

Second semester only two of the initial six students continued the project. They followed up on the contact which had been made with the candy co-op. Their work is currently in progress.

III. Evaluation of the Seminar as an Experiment in the Teaching of Economics

In its first semester the seminar was a victim of circumstances. Of the four organizations contacted only Friends of Children of Miss. and the candy co-op sent representatives to the seminar. Further the three students who elected to work with the candy co-op faced nearly insurmountable transportation problems which very seriously limited the amount of work they were able to accomplish.

In part due to insufficient direction from the faculty, in part due to inadequate student initiative and in part due to the circumstances which restricted the activities of the first semester of the seminar, probably the semester must be considered a failure. The students who worked at Friends of Children of Miss. were never put in a position to apply what they had learned. They went mainly as onlookers and were not allowed to get beyond that level of involvement. In short, they were put into an operation which was too highly structured. The experience, though frustrating, was not a complete loss since the operations which they observed in the various departments were explained to them in sufficient detail to allow them a rather good understanding of the functions of the departments and to see instances in which the economics covered in their classes was being put to use. The three working with the candy co-op were placed in a situation where

there was virtually no structure and in which there were too many problems to be attacked. In the first semester transportation difficulties so limited their access to Edwards that they accomplished little other than beginning to appreciate some of the problems confronting the co-op.

The two students who are continuing the project this semester are the two more motivated and committed of the initial six students. They also have access to transportation. I am hoping that they will be able to become deeply involved in the problems of the candy co-op and that it will be a real learning experience for them.

IV. Budget

To date the seminar has only used \$23.60. This went to cover transportation during the first semester (computed at 10¢ per mile.)

V. Conclusions

The results are not all in yet, but in principle there is no reason why such a seminar cannot be a real success. The conditions for success are difficult to insure as they often involve actions and decisions outside the control of those running the seminar. For example, had we been able to offer the students a broader range of organizations with which to work instead of their being forced to choose between just two, and if transportation problems had not arisen, then I am confident that the first semester would not have been the failure that it was. It seems to me that the real test of such an approach to teaching economics will come this semester when we have nearly ideal conditions.

Lawrence B. Morse, Chairman
Department of Economics
Tougaloo College
Tougaloo, Mississippi
January 28, 1970

A HISTORY OF PURPOSEFUL CHANGE AND ITS IMPACTS

The ultimate objective, in addition to that stated on the application, is to produce a body of work that will have educational and social values for the Talladega College constituency, and perhaps for a broader reading public.

The work falls under two headings: research and background reading, and writing.

RESEARCH

Research began with the establishment of Talladega College by the American Missionary Association, aided by the Freedmen's Bureau, in November of 1867, and was concerned with the school and community program.

However, since the AMA institution grew out of a school opened by Freedmen families alone in 1865, and fragments of their experiences appeared in the materials being used, deeper research was undertaken. Written matter, published and otherwise, and interviews with descendants of the Freedmen families, revealed data significant to the development of the AMA school-community and to the contemporary search for black identity as well. Consequently, it is being incorporated in the total work, in the belief that it has both educational and social values for a reading public.

Research to date has continued through the early years of the AMA school, with (a) the introduction of normal and theological departments that continued into the 1920's, (b) establishment of a Congregational Church and participation in the founding and growth of a Congregational Association in the south, (c) the building of small school-church communities in outlying areas, (d) student and early alumni involvement.

Sources for research include: Talladega Archives and Talladega Public Library, the AMA Archives, Library of Congress and the National Archives, New York Public Library collection of old newspapers; descendants of early families and of early workers, in various sections of the country.

The Talladega College Archives, although small, has useful material, but the AMA Archives has an exciting richness of information pertinent to this study, and the American Missionary volumes afford background, insight, and understanding that is invaluable.

WRITING

This part of the work is proceeding in two stages. The first stage has been a compilation of findings into a paper of about sixty pages, essentially a research paper with documentation. It will eventually be made available to the college, so that students can have access to it for information helpful in any research they may undertake, in history of the period covered.

More immediately, it is the source out of which I am crafting the first group of a series of narratives. This group is being prepared with the hope that they can find publication and in that way increase public awareness of the struggle and strength underlying today's educational efforts among a large segment of the population.

Margaret L. Montgomery
Talladega College
May 7, 1969

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF APPLICATIONS TO LEMOYNE COLLEGE COMPLETED BY
STUDENTS WHO FAILED TO REGISTER

by
Martelle Trigg

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Concern has been expressed by individuals in the academic world about students who apply to a college, complete their applications, yet fail to enroll at the stated time! Numerous reasons have been given to explain this state of affairs and suggestions made as to possible reasons for the students' failure to follow through. These suggestions covered a wide range. A sample of them follows:

1. Prospective students apply to several different colleges and enroll in the one which notifies them first of their acceptance. In such a case the time element is important.

2. The admissions officer may not apply the objective criteria of the college but allow his or her own biases to enter when deciding who is or is not to be accepted and when notification is to be made. Failure to receive notification during the designated period may prevent applicants being prepared to enroll at designated date.

3. The means of notifying the student that he has been accepted is sometimes an illy prepared form letter with misspelled words, poor English and poor mechanics as typing, mimeographing or general inefficiency in communication could, it was felt, serve to disgust a good student and disillusion him with the image of the college is projecting.

4. The prospective students' lack of fund might also be a factor. He or she will choose to attend the college where the greatest amount of financial aid is offered.

These suggested reasons for the prospective student's failure to follow through on his application led to the decision to make an exploratory study of the situation at LeMoyne College. It was felt that such a study at LeMoyne would serve not only to evaluate procedures but also to indicate the strengths and weaknesses of the admission policy.

Of the 199 prospective students who indicated a desire to enter LeMoyne by completing their applications, 172 registered in Sept. 1967. Of the remaining 27, 22 completed applications but failed to register; three were notified of full acceptance and two were notified they would be accepted provided they successfully completed the Pre-Freshman course. None of these five completed their applications. A completed application at LeMoyne College includes (1) the filing of a formal application form; (2) furnishing a transcript from high school; (3) filing of scores made on the Scholastic Aptitude Test and/or the American College Test; (4) payment of the \$15 application fee; (5) a physician's certificate, and (6) furnishing references, pictures, etc.

The 22 completed applications of those who failed to enroll in September, 1967 were secured from the Dean's office and responses tabulated.

Secondly, a copy of the 1967 study of the LeMoyne College student body was secured in order to make comparisons of some of the salient characteristics of the population under study and those of the general student body to find out if any discrepancies existed which might be explanatory.

Thirdly, the Guidance Counselors at the various High Schools were contacted and the present whereabouts of these students secured.

The study was limited to those who applied to LeMoyne College for entrance the first semester of the 1967-68 school year. All information was secured from the application blank, the accompanying autobiographical sketches and the high school guidance counselors.

ADMISSION PROCEDURE

The admission procedure at LeMoyne College is somewhat different from that at many other colleges. Not all require scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (score range 200-800) or the American College Test (score range from 1-36) prior to the student's making formal application. LeMoyne, before formal application is made, requires that the student have taken these examinations. On the basis of the scores which have been mailed to LeMoyne at the request of the prospective student, application blanks are sent out and the student notified as to other procedures.

Anyone with a cumulative SAT score of 600 to 649 is given an opportunity to enroll in the summer Pre-Freshman course. If the student successfully completes this course of study he or she will be allowed to make application and will be accepted as a Freshman. Students with minimum cumulative scores of 650 in English and Math on the SAT or a standard score of 15 on the ACT are sent application blanks without conditions. The national ACT 50th percentile falls at a standard score of 20.

At LeMoyne a sliding scale is employed for students requesting financial aid. This scale is based upon the SAT and ACT scores. i.e. if a student with a cumulative SAT score of 700-749 or ACT 16-17 applies for financial assistance he receives \$100 in financial aid while a student with a cumulative SAT score of 900-949 or ACT 23 receives one full years tuition grant; one making a score of 950 and above or ACT 24 receives a four year tuition grant.

Other criteria used in selecting students, aside from scores made on the SAT or ACT are, rank in class, high school transcript, recommendations and a personality profile.

From the 22 completed applications on file it was learned that the median age was 17. About twice as many girls as boys were in the group which was about the same sex ratio as in the general college population at LeMoyne. The permanent address of 86.5 percent was Memphis, whereas 92 percent of the general student body were from Memphis. About 77 percent of the students indicated they were born in Memphis or the state of Tennessee which was the same proportion as the 77 percent in the general student body. The remainder were from Mississippi, Arkansas, and Illinois.

Forty-one percent were from families where the father was an unskilled worker and 41 percent had mothers who were housewives. The same percentages hold true in the general student body. The majority were from large families of five or more persons with the largest being 15. This was also true of the general college population.

In 42 percent of the families the marital status of the parents was normal; the remaining were separated, divorced or widowed. This is considerably lower than the 66 percent whose marital status of parents was normal found in the general student body.

All of the 22 or 100 percent were single whereas 80 percent of the general student body was single.

One or the other of the parents was to be responsible for paying the bills of the student. This holds true in the general student body but the majority in the general student body indicated they needed and received help from other sources. Only one had been in the armed forces and planned to use G.I. benefits.

The majority, 82 percent, attended high school in Memphis and/or Shelby County.

Forty-one percent had relatives who had attended LeMoyné. They were either siblings or parents.

All were affiliated with a church and 86 percent were Baptist.

In discussing vocational aspirations 6, or 27 percent of the 22, had aspirations for which they would not receive preparation at LeMoyné, a Liberal Arts College. These included: drafting, business administration, secretarial work, interior decoration, etc. Only 9 percent were undecided. The remaining group anticipated becoming lawyers, medical doctors, journalists, teachers and librarians, showing a definite inclination toward the professions.

All indicated a desire to participate in extra-curricular activities of the college with the Drama Club and Dance group receiving the highest number of choices.

Motivation for choosing LeMoyné ranged from the reason of having visited LeMoyné to the influence of friends and relatives. One wanted a "good college near home."

Summary--Characteristics of the prospective student who applied and failed to enter school showed little difference from the presently enrolled student body. However, at least one fourth of the applicants had vocational aspirations which could not be fulfilled at a liberal arts college. This would seem to indicate that LeMoyné was not a good choice for them nor a first choice.

It might be expected that size of family and low income of parents (inferred from their unskilled occupations) would be a major factor, high on the list of reasons for not enrolling, but when compared to the general student population of the college where the same situation obtains, it takes on lesser significance.

In order to follow through on this study of prospective students who completed applications but did not enroll, data were secured through the guidance departments of the various high schools as to the whereabouts of the 16 students. No attempt was made to contact

county or out of town schools for it was felt that such information on the 16 who attended Memphis city high schools would be representative of the group.

The present occupation of the students were:

Employed	2
Armed Forces	2
Unemployed	2
Other colleges	10

Those who went to other colleges were distributed as follows:

Memphis State	1
Lane College	2
Lincoln, Mo.	2
Clark College	1
Wilberforce	1
Ohio State	1
Alcorn	1
U. of Tennessee	1

Reasons for attending a college other than LeMoyne became apparent when it was learned that one student received a four year scholarship to the chosen institution as against a \$150 scholarship to LeMoyne. Others evidently applied to LeMoyne as a second choice as indicated by the student who stated he did not know if he could make it financially at the other institution.

Still others went to schools where the courses they needed to fulfill their vocational aspirations were offered. Two plan to enter LeMoyne the second semester of the 1967-68 school year.

Factors involved for the students who lived out of town may have been related to the problem of housing in Memphis since LeMoyne has no boarding department. However, this is purely conjecture for there is no supporting evidence.

From the exploratory study of completed applications of prospective students to LeMoyne College only reasons one and four seem to apply. The sliding scale of financial awards to the prospective student seem fair and logical. Also it seems logical that students would want to attend a college where they could get the courses they want and need to further their vocational ambitions. Therefore, when accepted at such an institution, which was probably the first choice, it is to be expected that they would renege on the application to LeMoyne.

The LeMoyne College Research Committee, in assessing the findings and making recommendations, expressed concern that there were only 199 students who applied to LeMoyne. Suggestions as to how to improve this situation were made. These were:

1. In recruiting students make known the many opportunities available for our students to participate in various exchange, summer and enrichment programs which are not available to them at other institutions.

2. Change our image from that of a teacher's college to a true liberal arts college.

3. Extend recruitment procedures to rural areas and let rural county graduates know that we have approved homes in which they could live.

4. Advise the prospective student of the availability of additional financial aid through the National Defense Student Loans and the Work-Study program.

Concern was also expressed over the fact that there are gaps yet to be filled in our programs though work is in progress on some of these. A division of business administration is in the plans for next year and a cooperative venture is being undertaken in pre-training for computer programming and engineering. Some other such arrangement should also be made for pre-nursing courses and provisions made to expand our music department and undergrid it with special scholarship aid.

LEMOYNE COLLEGE
807 Walker Avenue
Memphis, Tennessee 38126

FINANCIAL AWARD

_____ has been given a financial award to cover the full cost of tuition for the first semester of the _____ academic year. If you earn a "B" (2.00) average in the first semester, a similar amount will be available for the second semester.

This procedure may be continued up to eight semesters, provided you earn the 2.00 average each semester. This means you may earn your tuition for four years. At present rates this makes the award have a potential value of \$ _____.

The Award you have been offered above is only part of the financial aid we are prepared to give you. The additional aid will be in the form of Opportunity Grant and/or National Defense Student Loan, and/or Work-Study Job, and/or Student Labor Job. Please complete the enclosed application for Financial Aid and return it to the Student Personnel Office, LeMoyne College, and we will let you know immediately what additional financial aid you will receive.

If you plan to accept the financial award, please do the following by _____:

- 1) fill out the enclosed application form and return it with a \$15.00 fee to the Office of Admissions. This fee is not refundable, but applies to College Fees.
- 2) request your high school principal to send a transcript of your high school record to LeMoyne College.
- 3) make an appointment with one of the College Physicians - Dr. James Byas, 317 North Main or Dr. Arthur Flowers, 1324 Mississippi, for a physical examination. The \$5.00 fee for this examination will be credited toward College Fees upon presentation of the receipt to the Business Office.

It is very necessary that you complete the three requirements listed above by _____ if you wish to qualify for the financial award we are prepared to give you.

If, for any reason you are unable to secure either the \$15.00 application fee or the \$5.00 fee for the physician, please call Reverend J. C. Mickle at 948-6626 and notify him of your difficulty. This must be done by _____.

Hollis F. Price, President

John C. Mickle, Chairman
Financial Awards Committee

Dear Student:

Admission to LeMoyne is based on your high school record, a personality and recommendation form, and scores made on the SAT or ACT.

We are in receipt of your _____ scores. In order for us to get the other information we need, we are enclosing blanks which are to be completed and returned to us. Request that your transcript include rank in class.

This information should be in no later than _____ so that your application may be given proper consideration.

Sincerely yours,

William H. Cross
Dean of Students

Submitted By: Oscar Cadet
Math-Instructor & Director
of Computer-Lab
Talladega College
Talladega, Alabama

To: Dr. Clifton H. Johnson
Amistad Research Center
Dillard University
New Orleans, Louisiana 70122

SURVEY REPORT

The proposed Research Program on "The needs of County and City school Administrators and Teachers in the use of computer facilities" was initiated in April 1970. Several problem areas were considered. Today many secondary-school curriculum find a wide diversity of course offerings utilizing computers in the curriculum. The incorporation of computer technology into educational process make it possible to more efficiently perform many educational operations.

The general purpose sought to determine appropriate applications, create an educational Data Processing need in the City and County school system of Talladega County. Therefore, the prime intent, was to determine specific ways that Talladega College could meet their needs.

Prior to preparation of a detailed questionnaire, several personalities were consulted including the Superintendent of the City School System of Talladega. After those consultations, the following steps were taken:

1) Three hundred letters and publications describing the use of Computer in different primary and secondary schools in some other parts of the country have been sent to 15 City and County schools in the County.

2) Three student assistants were hired part-time from April 13, 1970 for a training in the techniques of interviewing and assisting individuals in filling out the questionnaires properly. They are:

Miss Felicia Thomas	Senior, Psychology major
Mr. Donald Bugg	Junior, Mathematics major
Mrs. Julia Hunter	Senior, Mathematics major

3) Fifteen schools' principals have been surveyed so we could obtain information about the need of their schools in the use of computer facilities.

The results are summarized in the following table:

City Schools : 5
 County Schools: 10

Total	15	Yes	No	Not applicable
Teaching a course in computer		1	14	
Planned a course		0	14	1
Using C.A.I.		1	0	14
Would use Talladega facilities		8	6	1

4) Seventy-six mostly Science Teachers in those same fifteen schools have been interviewed, so we could obtain information about their interest:

- a) in a computer training program in relation to computer facilities at Talladega.
- b) to make a proper determination as to the physical needs (facilities, classroom space, extent to course coverage, nature of the course, time course should be offered, etc.) and training personnel needed to put the programming in operation.

The wide diversity of range of these questions make it very difficult to summarize all the answers in a general table. However, the following will easily indicate the results of the survey.

1. To the question: "Would you, any administrative and teaching personnel be interested in a computer training program, in relation to computer facilities at Talladega College?"

Yes	No	Not sure
<u>37</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>14</u>

We noted also that eight names of persons not interviewed were added to the "yes" column which should bring the total of "yes" to forty-five (45).

2. "What kind of computer oriented courses would you prefer?" Although some of the persons surveyed answered "no" to the preceding question, they gave their preferences about the courses that should be taught. We have the following suggestions:

Not applicable: 26
Scientific Data Processing: 10
Business Data Processing: 16
General Survey: 24

We noticed the same irregularity (we mean some persons answering "no" to the first question, answered the others by giving their suggestions) in all the following:

3. "At what time of day would you like the course offered?"

Not applicable: 36
Day (e.g.: 7:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.): 4
Evening (after 5:00 p.m.): 11
Saturday (9:30 a.m. - noon): 26

4. "What is the extent of coverage you would like to have in your computer oriented course?"

Not applicable: 36
Introductory: 30
Intermediate: 6
Advanced: 4

5. "Would you like to have such a course for credit?"

Yes: 26
No: 14

Conclusion

The survey has been very useful. It is significant to note that the situation reflected here is not unusual. All of the accumulated data clearly reveals that Talladega College support is heavily needed by the City and County School Systems of Talladega County. In view of those facts, Talladega College in association with the local Board of Education and any Funding Agency interested in financing the program, must accept the responsibility of providing an in-service program of computer technology into educational process.

Respectfully submitted
Oscar P. Cadet

RELEVANCY OF HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT TO PRESENT-DAY CURRICULUM NEEDS IN
A NEGRO COLLEGE

Activities Undertaken:

First of all, there were a total of ten students instead of the original three (see proposal). Seven of the students, who were sophomores or above, took a five year span of the college. However, each "specialized" on a given problem such as the need for a science building, campus relations with the Community of the City of Talladega, putting heavier emphasis on the campus and Black Community; one student studied the Physical Education Department in depth. All persons had to remember that whatever they concentrated in, they were still writing history--history of the college.

Three freshmen students wrote the history of the school but only for a one year period. They were late in applying to be a member of this research project. These freshmen wrote an indepth study of the one year history of Talladega College.

All students had a chance to visit the State Archive in Montgomery so that they could see what sources they could use in their project here. There is one thing that I feel was significant on this trip and that was they had never seen so many documents, books, published papers, and unpublished material. The J.T.M. Curry Papers were all there awaiting someone to write about his life's dealing with Alabama and its education. I pointed out to them that Curry was born and reared in Talladega, and for a number of years, he was general agent for the Slater and Peabody Funds.

Students were able to use the theories that were found in Historians Handbook, Wood Gray, et.al., Guide for Writers, Kate L. Turabian, and Understanding History, Gottschalk, and apply those theories to an actual writing of some aspects of history. They were able to gather materials together (subject already chosen), put them on note cards, draw up outlines, write rough drafts of papers and a final draft.

It should also be pointed out that no two students could engage in the same two periods because we wanted each person to rely heavily on the knowledge he or she had gotten from the theories.

Sincerely,
Harold A. Franklin,
Instructor of History

DETERMINATION OF LATEST TECHNIQUES IN SCIENCE-MATHEMATICS TO EFFECTIVELY
INAUGURATE AN UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH PROGRAM AT LEMOYNE COLLEGE

First, the writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to the Amistad Foundation for the favorable consideration given his request.

One thousand two hundred dollars was awarded.

Pursuant to the purpose of grants administered by the Amistad Research Consortium—that is, to encourage faculty from member institutions to develop proposals and undertake research projects and thus gain experience in research related activities, the writer submitted the following proposal:

1. Nature and Significance of Problem

The project entails a study of science-mathematics undergraduate research programs in a few carefully selected colleges whose reputation for excellence is well established and will include also a period of study at Oak Ridge National Laboratories in devices and techniques applicable to the establishment of such a program.

2. Statement of Objectives

- a. To become acquainted with the most modern techniques in undergraduate science-mathematics programs.
- b. To initiate a program of undergraduate research activities at LeMoyne-Owen College.
- c. To plan activities and procedures at LeMoyne-Owen College which will encourage and facilitate such an endeavor.

LeMoyne-Owen College is in the process of expanding and up-grading its science-mathematics program and facilities. Architectural drawings have been completed for the erection of a science-mathematics building, to cost approximately one million dollars. A matching grant has already been secured from the federal government toward the cost of this building, and a Community Solicitation Committee, headed by Mr. Wallace Johnson, President of Holiday Inns of America, is directing the work of this committee.

It is proposed to study the science-mathematics program and undergraduate research programs which are being conducted at the following institutions:

- 1) Anderson College; Anderson, Indiana
- 2) Lakeland College; Sheboygan, Wisconsin
- 3) Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa (a cooperating college with LeMoyne-Owen)
- 4) Haverford College; Haverford, Pennsylvania
- 5) Hope College; Holland, Michigan
- 6) Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies; Oak Ridge, Tennessee

Consultations were conducted in addition to visits indicated above as well as visits to Howard University, Columbia University and Southwestern University of Memphis, Tennessee.

Results of the above activities may be recorded as follows:

1. The establishment of a program of minor research projects for seniors looking toward receiving research participation grants from the National Science Foundation. Requests for the program are being worked out with Dr. Amaker, Head of the Department of Biology at Southwestern University, and one has already been granted.

2. An association with the Genetics Laboratories at Oak Ridge for expansion of a program of genetics at LeMoyne-Owen through providing *Drosophila* stock and consultation which will greatly enhance the work in this area now being conducted at LeMoyne-Owen College.

3. The organization of minor research programs in each of the areas: biology, physics and chemistry of the Natural Science Division.

Included in this phase is the initiation of a research project for an experimental program for physical science class activities which will entail a period of instruction for physical science teacher - Mr. Charles Phillips, an instructor in physical science, who spent a week in New York working with this program.

Visitations

During the visitations listed on another page, conferences were held with faculty members. Techniques involving the use of latest equipment were carefully studied for ten days under guidance in the laboratories at Oak Ridge, at Lakeland College, and intermittently Southwestern University.

Consultants

In conjunction with the above visitations, consultants were brought to the campus to advise the Natural Science faculty.

Visiting the campus were:

1. Dr. R. F. Kimball, Oak Ridge Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences,
2. Dr. J. H. Birnie, Senior Research Fellow, Smith, Kline and French Laboratories,
3. Mr. Burgess Standley, from New York, an expert on science education facilities,
4. Dr. R. L. Amy, Southwestern University,
5. Lakeland College, Sheboygan, Wisconsin. Lakeland has just completed a reorganization of its entire mathematics-science program and erected a two million dollar building for this purpose. This experience was extremely valuable.

ADDENDUM TO INITIAL REPORT

Details regarding the visitations and consultations already reported whose objectives were:

1. to ascertain more effective methods of subject matter presentation and organization within the Division of Natural Science and Mathematics,
2. to initiate a teacher-student undergraduate research program at LeMoyné-Owen College, and
3. to plan the most functional, architecturally and equipmentwise, science and mathematics learning center possible are as follows:

Extended visits and seminars were held initially at the following local institutions: Siena College, Southwestern University and Memphis State University. Such visits and seminars were also held at Grinnell College; Lakeland College, Sheboygan, Wisconsin; Anderson College; Columbia University, New York; and for twelve weeks a science workshop at a high school in Shaw, Mississippi was conducted.

Results and Findings

In the physical sciences, it has long been recognized that non-science majors, particularly education majors who plan to teach elementary education, are usually antagonistic toward science, or if not actually antagonistic, at least feel a fear or have a detachment toward the subject. This is particularly true with the education majors here at LeMoyné-Owen College where over fifty percent of the graduates are in this field. In an attempt to improve student appreciation and comprehension in this area--a member of the Physics Department and a member of the Chemistry Department were sent to take part in a seminar at Columbia University to become acquainted with an experimental physical science program to correct some of the deficiencies indicated above.

The course is, first of all, designed to instill the idea that science progresses by building models based on observation, using these models to make predictions and finally by testing to determine whether the predictions are borne out by follow-up observations. The approach of the course is empirical. The student is supplied with relatively simple equipment which might be found in any elementary classroom. An example would be tying four balloons together to help the student visualize the tetrahedral shape of the cloud model of the carbon atom. We are now going to use the traditional method we have been using in the physical science class with one group of non-science major students and then the new approach on a second group. Evaluation of the effectiveness will be forthcoming as soon as possible.

An extended stay at Grinnell College and visits by consultants from the Natural Science Division to LeMoyné-Owen coupled with an exchange of students, and a visit to Anderson College suggested the need for interdisciplinary association for the more effective preparation of our students to enter graduate work and particularly the health field.

So we are instituting a combination biology-mathematics course--Biometric Analysis, a socio-biological course which will involve essentially eugenics and eutenics. This course might well be termed a study of the Human Ecology of the Memphis area, and also a radiobiology course to familiarize students with their implications and applications in biology. This work will be carried on in conjunction with the Physics Department and the University of Tennessee. A grant from the Atomic Energy Commission will help us in this work.

Working in conjunction with Siena College, here in the city of Memphis, a program involving two experimental groups of biology students, one exposed to the traditional program at LeMoyné-Owen, the other working primarily with a BSCS program were compared on basis of achievement on a standardized test. BSCS consultants from the University of Colorado and Sister Adrian Marie, a regional director of BSCS for the Memphis area, helped in this project. On evaluation, the group in the BSCS program scored significantly higher and we are making preparation to have our freshmen biology students follow this program, at least in part. I say "in part" because the financial and time factors will not permit compliance completely.

Regarding The Undergraduate Teacher-Research Program

First, in October of last year, the writer spent two weeks in observation and experimentation at the Oak Ridge National Laboratories, Oak Ridge, Tennessee. The main objective of this activity was to become acquainted with techniques and methods that would lend themselves to undergraduate experimental techniques where time, money and assistants are limited.

Actually, in terms of equipment, time, etc., the genetics work at the Oak Ridge Laboratories offered the greatest promise. These laboratories have agreed to supply LeMoyné-Owen, without charge, the living animal and plant specimens which will enable a very significant series of experimental projects. We have most of the equipment already for conduction of such projects and the University of Tennessee, along with Southwestern University, here in the city, has given consent for utilization of things we are at present lacking, including the electron microscope.

Further, regarding the establishment of an interesting and effective undergraduate research program, a very excellent relationship has been created between the University of Tennessee and Le-Moyné-Owen College. A large number of counselors have visited LeMoyné-Owen on a number of occasions. Through these conferences, an association has been formed resulting in a number of jobs at the University of Tennessee in paramedical activities. Also during the Interim Semester, which LeMoyné-Owen has recently begun, a number of seniors in biology and chemistry were given the opportunity to work in special areas with the most modern equipment, and in addition, to continue this work as minor research projects upon returning to regular classes at LeMoyné-Owen. Thus this program is not only launched but the future holds much in terms of great development and expansion.

Another phase of the investigation involved a twelve-week period of working with a group of high school teachers of science in the

McEvans High School in Shaw, Mississippi. In conjunction with Delta State Teacher's College in Cleveland, Mississippi, a science curriculum was built, for among others, high school seniors of McEvans High School. The students who pursued this work during this year will be evaluated for their achievement at LeMoyne-Owen will write some of these on a subsidized basis for freshman college work to see how their achievement will compare with regular freshmen.

A general impression gained from visits and consultations as suggested above pointed up the need for students in the natural sciences to have had calculus in the freshman year. Most of the students entering LeMoyne-Owen obviously do not meet this need. It is necessary then for college teachers to point up to the Superintendent of the High Schools of this area. We have had two meetings in this regard with administrators in the Shelby County and Memphis School System.

Another recommendation might be that prospective science students be brought to the college campuses in the summer prior to their entrance on a subsidized basis and deficiencies worked upon.

Recommendations and Observations On The Science-Mathematics Learning Center About To Get Under Construction

We brought in for a series of consultations Mr. Burgess P. Stanley. During the course of these events in a number of cases where traditional equipment for the new building was planned by the science faculty of LeMoyne-Owen, it was pointed out that modern modular arrangement would give a great deal more flexibility in contemplation of new curriculum organizations and expansion which we anticipate. Particularly was it pointed out that a computer center, with its growing usefulness across the academic spectrum should be provided for.

Along this same line, I stayed at Lakeland College, Sheboygan, Wisconsin, which has an excellent undergraduate program in the sciences and which erected a new science building during the past year, for several days. This afforded the opportunity to study techniques which make their science program so effective. Also, securing blue-prints available of their new science building was really helpful. For instance, the uniqueness of the position of the greenhouse and its use not only as a functional unit in connection with the botanical work, but as an attraction aid in student recruitment in this science as well as an aid in the idea of conservation--which incidentally helped to gain us a financial grant from the Meeman Foundation of Memphis toward erecting our Science Learning Center.

Walter W. Gibson
LeMoyne College

ACTIVIST SOCIAL RESEARCH BY UNDERGRADUATES IN MISSISSIPPI

Report of Research Activities undertaken by undergraduates of Tougaloo College, under the direction of Mr. David Barnum, Miss Myrtle Glascoe, and Dr. James W. Loewen, Calendar year 1969.

A grant of \$1100.00 was received in January 1969, from the Amistad Research Center to underwrite expenses incurred by undergraduate sociology majors at Tougaloo College as they carried out activist research projects in areas of Mississippi surrounding the college. The projects were diverse: several were directly connected with educational institutions or programs, while others dealt with community organizing or such problems as the Mississippi Welfare system.

In addition to actual use of the research findings, the major purpose of the projects was to give direct research and community experience to undergraduates under academic auspices and supervision. Thus the primary educational value of the enterprise accrued to the participants themselves, in the form of greater methodological sophistication, knowledge of how to carry out field research, and first-hand experience with institutions and individuals in the community.

Research activities were performed under the auspices of Sociology 40, Community Organization Seminar, directed by Mr. Barnum, during the Spring Semester, the same, directed by Miss Glascoe, during the Fall Semester, and Sociology 45, Research seminar; Mississippi, directed by Dr. Loewen, during the Spring Semester. Both of these classes were judged by student and faculty participants to have been successful. Both are retained in the catalog of course offerings and will be joined by another course, Sociology 45B, Advanced Seminar in Community Organization, to be led by Miss Glascoe.

The principal use of Amistad funds was to pay for transportation and field expenses of students involved in the far-flung activities these courses represented. The funds made possible the purchase and operation of a second-hand automobile, paid for room and board of students who lived in community projects and institutions, and helped purchase, on a matching basis with other funds, such items as cameras and film.

Sociology 45, Research Seminar: Mississippi, was an experimental course never before offered at Tougaloo. It enabled seniors to carry out individual research projects of semester-long scope and magnitude. The course was a success, as measured by two criteria: first, most participants have been admitted to graduate schools of their choice, including Michigan State, The University of Chicago, Washington University, Princeton, and others. In several instances, their admission and their specific programs of graduate study were favorably influenced by the research experience they received in the course. Second, several of the projects have not just ended with a written paper, but may lead to concrete results, including revision of a Tougaloo seminar, institution of a relationship between Tougaloo students and students at a nearby high school, possible legal action against two nearby state educational institutions, the planned establishment of a halfway house for mental convalescents, and possible professional publication.

Complete descriptions of projects undertaken by students within the Spring Semester are found in the interim report, May 28, 1969.

Sociology 40, Community Organization Seminar: During the first semester, we spent our time together in the seminar becoming acquainted with concepts, ideas, and philosophies of organizing the Black community. Our discussions provided opportunities to figure out what we mean by all the "community organization" rhetoric that is tossed around these days. The discussions were coupled with community work projects carried out by each student. The purpose of the project was to provide each person an opportunity to participate in some grass roots black community effort--and thereby become exposed to the kinds of problems communities face and the methods and techniques that are being used to try and solve these problems. People served as volunteers in the following settings: the Urban League, welfare rights organization, a local hospital, the Negro School for the Blind, Project Head Start, a community newspaper, and a small Black business.

As the semester progressed, it became apparent that some students wanted to continue their experiences in the community and do a somewhat systematic study of some of the problems they were trying to find ways to deal with. So we are offering an advanced community organization seminar this semester, to students who have had the first semester. The advanced seminar meets once a week and students are expected to spend at least eight hours a week carrying out a community work project. At present we have a team working in one political district of Madison County to assist that community to fully exploit the political potential of its Black majority. Others are engaged in the following: working with high school students to assist them in making responsible choices for continuing their studies; working with mentally ill children; assisting a local community organizing effort in the Tougaloo village; and working with children in the community--a Big Sister program.

March 31, 1970

From: Vincent C. De Baun
To: Amistad Research Center
Subject: Report on Descriptive Study of General Humanities
Programs in Predominantly Negro Colleges

On the following pages is a report of my activities in fulfilling plans for research, analysis of data, findings, and practical application of my conclusions in course work at Talladega College.

The project was begun in June 1969. Final tabulation of data was made in September 1969. Applications are still in process and are subject to continuous modification in work in the classroom.

The report is divided into four sections:

- I Statement of the problem. Objectives in conducting research.
- II Procedures of research and outline of data obtained.
- III Application of findings to local problems. Consideration of their application to similar problems in similar institutions.
- IV Financial report.

SECTION I

Background. Like many other predominantly Negro colleges in the South in the 1930's, Talladega embraced the idea of general education as a potential partial solution to its problem of educating young black men and women who, as victims of racial prejudice, had come to college with poor primary and secondary school training. These students also suffered in large measure from weak backgrounds in those areas generally considered to be the traditional heritage of cultured people in the Western world.

Humanities at Talladega. A course in General Humanities was therefore launched at Talladega in 1933. Since that time it has been mandatory for all freshmen regardless of career objectives; a second year has been mandatory only for sophomores intending to major in the Divisions of Humanities or Social Sciences.

The pressure of change. The extraordinary social and cultural changes of recent years have required a searching re-assessment of all educational objectives and procedures. Certainly that is true of courses in the General Humanities--and never more so than in their inclusion of the African and Afro-American materials which are sought so avidly by young black students. The use of these materials is in large measure an act of justice, for they have been too long ignored; but from a pedagogical point of view, they can also be seen as effective teaching instruments by which to develop powers of artistic, musical, and literary analysis, as well as to deepen the students' sense of their special heritage.

Problem. The problem, then, was to review the structure of the General Humanities courses at Talladega, and to do so against the background of developments in these areas at our sister colleges.

Course descriptions. There can be no question that Talladega in this course--or perhaps in congeries or related courses--still should seek "to acquaint the student with man's great contributions in literature, philosophy and religion, and art from ancient times to the present day, to introduce him to standards for judging the quality of such works, and to develop in him an appreciation for the best in these fields" (catalogue description, 1934). Nor should there be any question that the course should "provide a background for the student in his goals toward personal freedom, the establishment of values, the ability to make enlightened choices, and the formulation of a personal philosophy" (catalogue description, 1957). There is considerable question, however, as to the extent to which the course should confine itself to "developments and examples of the arts in western civilization from the classical Greek world to the present time" (current catalogue description--emphasis mine).

Related questions. As a study of this question evolved, other closely related questions inevitably intruded: should the approach of a General Humanities course continue to be dominant, or should the effort be divided into groups of separate, more specialized courses,

with the final synthesis left to the individual student? What requirements should be imposed for courses in history, foreign languages, or other subjects logically connected with humanistic study?

Talladega compared with sister colleges. A decision was made to discover if current practices in our sister colleges would provide guidance.

SECTION II

Institutions to be surveyed. Although each institution in the family of American colleges has its unique qualities, still certain common elements can be discerned in various groupings. A logical grouping for Talladega, it seemed, was the constituency of the United Negro College Fund. All the members are predominantly black, small, private institutions. All those chosen for the survey are fully accredited by the appropriate regional agency. Most confine themselves to liberal arts programs. Those with technical or professional orientation still include the liberal arts as a major part of their offerings.

Colleges omitted. Final respondents to inquiries can be seen in the fold-out chart later in Section II of this report. It should be noted that help was also sought from Bethune-Cookman (Florida), Bishop (Texas), Fisk (Tennessee), Knoxville (Tennessee), Morehouse (Georgia), and Shaw (North Carolina), but either received no reply or was advised that the latest catalogue (the main source of primary information) was still in the press and had not been released.

Assistance from course directors. Where institutions offered--or, more usually, required--courses in the General Humanities, I attempted to reach the directors of such programs to inquire about the incorporation of African and/or Afro-American materials. This attempt, being made as it was during the summer vacation, was not always successful; but, as will be seen later in this report (Section III), enough recommendations were gathered to make the effort worthwhile.

Diffuse suggestions. The problem with these recommendations from other directors is their diffusion. They are often sprawling, contradictory, fragmentary, and tentative. It would probably be worth another full research project to survey such programs in extensive detail, with highly precise detailed questions, rather than to invite, as I did, loose and spontaneous offerings of information that came "off the top of the head," as it were, and also at a time when most respondents were exhausted after the close of an academic year.

Student survey omitted. Problems of time (specifically the concentration of work in the summer) also kept me from soliciting student opinion about the value of the course; it had earlier seemed to me that juniors and seniors who had previously worked through the General Humanities programs at Talladega would be in a good position to comment on its strengths and weaknesses. Perhaps such a survey could still be conducted. Also omitted, for reasons of time and the need to focus on a manageable subject area, were discussions of the extent to which history should be incorporated in the humanities courses, or should be left exclusively to the Division of Social Sciences.

Notes concerning General Humanities programs at our sister colleges:

In the fold-out chart which follows, these symbols are used:

Y = Not offered.

- = Offered, but not required.

X = Not required, but offered among several options. (For instance, Western Civilization might be included along with economics, sociology, European or American history, political science, etc., from which a selection must be made.)

In the pages after the chart, I have given the exact course description, as printed in the catalogue, where a General Humanities course as such is offered.

The numbered notes (see the "Remarks" column) follow these course descriptions.

A statement about languages is called for: most colleges permit students to take proficiency examinations and thus reduce, or entirely avoid, required language courses. But minimum standards (generally of passing a second-year-level course) are usually called for, except in five cases, as the tables will show.

In almost all cases where a course in Western Civilization is shown as being not required, but offered among several options ("X"), the student must choose either American History or History of Western Civilization. However, note that in several institutions, no history course at all is required.

Where the institution has a heavy orientation toward technical or professional objectives (e.g., Hampton or Tuskegee), I followed the program prescribed for students majoring in the liberal arts.

REQUIRED HOURS IN HUMANITIES AND HISTORY AT TWENTY-TWO PREDOMINANTLY
NEGRO INSTITUTIONS

	Humanities as such	Fresh. Engl. or Communications	Speech	Foreign Language	English Lit. or World Lit.	Western Civilization	Philosophy and/or Religion	Art Appreciation or Equivalent	Music Appreciation or Equivalent	Remarks
Benedict (S.C.)	Y	6	-	-	6	X	9		3	See Note #1
Bennett (N.C.)	6	6	-	-	X	X	6	-	-	See Note #2
Clafin (S.C.)	Y	6	-	12	6	6	6	2	2	
Clark (Ga.)	Y	6	3	12	6	-	6	3	3	See Note #3
Dillard (La.)	-	8	-	12	6	X	6	2	2	See Note #4
*Hampton (Va.)	Y	6	4	12	-	X	X	X	X	
Howard (D.C.)	Y	6	3	14	-	X	3	X	X	See Note #5
Huston- Tillotson (Tex.)	6	6	-	12	-	X	3	-	-	
Johnson C. Smith (N.C.)	Y	6	X	12	6	X	X	X	X	See Note #6
Lane (Tenn.)	2	6	-	-	6	-	4	-	-	See Note #7
LeMoyne- Owen (Tenn.)	Y	12	-	-	4	-	4	3	3	See Note #7
Livingstone (N.C.)	Y	6	3	12	6	X	6	3	3	
Morris Brown (Ga.)	6	6	2	12	-	-	6	-	-	See Note #8
Paine (Ga.)	Y	3	3	12	3	6	12	2	2	
Philander Smith (Ark.)	6	6	3	12	-	X	6	-	-	
Saint Augustine's (N.C.)	4	6	-	12	5	6	6	-	-	
Stillman (Ala.)	3	6	-	12	X	-	6	-	-	
Talladega (Ala.)	12	8	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	See Note #9
Tougaloo (Miss.)	Y	6	3	12	6	6	3	3	3	
Tuskegee (Ala.)	6	6	-	X	6	6	X	X	X	See Note #10
Virginia Union (Va.)	Y	6	3	12	6	6	6		3	See Note #11
Wiley (Tex.)	3	6	3	12	3	X	6	-	-	

* - Since this report was completed, I have been informed that Hampton has dropped out of membership in the United Negro College Fund. V. De B.

DESCRIPTIONS OF HUMANITIES COURSES AS SUCH

(quoted from catalogues)

Bonnet: A study of human values as they are reflected in the literature, art, music, religion, and philosophy of Western Civilization.

Huston-Tillotson: A study of the cultural achievement and progress of Western Man from the Low Middle Ages through the Renaissance to our contemporary world. This course will analyze those great works which embody the best of Western thought in the fields of music, literature, philosophy and art by relating these to man's historical process.

Lano: A survey of the great works of art and music, with some attention being given to drama and literature. The course is designed to give the students a greater understanding and appreciation of these areas.

Morris Brown: A course designed to include those disciplines which emphasize the intellectual, aesthetic, and ethical values of the heritage. It attempts to show students out of what social emotions and needs various works of art arose, the relation of these works to the culture of the times, the criteria by which they were judged beautiful, and the way the artist's mind works in translating his ideas and impulses into the various media of expression.

Philander Smith: Survey of major writers and movements from earliest time to the present, including their relationship to the art, music, and philosophy of the various periods.

St. Augustine's: A study of the creative process as it is reflected in art, music, philosophy, drama, and any other medium which uses the imagination in an attempt to communicate. It stresses the kind of knowledge offered by the arts, particularly in their interpretation of human emotions and experiences. The work of the course centers around the major thought patterns, writings, and works of art which characterize each of the major periods in western culture. Assignments are made from writings of and about major figures in each period; students are encouraged to make critical judgements based on these readings.

Stillman: A preliminary exploring of how painting, sculpture, architecture, design, the dance, and many forms of music express the meaning man finds in life.

Tuskegee: A course introducing students to some of the more influential ideas of Western Civilization in religion, history, philosophy, drama, literature, and the social and natural sciences, through reading original works, discussions, and regular papers.

Wiley: A chronological sampling of the major movements of ideas, thoughts, and cultures with special reference to literature, philosophy, religion and fine arts that helped to shape human civilization. Representative masters: Aeschylus, Homer, Sophocles, Euripides, Plato, Aristotle, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, et al. (Classical); the Evangelists; Dante (Medieval); Shakespeare (Renaissance). History of arts, types of art.

NUMBERED NOTES (refer to "REMARKS" column, chart)

- #1 At Bonofict, a three-hour course in "Afro-American Studies" is required. Bonofict is the only college surveyed which has this type of requirement. In a catalogue grouping called "Afro-American Studies" there are eleven possible courses, each for three hours of credit, in history, literature, sociology, religion, and economics.
- #2 At Bennett, study of a foreign language is required for students majoring in the humanities, but not for those majoring in the sciences or social sciences.
- #3 Clark does not require Western Civilization, but it does require a six-hour course in American History.
- #4 Dillard offers a humanities course only to upperclassmen, conducted as a seminar--principally an effort to bring together not only artistic, musical, and literary influences, but to show how they interact with politics and social forces, etc., in the contemporary world.
- #5 Howard has a "Humanities Sequence" from which all students are required to select one course: Art Appreciation, Introduction to the Theatre, Greek (or Latin) Literature in English, Major Writers in English, French Literature in English, German Literature in English, Spanish Literature in English, or Russian Literature in English. In its "Social Science Sequence" Howard offers "history" (either Western Civilization or U. S. History) as only one choice among others including anthropology, business administration, economics, government, geography, or sociology.
- #6 Johnson S. Smith College, aside from its requirements in freshman English, foreign language, and English Literature, has a wide variety of options from which choices must be made:

Six hours required from:

Judeo-Christian Heritage (3)
World Religions (3)
Introduction to Philosophy (3)
Ethics (3)
Logic (3)

Six hours required from:

Art Appreciation (3)
Music Appreciation (3)
Speech (3)
Drama (3)

Six hours required from:

Western Civilization (6)
U. S. History (6)
Hispanic America (3)
Non-Western History (3)

Six hours required from:

Introductory Economics (3)
Introductory Political Science (3)
Introductory Sociology (3)
Introductory Psychology (3)

- #7 Both Lane and LeMoyné-Owens Colleges require a "Social Sciences" omnibus course of 8 credits--a survey combining anthropology, sociology, economics, and government.
- #8 Morris Brown College requires a nine-hour sequence under a general "Social Science" heading, including three 3-hour courses called Man in Society, American History, and American Government.
- #9 Talladega requires six hours in the General Humanities for all students; twelve hours for those majoring in the Divisions of Humanities and Social Sciences.

Talladega has had a Social Sciences 101 course which, in past years, substantially offered a review of the history of Western Civilization. Recently, however, it has tended rather to serve as an omnibus introductory course to the social sciences, with considerable diminution in traditional historical content.

- #10 Tuskegee indicates that instead of demonstrated language competence, a student may pass College Algebra and Trigonometry (linear and quadratic functions, inverse functions, exponential and logarithmic functions, determinants, progressions, mathematical induction, permutations and combinations, and complex numbers);

or:

twelve semester hours made up of a pattern of courses outside the major discipline which either: "a) supports the student's major and is approved by the major department; or is b) representative of an area of the student's interest and approved by the Educational Policies Committee."

- #11 Virginia Union does not have an Art or Music Department. It does, however, have a Humanities Department which teaches three courses, required of all students: History and Appreciation of Music (1½ cr.), History and Appreciation of Art (1½ cr.), and World Literature (6 cr.).

SECTION III

Some general observations. One fact is quickly obvious. If we seek guidance from the patterns followed by our sister colleges and universities, we will be frustrated, for patterns are almost equally divided. Of the twenty-two institutions studied (including Talladega), eleven do not have a required General Humanities course as such; ten do have such a course; and one (Dillard) has an optional course which is open only to upperclassmen. With few exceptions, the eleven colleges and universities not offering such a course have either required course work in art, music, philosophy, and related areas, or demand that their students make selections among options that effectively involve them in the humanities.

Talladega unique. It will be noted that Talladega is the only college to require as many as twelve hours in the General Humanities for students majoring in the Divisions of Humanities or Social Sciences. Perhaps some justification for this unusual pattern is called for--keeping in mind, at the same time, that some other institutions require as many as twenty-two (Paine), sixteen (Claflin), or fifteen (Tougaloo and Virginia Union) hours among other mandatory courses in humanistic subjects.

Black materials. As stated above (see pages 184 and 185) a major part of the project was directed to a survey of the use of African and Afro-American materials by directors of General Humanities courses in other institutions. Their comments were scattered and often contradictory; some were hewing strictly to the customary concentration on Western culture, while others were experimenting widely in other cultures and hardly touching the Western tradition at all, except where it has direct relevance to the modern American black man.

Personal use of suggestions. At Talladega our course is still focussed strongly on the Western tradition, but it is flexible enough to consider a variety of other influences. Therefore, using suggestions from other institutions, our General Humanities 101 course in the past year has developed through these units of study:

a) How to look at a picture. Examination of artistic values not only in the well-known "masterpieces" but at least 50% of attention given to works by Afro-Americans. (Almost all commercial supply houses--Prothmann and Shorewood come most quickly to mind--are now issuing slides and prints of work by black artists. Also available are slides from the Division of Cultural Research at Fisk University.)

b) How to listen to music. Examination of musical values (rhythm, melody, harmony, texture) in modern black works. Extension from these "pop" works to the classics, trying as much as possible to use recordings by distinguished Negro performers. Use also of spiritual and folk-music such as blues.

c) Study of myth. Comparison of Greek-Roman mythology with African mythology and Afro-American folklore.

d) Grocco. The rise of the first great Western culture. Student paper: imaginary action if an ancient Greek were magically transported to an American black ghetto; or if a modern black man suddenly found himself in classical Athens. (Other papers were given through the year; this is the only one specifically Afro-American in application.)

e) Sculpture. Extensive side-by-side study of classical Greek statues and African sculpture, as reflections of culture and showing different artistic attitudes.

f) Drama. Contrast of a Greek work like Antigone (based on Aristotelean principles) with a modern black play like Dutchman or The Slave. Differing views of man as protagonist, man within his society.

g) The Middle Ages. Gothic art and architecture. Feudal society. Medieval Christianity compared with Negro religion as in spirituals and God's Trombones. Beginnings of Western music in plainsong and Gregorian chant compared with African music, especially monorhythm vs. polyrhythm and development of different instrumentation.

h) Renaissance. Individualism and its effect on modern society. Contrast with a series of modern black plays: No Place to Be Somebody, The Great White Hope, Ceremonies in Dark Old Men, In the Wine Time, and The Electronic Nigger.

i) Renaissance art. Progress toward realism, perspective. Return to Greek love of the beauty of the body. The Renaissance tradition shown in handling of single figures; the handling of groups and large masses--all the latter drawn from contemporary black artists.

j) Renaissance music. Motet and madrigal, development of modern instrumentation. How the Western and Afro-American streams inter-twine. A brief history of Afro-American music.

k) How to read a poem. The roots of the Western poetic tradition in the Renaissance. Scansion, prosody, metrics, rhyme schemes. Examples based almost entirely on works by black authors. Also analysis of spirituals and traditional hymns for alliteration, simile, metaphor, imagery, allusion, onomatopoeia, etc.

l) Bulletin board. Throughout the year a bulletin board has been maintained, almost exclusively devoted to black subjects--numerous items of general interest (such as demonstrations, integration problems, and so on) but also clippings about black singers, dancers, composers, artists, dramatists, and others concerned in humanistic creativity. Board items usually changed at intervals of three weeks.

To date. The above outline shows the work done up to this writing (March 31, 1970) in an attempt to weave black materials into the conventional review of humanistic culture in Western civilization, providing the student also with standards by which to judge music, art, and literature. The course is in a constant state of evolution--often very uneasy--and the forecast for the remainder of this academic year is by no means clear.

Problems. If we assume that the basic framework of the course will continue to be the humanistic tradition in Western civilization, the principle difficulty is the intelligible introduction of black materials so that they are not merely "stitched on," as it were, in order to quiet student unrest and to answer their demands for congenial subject matter, but also to see that they are related to the studies at hand and aid to pedagogical effectiveness. One may also see from the outline above that the course continually shifts sharply in time and place. Some students are stimulated by this; others are confused and/or maddened by it.

Students' commitment. It would of course be "easy"--and, let's face it, most logical--to adhere to chronological development of Western culture. But, alas, it would also be unrealistic. Some way must be found to harness the students' deeply emotional commitment to the search for their own black identity, turning it into a potent instrument of humanistic awareness and, ultimately, lasting self-education.

Statement of gratitude. The author of this report wishes to state his deep appreciation to the Amistad Research Center and to Talladega College for their joint support of his research project. The results have perhaps been inconclusive--but they have also cast stronger light on potential methods of developing an effective program in the General Humanities for the present generation of students in predominantly Negro colleges and universities in the United States.

Vincent C. De Baun
Talladega College
Talladega, Alabama 35160
March 31, 1970

SURVEY OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF TALLADEGA COMMUNITY ADULTS

A. B. Leach

Summary of Methods Used

1. Working closely in connection with the Social Science Department at Talladega College, and using city maps, phone books, city directory, and personal canvas, a list was prepared of all black homes in the community.

2. These homes were listed on numbered pages in a loose leaf binder, nine homes to a page. Every home listed thus has a unique number in the book, a four digit number, of which the page number is the first three digits (from 001 to 1125) and the last (fourth) digit is the number of entry on page (1 to 9).

3. Using a standard table of 5 digit random numbers, and ignoring the fifth digit, as well as all 'fourth digit = 0' numbers, one hundred homes were selected for the survey. (Since the number of pages was less than 200, all numbers in the table beginning with 0-2-4-6 or 8 were considered to begin with 0, and all numbers beginning with 1-3-5-7-9 were considered to begin with 1.)

4. These one hundred locations were used in survey, and all were investigated by canvassers.

5. After several trial forms, considerable advice from consultants, etc., a standard interview form was prepared and used for each of the 100 locations above (See Item I - Appendix).

6. A group of twelve students was selected as canvassers, and an extended training session was held, directed by Mr. Harold Franklin and myself.

7. Canvassers were directed to:

a) Engage in general conversation about adult education needs of the black community, and record the comments in the top of the form.

b) After this, to run through the activities listed and check off those to which the persons being interviewed responded favorably.

8. Careful controls were kept, all locations checked, and the results summarized, tallied, and placed on computer cards.

Results of Survey

The results can be summarized in two separate ways, the first based on the free responses of the interviewee at the beginning of the interview, and the second based on the responses to the items as

mentioned by the interviewer. The first, listed as free-responses, vary widely, and involve some items we were not directly concerned with, but are listed here as indicative of the interested concerns of the adults in the community.

The numbers listed are the number of such responses/one hundred homes and therefore represent percentage of responses/homes.

<u>Free Responses</u> (given more than once)	Responses/ 100 homes
1. Learn about getting roads fixed	13
2. Playground-Recreation centers needed	20
3. Social activities led by Talladega College for young people to combat delinquency	8
4. Information about pre-school care	10
5. Get better water system	3
6. Get better street lights	3
7. Information against job discrimination	2
8. Medical information	2
9. Cooking classes	2
10. Sewing classes	2
(Responses given only once)	
1. Sewer-line information	1
2. Social security information	1
3. Home improvement information	1
4. Talladega College sponsored community sports	1
5. Talladega College provide school supplies for "kids"	1
6. Information about health care for school children	1
7. Westside swimming pool dangerous (Person felt the deep end not adequately separated from shallow end for non-swimmer tots)	1
8. Clean up swamps in community	1
9. Children of blacks (12 and 14 age group) play truant from school and no action taken	1
10. Talladega College should lead black involvement (Two of persons interviewed expressed hostility at being called "blacks", preferred "Negro")	1
11. Talladega College should work on community problems	1
12. Opposed to split-school sessions (Present integration plans call for this measure for next year)	1
13. Talladega College should take back Westside High School and run it for blacks only (When Talladega community first started a high school for blacks, Talladega College gave town many acres of its land as a building site)	1
14. Black children will need tutoring to pass at the integrated high school	1
15. Talladega College should lead communication within the black community (Two interviewees expressed view that TIA and NAACP were only for rich Negroes, and that they felt left out)	1

- | | |
|---|---|
| 16. Talladega College should encourage blacks (youths) to use the formerly all-white recreation centers that are now open to blacks | 1 |
| 17. Provide black history course | 1 |
| 18. Provide information about police powers | 1 |
| 19. Talladega College should provide books for home study by black adults | 1 |
| 20. Course on running cash register | 1 |
| 21. High school science courses | 1 |
| 22. Community College Program needed | 1 |
| 23. Art courses | 1 |
| 24. Tennis instruction | 1 |
| 25. Information about insurance | 1 |
| 26. Course for adults to complete high school education | 1 |
| 27. Summer school at Talladega College | 1 |
| 28. Teen-age counseling for community | 1 |
| 29. Swimming sessions for pre-schoolers at Talladega College | 1 |
| 30. Talladega College should sponsor religious programs | 1 |
| 31. Talladega College should offer religious study program for adults | 1 |
| 32. Talladega College should offer business courses | 1 |

Classification of Questionnaires

On the basis of the overall response on each questionnaire, all questionnaires were classified in one of four categories by the principal investigator, as follows:

	Number of Such Surveys
No one lives at this address	3
Favorable response--would like to take part	84
Neutral or uninterested	12
Unresponsive to survey	1

(The principal investigator classified as "neutral or uninterested" all persons who, although stating they were interested, said they would not take part themselves because of old age, sickness, too busy, or similar reasons.)

Responses to Check-off Items

(Note: since exactly one hundred homes were included in the survey--out of the 1,012 black homes believed to be in Talladega--the numbers after each item may be interpreted as the numbers of persons interested in that item per 100 black homes in Talladega.)

School Studies

Beginning reading	27)	Interested in reading
Elementary reading	14)	instruction = 46
Advanced reading	5)	

Beginning; writing	25)	Interested in writing
Elementary writing	14)	instruction = 43
Advanced writing	6)	
Beginning; arithmetic	25)	Interested in arithmetic
Elementary arithmetic	12)	instruction = 46
Advanced arithmetic	9)	
Typing	24	
Bookkeeping	19	
Punch card work	8	
Computers	9	

Expressed interest in other school subjects 14

Home Information Sessions

First Aid	44
Simple nursing care	19
How to help the sick	20
Home rental information	13
Home purchase information	6
Home repair and improvement ideas	26
How to repair it	20
Home repair workshop	21
Banking, loan and saving information	19
Time purchase information	9
Shopping ideas - food	20
Shopping ideas - clothing	15

Community and political Interests

Political forums with black emphasis	6
Voter information - current trends	22
Question and answer sessions	15
Voter registration assistance	13
Current black information	17
Special sessions on current community problems as they arise	36

Social Services Information (General)

Jobs and employment	32
Civil rights	23
Economic rights	13
General legal information sessions	12
Welfare information	32
Negro organizations (TIA - NAACP, etc.)	31
Medical and nursing services	36

School Information and Assistance Services

Sessions about Talladega school integration	13
Free lunch programs	38

What services schools offer pupils	6
What courses schools offer pupils	5
What counseling schools offer pupils	8
Tutoring services to community students by Talladega College students	12
Study hall - study aids program	28
Opportunities for students beyond high school	20
Opportunities for students beyond junior college	3
Opportunities for students beyond college	2
<u>Vocational and Educational Counseling to High School Students by College Students</u>	17
<u>Preschool Needs in Community</u>	31
<u>Recreational Opportunities</u>	
Community musical groups	10
Community vocal groups 2	2
Community instrumental groups	6
Community drama-acting groups	3
Swimming sessions	16
Non swimmer and swimmer recreational swimming	7
Instructional sessions for:	
Non swimmers	8
Beginners	2
Advanced swimmers	1
Life savers	7
Library Sessions with Advisor Services	16
For recreational interests	2
For informational needs	4
For study planning	8

Summary Remarks

1. There is a strong interest among the black adults of the Town of Talladega in instruction in the fundamentals of reading, writing, and arithmetic.
2. There is a strong interest in first aid, nursing, and sick room care information.
3. There is a strong concern in the adult black community for the problems of the school age person, as evidenced by interest in such items as pre-school information, free lunch program information, tutoring services, and study hall aid. When considered in the light of the integration of schools and the split-shift at the high school level planned for September 1970, this indicates an area where Talladega College could provide much needed information and instruction.
4. There is an interest (36 persons/100 homes) in College sponsored sessions dealing with the problems of the black community which arise from time to time.

Final Conclusions

1. This survey indicates a real interest in adult educational instruction among the black Talladega community.

2. This interest--and this need--fully justify Talladega College planning programs and seeking outside funds to provide (evening) instruction in several areas to the Talladega black community.

Royal B. Leach
Talladega College

TALLADEGA COLLEGE SURVEY
Talladega, Alabama 36860

Address

Phone

Adults in home:

If Talladega College was able to provide a program of educational opportunities in the evening at no cost to the adult members of the black community, would you be interested in taking part? In what ways could TC help most? What would interest you? Best hours? Best days? Any other ideas about ways TC could work with the community? Suggestions?

School Studies

Reading	Beg.	Elem.	Adv.	*Typing
Writing	Beg.	Elem.	Adv.	*Bookkeeping
Arithmetic	Beg.	Elem.	Adv.	*Punch Card Work
Any other 'school' subject				*Computers

Home Information Sessions

First Aid	Simple nursing care	How to help the sick
Home rental	Home purchase	Home repair and improvement ideas
How to repair it	Home repair workshop	
Banking, loan and savings info.	Time purchase information	
Shopping ideas-food	Shopping ideas-clothing	Other ideas

Political Forums with Black Emphasis

Voter information-current trends	Voter registration assistance
Question and answer sessions	Current Black Information
Social Sessions on current community problems as they arise	
Others	

Social services information

Jobs and employment	Welfare information
Civil Rights	Negro Organizations (TIA-NAACP) etc.
Economic Rights	Medical and Nursing Services
Legal Information Sessions	General What special

School Information Services and Assistance Services

Sessions about Talladega school integration	Free lunch programs
What services schools offer pupils:	Courses Counseling
Tutoring Services to community students by college students	
Study hall - study aids program	
Opportunities for students beyond high school	JC College
Vocational and educational counseling to HS students by	
College students	Other needs

Preschool Needs

What is needed

Recreational Opportunities

Community musical groups	Vocal	Instrumental
Drama or acting groups	What?	
Swimming sessions - Non-swimmer and swimmer recreational groups		
Instruction sessions for - Non-swimmer	Beginner	Advanced Swimmer
Evening library sessions with advisor services	Life Saver	
Recreational	Needed informational	Study Plan

Any other thoughts or suggestions on your part that TC might help to provide?

Interviewer: _____

EVALUATION OF CDGM HEADSTART PROGRAM

by
Claire E. Hines

The activities undertaken under the project funded include a study of the financial effects of Headstart on the teachers in the Headstart centers, the effects of Headstart on the self-image of children currently enrolled in Headstart classes and the "academic effectiveness" of Headstart in four counties as measured by the change in the number of promoted and non-promoted students since Headstart graduates joined public school classes.

The most successfully accomplished study was that done in partial replication of the findings of Kenneth Clark concerning self-image of Black children. In a series of situations, a number of questions were asked Headstart children concerning preferences and identifications. Sample questions given to 3-5 year olds. 15 males and 15 females, included preliminary questions to see whether children could "realistically" identify colors by having them choose crayons to color apples etc.; they were then asked to color a picture of a child "like you." Children were also given paired pictures, one of a Black person, one of a white, and asked "Show me the one...is most like you, lives in a dirty house, is pretty, is stupid, you would most like to play with." The results of this study were surprising and disappointing. In spite of exposure to Black materials and to a curriculum presumably designed to develop a source of identity and self-worth (a stated aim of the CDGM program), and to Blacks in positions as leaders, teachers, supervisors, these children had a very low self-image. These showed up most strongly in the finding that 90% of the children chose the Black picture as "stupid." Of course the sample is small, therefore the results can best be regarded as tentative, however surprising they may seem.

The study of the financial effects of having funds connected with Headstart available showed what one would expect. The median income for the people interviewed rose by a figure ranging from \$485 in the low county to \$1920 in the county showing the greatest gain in median income. People did the expected things with their additional money: home improvements, lessened number of welfare recipients, better food, better medical care, in some cases, more travel out of the county. No direct educational benefits can be attributed to this increase in wealth, however no deficits can be attributed to it either.

The results of the "academic effectiveness" study are hopeful. Initially the statement must be made that the proposed research is categorically impossible to perform with the present program and the present system of record keeping and test administration in the four counties selected. Headstart records are unavailable in many cases. Where they are available, they are incomplete and inaccurate, thus precluding the possibility of obtaining matched control groups in the public school with whom to compare the Headstart graduates. Public school records are incomplete in that they are often not available for more than one or two years, rather than three or four that would be required to do the study properly. Many of the schools do not give either readiness or "intelligence" tests in the first grade, thus

leaving the experimenter without a measure. Grades should provide a substitute measure, however it appeared at least in the school most carefully studied that there was a ceiling effect at the C level--few or no children received A or B grades. This would of course tend to decrease the likelihood of detecting a difference in the two groups. And finally, since in many schools there are situations in which Headstart graduates make up more than 90% of the population, there is an absolute impossibility of obtaining a control group at all.

In the course of some early work in this study, and throughout the time, in talking to principals and first grade teachers there was virtual agreement that Headstart has helped. The area in which its effects are most commonly reported is "social training" and emotional areas, not in academic preparation. Teachers and principals report that students have less difficulty adjusting to leaving home and to the conditions of school: there is less homesickness, less crying, and less fearful behavior. Unfortunately there is no way to measure this now. A corollary of this increase in social adjustment was the decreased need for teachers to spend time on teaching table manners, "hall manners" and how to use silverware and the toilet. As a result of this, it was asserted, more time could be spent on academic affairs and therefore there were fewer failures in the first grade than there had been prior to Headstart.

With this in mind, an attempt was made to secure records of the number of promoted and non-promoted students over the past 5 years. If teachers and principals were correct, then the number of failures should decrease when Headstart graduates enter the classes. All principals who were contacted agreed to furnish the requested information, however they did not all do so. In many cases the records were not available.

The results of analysis of the data available suggest that teachers and principals may well be correct. In two of the three counties for which sufficient data were available to analyze, the number of failures in the county for the first grade decreased in the years after Headstart graduates began attending schools. In the third county, the number of failures increased very slightly. In all three counties, and in all schools examined individually, the number of failures in the second grade decreased greatly when Headstart graduates were enrolled. In the one county for which third grade data were available, the number of third grade failures likewise decreased. The same pattern appeared when individual schools were examined: first grade results were most mixed, second and third grade results all showed a decrease in failures.

Clearly such a coarse-grained analysis cannot be used as anything other than general supportive information concerning the "academic usefulness" of Headstart. There are numerous factors which could have caused the decrease in failures, none, some or all of which might be unrelated to Headstart. It is reassuring however to find that at least to some degree, the perception of teachers that they are failing fewer students "because of Headstart" is not totally false.

One dimension of this report needs to be mentioned. That is the opportunity provided to several students to participate in some aspect of this research. It is this extra involvement which took sufficient

time to merit additional faculty cooperation for time spent consulting with students. It was worth it, both in terms of student involvement and in terms of what I personally learned.

Claire Morse
Tougaloo College

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

AMISTAD RESEARCH CONSORTIUM

Introduction

The primary function of the Amistad Research Consortium is to strengthen the research capabilities that already exist within the faculties of the cooperating institutions.

The basic approach of the Consortium is to encourage and assist member institutions to develop the machinery for stimulating and conducting research activities on their own campus. This will be done through cooperative planning by representatives from each institution, through a series of research development workshops, and through individual faculty member involvement in research orientated activities.

These research orientated activities known as Research Grants and Development Seminars are described in this pamphlet.

RESEARCH GRANTS

A. Purposes

- to encourage faculty from member institutions to develop proposals and undertake research projects and thus gain experience in research related activities
- to make available immediate funding opportunities

B. Scope

- grants to individuals will not exceed \$1,200
- grants may be combined where proposals are cooperatively developed

C. Nature of expected activities

- proposals leading to program development and instructional improvement
- discipline (content) related proposals and projects
- applications for "seed" grant to do the preliminary research for preparing research proposals for submission to the U. S. Office of Education or foundations are especially encouraged.

D. Local support

- The local institution is expected to contribute 50% of the total cost of the project. Local support may include compensation for released time to participate in the project.

E. Application Procedures

- applications may be submitted on or before May 1, 1969
- grants will be awarded as follows:
 - screening and recommendation by staff
 - notification to all applicants - 2 weeks after receipt of application.

DEVELOPMENT SEMINARS

- A. Purposes
 - to encourage faculty members from several disciplines to work cooperatively on mutual concerns
 - to develop inter-disciplinary based proposals
- B. Scope
 - cooperative activities involving 2 or more academic departments
 - activities requiring up to \$750
- C. Nature of expected activities
 - institutionally related operational problems
 - discipline related projects
 - instructional problems
- D. Application Procedures
(Same as for Research Grants)

Application for Support
(Do Not Use Additional Pages)

Type of Project: Development Seminar Research Grant

Name of Applicant: _____

Title and Department: _____

College or University: _____

Short Title of Proposed Project: _____

1. Nature and significance of Problem (In language understandable to non-expert):

2. Statement of Objectives:

3. Planned Activities or Procedure:

4. Relation to Other Activity:

A. Previous work done by applicant in this area:

B. Work done by others in this area:

C. If this is a continuation of a project already underway, please attach 2 copies of a separate brief report of progress to date.

5. Budget:*

A. Specific dates: Beginning _____ Ending _____

B. Major Expenditures: _____ Support _____

Amistad _____ Local _____

1) Consultants: _____

2) Materials: _____

3) Travel: _____

4) Other (itemize); _____

TOTAL _____

C. Explanatory Remarks:

*If the proposed grant is awarded, the grantee agrees to complete the project and submit a final report by May 1, 1970. The Report will include: a) a brief (2 page) description of the activities undertaken, b) the degree to which objectives were accomplished, and c) a validated financial report of moneys expended.

Date Submitted: _____ Signature: _____

Institutional Approval: _____

Transmit 3 copies to:

Clifton H. Johnson
Amistad Research Center
Fisk University
Nashville, Tennessee 37203

APPENDIX II

CONTRACT

RESEARCH GRANT

This contract is entered into this _____
by and between the Amistad Research Center and _____
to enable _____ to carry out the research speci-
fied in his research proposal dated _____.

It is agreed that _____ on behalf of
_____ will be the principal investigator and that
he will pursue the study diligently and that he will render reports
as required and that the final report will be submitted on/by June 1,
1970.

This report is to include a brief (two page) description of
the activities undertaken, the degree to which the objectives were
accomplished, and a validated financial report of the moneys expended.

Upon this receipt of a signed copy of this contract, a check
for _____ of the grant or _____, will be forwarded.
The balance of _____ or _____, will be paid upon
acceptance of the final report.

Date approved _____ Signature _____

Institutional Acceptance _____ Date _____
PRESIDENT

Principal Investigator Acceptance _____ Date _____

APPENDIX III

REPORT OF EDUCATION RESEARCH EXPENDITURES

Contract under the CORD Program with the Amistad Research Center

Complete three copies and send to:
 Amistad Research Center
 Fisk University
 Nashville, Tennessee 37203

Date of Reporting Period
 From:
 To:

Name and address of institution to which grant was made:

Name and title of research director or principal investigator:

A. Summary of federal funds from Amistad

- | | |
|---|----------|
| 1. Amount received | \$ _____ |
| 2. Amount due on approval of final report | _____ |
| 3. Total | _____ |

B. Expenditures

	<u>Contributions by the college</u>	<u>Grant from Amistad*</u>
1. Salaries and wages	\$ _____	\$ _____
2. Employee benefits	_____	_____
3. Travel	_____	_____
4. Supplies and materials	_____	_____
5. Communications	_____	_____
6. Services		
a. Duplication and reproduction	_____	_____
b. Statistical	_____	_____
c. Other	_____	_____
7. Final report production	_____	_____
8. Equipment allowance	_____	_____
9. Other	_____	_____
10. TOTALS	_____	_____

*Includes expenditures against balance due from Amistad

Report prepared by (Signature and title)

Signature and title of college fiscal officer

