The Effects of Black Studies' Instruction on the Self-Concept of Senior High School Students.

Ruby Jean Simms

Louisiana State University and Agricultural & Mechanical College

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THE EFFECTS OF BLACK STUDIES' INSTRUCTION ON THE
SELF-CONCEPT OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

in

The Department of Education

by

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B.S. Southern University, 1963
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ABSTRACT

Three supplementary units dealing with the black experience prior to the Civil War were constructed by the researcher and taught by three of the regularly assigned male teachers (one black and two whites) to black senior high school students. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of such instruction on the self-concepts of the students.

Six sections of American history, comprising 121 students (109 eleventh graders and 12 twelfth graders), were randomly assigned to three experimental and three control groups. The control group, composed of 61 students (31 females and 30 males), received no treatment; the 60 students in the experimental group (26 females and 34 males) were involved in the activities of the units, over a period of twelve weeks.

Ten categories of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale were used to assess the effects of the treatment on the self-concepts of the students. The data obtained from the randomized control-group post-test design was analyzed by means of the "t"-test. The .05 level of confidence was established for this study.

No statistically significant differences were found between the self-concept scores for the experimental and control group students in the areas of Self-Criticism; Identity; Self-Satisfaction; Physical Self; Personal Self; and Social Self. "t"-values were to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero.
There were several substantial differences, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, for the two groups in the areas of Behavior; Family Self; and total Positive Scores. Since the .05 level of confidence was not reached, the first null hypothesis was accepted.

A statistically significant difference was observed between the scores of the two groups in the area of Moral-Ethical Self ("t" = -1.98). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

No statistically significant differences were found between the self-concept scores for the females in each group in the areas of Self-Criticism; Identity; Physical Self; Moral-Ethical Self; Personal Self; Social Self; and total Positive Scores. Each "t"-value was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero.

There were several substantial differences, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, for the females in each group in the areas of Self-Satisfaction; Behavior; and Family Self. Since the .05 level of confidence was not reached, the second null hypothesis was accepted.

No statistically significant differences were found between the self-concept scores for the males in each group in the areas of Self-Criticism; Identity; Self-Satisfaction; Physical Self; Personal Self; Family Self; Social Self; and total Positive Scores. "T"-values were to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero except in the areas of Self-Satisfaction and Social Self.
There was a substantial difference, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, for the males in each group in the area of Behavior. Since the .05 level of confidence was established for this study, the third null hypothesis was accepted.

A statistically significant difference was found between the self-concept scores for the males in the area of Moral-Ethical Self ("t" = -2.09). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The analysis of the data indicated a statistically significant difference was obtained between the combined groups and male students only under one category—Moral-Ethical Self. However, trends toward change in self-concept were observed in several other categories.
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

... All my life I had been looking for something, and everywhere I turned someone tried to tell me what I was. I accepted their answers too, though they were often in contradiction and even self-contradictory. I was naive. I was looking for myself and asking everyone except myself questions which I, and only I, could answer. It took me a long time and much painful boomeranging of my expectations to achieve a realization everyone else appears to have been born with: That I am nobody but myself ... (Ellison, 1972: 13).

In recent years, American society has been confronted with a tremendous number of difficult social problems among them war, crime, pollution, drug abuse, poverty, population explosion, race, and the energy crisis. These issues are technically complex, but, more significantly, they have exposed extensive value conflicts within society (Heyns, 1971:212). As a result, America has experienced many changes in norms: languages, dress, and sexual behavior. The problems, value conflicts, and changes in attitude and behavior have generated a large degree of anxiety and protest in many segments of society.

More recently, mounting protest and concern about problems associated with the education of the black disadvantaged student have introduced anew and judicious attention to the tasks of the schools. Writers such as Winifred S. Scott (1967:160) have reported that a general degree of self-doubt is found in children of every socioeconomic class. However, those who grow up with unusual environmental deficits embrace attitudes and habits that retard the development of a sense of
adequacy and acceptability. Therefore, the problem is how to best aid
many black disadvantaged students in changing their self-concepts.

In recognizing the complexity of the problem various persons
have argued that the possibility of arresting and reversing the
negative self-concepts of many black disadvantaged students largely
depends on providing them with an optimal learning environment during
the course of their educational careers. Therefore, different
approaches within the learning environment have been suggested.

One approach which has been proposed by persons who have
investigated and observed the black disadvantaged student includes the
idea that the self-concept can be improved through the curriculum. In
recent years, professionals have looked at black studies' instruction
as an educational intervention strategy to aid the black disadvantaged
student in the development of a positive self-concept. It is believed
by many educators that black studies instruction can serve as the
generating core of educational efforts on behalf of black students.
Previous efforts to determine the potential of instruction as an
effective agent for achieving a positive view of self are limited.

Therefore, this research, reflecting an alternative approach
to the education of black disadvantaged students, grew out of a general
interest as to how and how much instruction in black studies, as an
integral part of the American history course, influences the black
student's self-concept.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Does instruction in black studies change the self-concept of the black student?

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Are there statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores, component and total, for black students who participate in a study of the black experience in American history and those who are not exposed to such treatment?

2. Are there statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores, component and total, for black females who participate in a study of the black experience in American history and those who are not exposed to such treatment?

3. Are there statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores, component and total, for black males who participate in a study of the black experience in American history and those who are not exposed to such treatment?

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This investigation was confined to senior high school students who attended an all-black school in East Baton Rouge Parish. The treatment was limited to twelve weeks of instruction in American history during the Fall Semester, 1975.
DEFINITION OF TERMS

Black Studies

Black studies includes instruction dealing with the role and contributions of blacks as an integral part of American history.

Blacks

This term is used to identify members of the black race who are of black African ancestry.

Black Identity

The development of a positive sense of self-worth through an awareness and acceptance of one's blackness and membership in the black race.

Self-Concept

The way the student perceives himself as indicated by his scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

Black Disadvantaged Student

Generally, a student who is a member of a low income family.

The Black Experience

A chronological presentation of the role and contributions of blacks in the development of America prior to the Civil War.
Black Experience Units

A compilation of suggested learning experiences and resources dealing with the role and contributions of blacks in America prior to the Civil War.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The effects of learning experiences upon the development of positive self-concepts of black students continues to be of interest to educators and psychologists. Many educators and writers have endorsed black studies as one means through which black students can find worthy models with whom to identify and guide them in expanding their conception of self.

This investigation will aid parents, professional personnel and the general public in the following ways:

1. The present study will reveal the influence of learning in the development of the self-concept.

2. The importance of the individual's concept of himself will be highlighted.

3. The findings will aid schools in revising academic programs so as to aid in decreasing some disadvantaged students' alienation from school and restore their motivation for academic success.

4. The study will aid the development of a positive self-concept which is essential to academic accomplishments and basic human needs.
5. The study will aid in further research in the field to discover additional ways of developing a positive self-concept.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

The population of this investigation was composed of black senior high school students enrolled in six sections of American history. The sections, composed of 121 students (109 eleventh graders and 12 twelfth graders), were randomly assigned to three experimental and three control groups. The control group involved 61 students (31 females and 30 males); 60 students (26 females and 34 males) were participants in the experimental group.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was administered at the end of the treatment period (12 weeks) by the researcher. All tests were hand scored and fed into a Litton Monroe model 1860 Statistical Programmable Printing Calculator for purpose of analysis. The "t"-test was used to analyze each of ten selected categories of the Scale. The .05 level of confidence was established for this study. The statistical results were summarized and conclusions drawn.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The remainder of this investigation was organized into four chapters. In Chapter 2 the related literature was reviewed; the sources of data, a description of the experimental and control groups, and the procedures followed in the administration of the experiment were presented in Chapter 3; and Chapter 4 was a presentation,
analysis and interpretation of the data. The summary, conclusions and recommendations relative to future studies constituted Chapter 5.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There are numerous studies purported to relate the self to other variables and/or to test some aspect of the self-concept theory. These studies assumed that the self-concept was developed and modified through learning. Research, however, pertaining to the influence of learning on the self-concept was limited. Since the complexity of human behavior has made it a difficult area to study, the relationship between black studies' instruction and improved self-concept will be a difficult one to evaluate. Consequently, the literature contained many more opinions than actual research evidence.

Although only those studies which attempt to identify and clarify the relationship between these two factors directly related to the present study, an overview of the development of the self-concept will be presented followed by research dealing with the self-concept of blacks and an examination of the positive aspects of black studies. Finally, research studies which are pertinent to the problem being investigated will be explored.

OVERVIEW: DEVELOPMENT OF THE SELF-CONCEPT

In recognizing the self as the product of an orderly process of growth which emanates out of the life experiences of each individual, the point must be made that the process will not be identical for any two individuals and that it will vary from one
culture to another. However, the point of view will be offered that
a certain amount of uniformity prevailed. Since such uniformity
originated from universal biological and psychological conditions and
limitations relevant to the processes of maturation and socialization,
it will be in an examination of self-concept development that we are
most likely to find supportive evidence for an explanation of an
individual's conception of self. The task will be to present a
summary of the process through which one's conception of self is
developed. Included will be selected investigations directly aimed
at the general area of self-concept development.

In studying the child, Jersild (1954:2) stated that there were
three steps in the process through which a person came into being:

The first step is conception. A person's life as a distinct
organism began when he is conceived. The next step is the
process of being born. At this point a person begins life as an
individual set aside physically from others. The third step is
the phase during which a person comes into being as a separate
self, aware of his existence, and his identity, and having
knowledge of a continuity of experience that is distinctively
his own. This phase begins after a person is born.

At birth a child's perception of the world or self was not
very clear. But as he grew and interacted with others, he developed
a growing awareness of self (Kinkmeyer, 1965:193). Self perception
began as the child was able to distinguish between his sensations and
the factors which gave rise to them. The child's image and
manipulation of his body led to his awareness of self. At this stage
he had become familiar with his physical world and the physical
presence of other people.
In the continuous stage of developing selfhood, the child's perception of self was enhanced or retarded by his experiences with others. Therefore, an examination of the effects of the home, school and teacher, and significant others was a prerequisite toward understanding the process of self-concept development. Attention was focused first on the home.

The home played a significant role in providing the atmosphere within which the child formulated his life style. Through his parent's guidance he learned that he was in some ways like other people, in some ways different from them, in some ways emotionally dependent on others, in some ways independent of them (Murphy, 1951:405). Parental guidance, love, security and the expectations of the family enabled the child to develop a positive sense of identity.

Therefore, the role of the parents in the development of the child's self-concept was most significant. According to Wylie (1961:121) this role was based on three assumptions:

1. The self-concept is a learned constellation of perceptions, cognitions and values; 2. an important part of learning comes from observing the reactions one gets from other persons; 3. the parents are the persons who are present earliest and most consistently. For this reason, and because of the child's dependence on them and his affection for them, the parents have a unique opportunity to re-enforce selectively the child's learning.

The parent-child relationship was highly important, but it does not inalterably fix the child's personality. Human personality and behavior are flexible and may be modified (Lehner and Kube, 1965:81). The child's personality was determined not only by his early
associations with his parents but also by his continuing experiences with others. Some of these will re-enforce his early experiences, others will modify or perhaps negate them. Forces worthy of additional comments are the school, teacher, and significant others in the community.

As the child entered school, he was brought into contact with a world where his parents were not present to give him support. It was in the school where he was provided with the opportunity to re-formulate his self-concept. His first dependency act could be to the teacher whose relationship with him will retard or enhance his evaluation of self as an achiever.

If the teacher followed a similar pattern of the home, the possibility that the child will question the universality of the feelings and prejudices he has already learned will be eliminated. However, when the teacher differs from the home, the child must face decisions and a growing need for self-judgment (Dinkmeyer, 1965:200). As this occurred, he had to make decisions which might result in his losing esteem with one significant person or another.

Therefore, the child will be provided with a new world when he enters schools. The school has requirements which cause him to obey limits established by other authority figures. Confrontation with such limits will aid the child in expanding his experiences and coping with new demands and restrictions. The school not only carries out the function of academic stimulation, it will be also concerned with the social adjustment of the child. In this capacity, the teacher will
be active in shaping the child's goals, concepts, convictions, and attitudes. He will provide the experiences and environment within which concepts, convictions, and assumptions will be formulated (Dinkmeyer, 1965:201).

As the child ventures away from the home his first dependency move may be toward his teacher, but he will soon develop a growing attraction to others in his environment. Since the self-concept develops out of the child's social interaction with others (Lehner and Kube, 1958:81), the response or "reflected appraisal" of significant others, (Snygg and Combs, 1959), is most important. Previous research validated the hypothesis that the individual's self-concept changed in terms of the reactions of those about him as they responded to his behavior.

Therefore, when the child entered into experiences with his peers and others, his self-concept was either enhanced or restricted in its development by his perception of certain experiences. His experiences moved from the home, to the school, and then to the community with both peers and adults. The general attitude of the community toward the child, the opinion of his parents toward the community, and his relationships with groups and leaders in the community influence his concept of self.

Research in the areas of the role of the parent, school and teacher, and "significant others" was voluminous when compared to investigations in the general area of self-concept development. In 1961 Wylie reported that no longitudinal data on which to base a
description of self-concept development was available. Studies of a
cross-sectional nature have also been limited. Despite these
limitations, Wylie (1961) provided a review of several investigations
which have a direct relationship to the general area of self-concept
development.

One of the earliest investigations in the area of self-concept
development came with the study of Havighurst, Robinson, and Dorr
(1946). The purpose of the investigation was to ascertain the
development of the ideal self by having the subjects write compositions
describing "The Person I Would Like To Be Like." The subjects'responses were grouped under four categories: parents or family
members, glamorous persons, attractive visible adults, and composite
imaginary persons. The results showed the students' choices tended to
move away from the family circle with age. From ages six to eight,
parents or some other family member were typical choices. From eight
to sixteen, the students tended to describe glamorous persons, then
attractive visible adults, and finally composite, imaginary persons.

Smith and Lebo (1956) and Mussen and Jones (1957) directed
their attention and efforts toward the development of the self-concept
of adolescents. Smith and Lebo (1956) looked at the relationship of
the self-concept to varying degrees of physical maturity. They used
pubic hair ratings as an index of boys' physical maturity and related
it to the phenomenal and nonphenomenal measures of the self-concept.
Pubic hair ratings, but not chronological age, correlated signifi-
cantly with the students' self-reports on a modified Vineland Maturity
Scale. Only four of 52 characteristics of students' figure-drawing showed significant correlations with pubic hair ratings. In the subjects projective stories, the hero's heterosexual development and emancipation from the parents was correlated with the chronological age rather than with pubic hair rating. Only the self-reported Vineland Maturity ratings seem to correlate with physiological development, when chronological age, with all that it implies psychologically, has been held constant. The results indicated that physical maturity and positive self-concept correlated positively.

Mussen and Jones (1957) also directed their investigation to the influence of body characteristics at adolescence. They found significant differences in "negativity" of self-concept between adolescent boys who were "consistently accelerated" and "consistently retarded" in physical development. Negativity of self-concept was indicated when the subjects described the heroes of thematic apperception test stories in "negative terms."

As Mezz (1971) reported, Long, Ziller and Henderson (1968) conducted an examination of the kinds of developmental changes which took place in the self-concept as related to other significant persons, power in relation to authority figures, dependency, centrality of self in relation to friends, and identification as measured by closeness to mother, father, teacher and friend. A Self-Social Symbols Task was given to 420 students by the investigators. When the various measures were inter-correlated, the findings suggested that they were independent with the following exceptions: (1) identification with father, mother,
teacher and friend were positively related, (2) high dependency was related to greater identification with friend, (3) greater identification with mother was related to higher esteem, and (4) greater power of self was related to less identification with teacher.

Although research in the area of self-concept development was limited in scope, that which has been conducted supported the assumptions that the self-concept emerged largely as a product of the evaluations of significant others. In addition, there was an indication that the self-concept was not crystallized before adolescence, that the source of the self-ideal tended to move away from the family with age. According to Snygg and Combs (1949:2), it is probable that throughout the lifetime of the individual change is constantly occurring in the phenomenal self as he perceives the reactions of others to himself. If one is still in the process of finding one's self, the third phase of the process of birth is continuing whether one's age be sixteen or sixty-five (Jersild, 1954:2).

**SELF-CONCEPT OF BLACKS**

Although the self-concept of blacks cannot be divorced from the general theory of self-concept growth and development, it was Smith's (1975:88) contention that the self-concept of blacks can be defined from three points of view. He stated:

... the Black self-concept can be defined as the way Blacks view themselves. It is the way a person sums up his being; it is the way a Black person describes himself or herself from his or her vantage point; it is discovering the inner thoughts and feelings of an individual as he has assessed his person, and it is a picture of his Black self snapped only from his "special
lens." Second, the Black self-concept may be based on others' perceptions. In this instance, the Black self-concept would be defined as the way others view Blacks. It is the way others sum up his total being, or the way others describe Black people from their vantage point. Third, the Black self-concept may be based on wishes. Any Black people in this psychological state would define their self-concepts as the way that they wish to be known. . . .

As black disadvantaged students develop and mature, manifestations of one, all, or a combination of the above definitions of self-concept may be observed. It has long been recognized by educators and theorists that the psychological impact of life in an inner city or a desolate rural area affects the self-concept, the motivation, the aspirations, and the release of the many potentials of the individual. An understanding of the nature and perimeter of this impact could provide insight into the personality traits exhibited by many black disadvantaged students as they develop from infancy to adulthood.

One of the personality traits revealed early in the life of a black child emanated from his perception of dark skin color. He used skin coloration to evaluate his social status, his personal worth, and his educational aspirations, as being insignificant. Psychologically, he either followed a course of self-hatred, aggressive acts within his race, or he escaped into apathy and fantasy. As a result his personality became a split one in response to the social disvalue placed upon his blackness.

As the black disadvantaged student intrinsically strove for healthy personality integration and self-actualization, his efforts were hindered due to self-hatred and, in many cases, the rejection of
his own race. Many disadvantaged blacks believe that the pigmentation of the skin makes a difference. Thus, in many instances, the more white a black child was, the more he would be accepted by his family and provided opportunities to use his talents. Grambs (1965:15) stated that the love his family will accord him can be calibrated on the same scale as one calibrates color differences. To be most loved as a black child, one had to appear least black. Thus, the black student's color and race became very important, and the personality problems that were created became as difficult to eradicate as the pigmentation of his skin.

Therefore, many blacks live sporadically in a world of fantasy, and fantasy will be revealed in different ways at different ages. Clark's (1965:65) findings indicated that when black children as young as three years old were shown white and black appearing dolls or asked to color pictures of children to look like themselves, many of them tended to reject the dark-skinned dolls as "dirty" and "bad" or to color the picture of themselves a light color or a bizarre shade like purple. When the children were asked to select the doll which represented them, some, especially those in the North, refused, burst into tears, or ran away. The black child eventually accepted the fact that he was dark-skinned, but the sense of shame and self-hatred sometimes remained with him throughout life.

In still another study, Seidman reported that Clark and Clark (1950) used the technique of a coloring test to investigate the development of racial identification and preference in black children.
Five, six, and seven-year-old children were given a sheet of paper on which there were drawings of a leaf, an apple, an orange, a mouse, a boy, and a girl (1965:372). Each child was given a box of crayons and asked to color the objects and the mouse first. This was completed first in order to establish whether or not each child understood the relationship of color to object. Next, each child was asked to color the boy or girl the color that he or she was. When this was completed, the investigators gave the little boy and girl a name and then asked the subjects to color them the same color as themselves. After this request was complied with, the child was then told: "Now this is a little girl (or boy). Color her (or him) the color you like little girls (or boys) to be" (Seidman, 1964:372).

An analysis of the responses of 160 subjects revealed that black children manifested a tendency to reject the brown color by coloring their preferences white. Their rejection of brown as a color preference and their recognition of the fact that they must identify with that which they rejected created a conflict. Such a conflict will have direct influence on the self-concept. Many of the children attempted to resolve the conflict through phantasy responses and irrelevant or escape responses.

Although social scientists and educators were cognizant of the existence of this conflict at an early age, as well as the appearance of stabilizing mechanisms to cope with the situation, they have not been successful in arresting the development of a negative self-concept beyond the age of seven. Therefore, from childhood to adulthood
some blacks' feelings of inadequacy and inferiority became totally integrated into their conception of self.

From another perspective, David and Pearl Ausubel (1963:134) found that the reluctance to acknowledge racial membership not only resulted in ego deflation but also made it difficult for black children to identify with their parents. The derived status that white children received from their parents was made available to the black child through his membership in an unsupervised peer group. This was especially true for the small black male child who often had no adult male with whom to identify in the frequently fatherless black family, and who found maleness deprecated in his matriarchal home. Thus, early experience of providing for himself resulted in precocious social maturity, independence, and emancipation from home. When he entered school other problems evolved.

According to Clark (1965), the most serious injury to the black child seemed to be in the concept of self-worth. Evidence of his sense of inferiority, related directly to skin color, was revealed in school by his lack of confidence in himself as a student, lack of motivation to learn and a fear of additional failures.

Failure experiences can be detrimental to any child, but most especially for the disadvantaged. Excessive experiences of defeat can lead the student to develop an attitude that he will be less able than other children around him. The child who does not feel that he and his group are valued by the larger society is likely not to value himself (Deutsch, 1967:89).
The degree of self-hatred revealed itself most in the black student's continued low aspirations for academic and vocational achievement. These traits became more acute during pre-adolescence and adolescence. They reflected existing social class and ethnic values, the absence of suitable emulatory models, marked educational deficiencies, lack of parental and peer group support, and the cultural impoverishment of the black family (David and Pearl Ausubel, 1963:134).

POSITIVE ASPECTS OF INSTRUCTION IN BLACK STUDIES

The essential consideration in this section will be an examination of the positive attributes of black studies' instruction. The idea that black studies' instruction should be included in the school's curriculum did not have its inception in the 1960's. The recognition of the value of such instruction had its root deep in the early history of our country. Prior to the eighteenth century, the first known and white-approved organized advocacy of what might be termed "black studies" came from the Quaker educators (Crouchett, 1971:189). Although, only a limited portion of their educational program was geared toward emphasizing the role and contributions of blacks, their efforts motivated and inspired interest in African and Afro-American history and culture. The Hicksite Quakers, the earliest
and most permanent group, established the best schools for the education of blacks.

In 1713 a movement commenced which was aimed at the objective of providing needed information about black history, culture, and contributions. According to Woodson (1919:54), this movement was headed by the Pennsylvania Quakers and included a program for educating and training free blacks to serve as missionaries on the African continent. Such a special type of education, as reported by Crouchett (1971:191), was in keeping with the Quakers educational philosophy of giving the person a chance to correct his "narrow individualism" in the light of the experiences of the group.

Interest in the dissemination of materials dealing with the history and culture of blacks continued to grow. Such interest motivated Henry Highland Garnet in 1840 to cite his position. According to Garnet:

All races are permitted to travel over the wide fields of history and pluck the flowers that blossom there, to glean up herbes, philosophers, sages, and poets, and put them into a galaxy of brilliant genius; but if a black man attempts to do so, he is met at the threshold by the objection, 'you have no ancestry behind you' (Quarles, 1966:11).

Eventually, black individuals, such as David Walker who highlighted the uniqueness and greatness of Africa in his 1829 "Appeals," and the ex-slave Frederick Douglass, Charlotte Forten and David Ruggles ("free persons of color" in the 1850's) exposed the idea of the need for blacks and whites to understand the culture and historical contributions of blacks. Even some Northern teachers,
directly involved in the educational area of the Freedmen's Bureau
during the era of Reconstruction, often included the contributions of
blacks in their lessons, using slave narratives and tattered copies of
James W. C. Pennington's 1841 textbook as teaching aids (Crouchett,

Following the Reconstruction Era, the drive and interest in
black history and culture gained additional force. The inclusion of
all aspects of the past of blacks became the goal. Such a call was
resounded as early as 1883 by George Washington Williams. Writing in
his two-volume work, *History of The Negro Race in American 1619-1880*,
he presented some reasons why black history was important in American
social order:

Because Negroes have been the most vexatious problem in North
America from the time of its discovery down to the present day;
because that in every attempt upon the life of the nation . . .
the colored people had always displayed a matchless patriotism
and an incomparable heroism in the cause of Americans; because
such a history would give the world more correct ideas of the
Colored people, and incite the latter to greater effort in the
struggle of citizenship and manhood. The single reason that
there was no history of the Negro race would have been suffi­
cient reason for writing one (Neyland, 1967:315).

In 1915 Carter G. Woodson, along with Edward Bruce and Arthur
A. Shomburg, created additional interest in black studies instruction
by organizing the *Association for the Study of Negro Life and History*. One year later, *The Journal of Negro History* was established as an
official organ of the association, with Woodson as editor, and became
the medium through which the Negro's history was communicated to all
who would take the time to read it (Bullock, 1970:203-4). In 1926
Woodson sent to interested readers one of its pamphlets entitled, "Why the Negro in History." He stated, "if a race has no history, if it has no worthwhile traditions, it becomes a negligible factor in the thought of the world, and it stands in danger of being exterminated" (Brown, 1969:447).

Previously, Woodson had warned that, when experience was not restrained, as among savages, infancy was perpetual. Therefore, an intensive historical investigation of the years of turmoil, struggles, fears, hopes, aspirations, and achievements of the black race was advocated; along with the inclusion of black history in the public and private schools from the elementary through the college level.

In a letter to State authorities in every state with a considerable black population, in 1929 Woodson requested their cooperation in inviting the attention of the public school teachers to the celebration of the fourth year of "Negro History Week." In this appeal he once again cited the need for instruction in black history:

... while every intelligent person should study general history, no man can be inspired to make the most of himself unless he learns the story of his own fellows who have demonstrated the possibilities of the group to which he belongs (1929:109).

Such a call gained increased momentum in the mid-1960's as black students called for the inclusion of black history courses at predominantly black colleges. Joined later by students at predominantly white campuses, the drive for the inclusion of blacks in the curriculum
now included more than a single course. It became a "Black Studies" movement.

Since the mid-nineteen sixties, numerous books, and articles, (Kvaraceus, 1965; Brown, 1969; Neyland, 1967; Reid, 1970; Blassingame, 1971) have been published to point out the need and significance of integrating black studies into the curriculum of the schools. LeMelle (1972:19-22) argued that since the black experience was an inherent part of the total United States experience, it must be included as an inherent part of the total educational process. This argument has since been espoused by others.

In a report of a conference on "The Relationship of Education to Self-Concept in Negro Children and Youth," Kvaraceus, et.al. (1965) presented their views on the omission of the blacks in the school's curriculum and the negative effects such omission has had on the self-concept of black students.

Since the most pervasive bond among blacks was an increasing sense of identity, the assumption was made that through the utilization of the idea of deliberate efforts (black studies) the self-concept of the black student might embrace more positive aspects. This in turn would appreciably affect their total education, as well as their personal experiences.

Grambs (1965:38) one of the contributing authors of the work, Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship, stated that it was appropriate to put to work in the classrooms the things we now know about human behavior and learning, about conscious and unconscious motivation. Such information should be utilized to create
new approaches to aid the black student from Kindergarten through
twelfth grade in viewing himself and his racial group in a realisti-
cally positive light. He needs to understand the meaning of color and
race, learn about persons in his race who have succeeded, and become
more aware of his own group's history and current situation (1965:20).

Based on an investigation of the rationale for black studies,
LeMelle (1972:20) stated that for the blacks the need to have a
positive self-concept was basically two-fold: The need for the
psychological security that comes from knowing one's self and being
able to identify in a positive way with one's perception of self. To
these two aims an additional one may be cited. Kvaraceus (1965:66)
maintained that since there was no exemplary role models in home,
neighborhood, and school for black youngsters, there was an urgent
need to provide materials--including books, films, recordings, and
slides--that offer rich examples of black achievement and contributions
in the United States and in other parts of the world. Therefore, both
authors believed that these aims could be fulfilled through instruction
dealing with the history of blacks.

Other aspects of the possibilities of instruction in black
studies have been distinguished by Cleveland (1969), Furniss (1969)
and Reid (1970). Although each focused his attention on Black Studies
Programs, their arguments also supported the need for the inclusion of
black studies instruction as an integral part of the American History
course. According to Cleveland (19:45) the goals of a Black Studies
Program should include developing the self-concept of the Negro,
developing "black nationalism," and combating discrimination and prejudice among both white and Negro students. Furniss (1969:360) called attention to several recommendations for the creation of Black Studies Programs. Among the considerations were:

1. Revising American history by a more adequate recognition of the past and present black experience.

2. Improving the understanding of blacks by non-blacks.

3. Aiding black students to participate in American society with pride and self-confidence.

In Reid's work (1970), "An Analysis of Black Studies Programs," other positive aspects of such programs have been cited. According to the author, a "Black Studies Program" could fulfill basic needs. They could include a scholarly correction of historical and cultural myths (1970:11), aid the black student in his psychological needs, the crisis of identity can be resolved, pride can be instilled, and an inferiority complex can be cancelled out or neutralized.

The primary aim of a Black Studies Program, according to Reid, is identity. Exposing black students to courses that are "black-oriented" or "black-integrated" will aid them in developing positive identities. When black students begin to feel good about past achievements, a new self-assertiveness and pride will be manifested (1970:13).
INFLUENCE OF INSTRUCTION ON THE DEVELOPMENT
OF THE SELF-CONCEPT

Most investigators have directed their attention to the area of the influence of the self-concept on learning. The assumption was made that the self-concept characteristics were antecedent to cognitive behavior (Wylie, 1961:200). However, in the field of the influence of learning in the development of the self-concept, research was limited. This was true in spite of the assumption of most investigators that the self-concept was developed and modified through learning. Although past works have attempted to effect a direct connection between learning theory and the learning of the self-concept, studies in which the investigators have attempted to influence students' concepts of their ideal selves through instruction were few. It was apparent that very few investigations have aimed at the influence of learning in the development of the self-concept.

However, as reported by Wylie, Lodge (1956) attempted to influence the self-concepts of students by teaching a self-constructed unit on American historical biography. As a measure of the ideal self, the students wrote essays describing, "The Person I Would Like to be Like." The essays were coded for mention of various categories of persons, including parents, glamorous adults, attractive and visible young adults, compositive imaginary persons, and heroes read about.

No significant increase in "heroes read about" was found when the first essay was compared with a second essay written immediately after the biographical studies, and a third essay written eight weeks
later (1961:200). Lodge (1956) concluded that the results of both
direct and indirect measurement indicate that the influence of
biography on the value systems of these students was slight. The
majority of the students did state that they enjoyed reading biography.

Banks (1970:44) conducted an investigation to determine
possible differences in black consciousness among students on the basis
of class level, place of residence, and Black Studies courses (BSC)
and/or membership in the Black Student Union (BSU). Eighty-six
black male and female students from California Counties (San Francisco and Marin) constituted the population. One
high school and one junior college was selected from each of the
counties. The students ranged in age from 14.7 to 53.11, with a mean
of 23 years.

Parallel forms (A and B) of a black consciousness inventory was
constructed and administered by the experimenter to small groups of
students. Upon completion of the inventory, students were asked to
supply the following information: date of birth, sex, year in school,
membership in Black Student Union, and/or Black Studies course.

The product-moment procedure was used in correlating students'
ages with their scores. Using Guilford's correction for variance, the
investigator secured a coefficient of .02, p > .05. In making a
comparison between male and female subjects, the statistical analysis
revealed: t = .05, df = 76, and p > .05.

In order to test his hypotheses, the independent variables
were arranged in a 2 X 2 X 2 factorial design, using Winer's procedure
for unequal cell frequencies. The results indicated a significant difference between membership in the BSU and/or having taken Black Studies courses and no BSU membership and/or having taken Black Studies courses (Banks, 1970:50). Additional findings indicated that black high school and junior college students' ability to relate positively to their blackness was related to membership in the BSU and/or Black Studies courses. Age, sex and having residence in San Francisco County or Marin County had no relationship to the black consciousness level. The difference between high school and junior college students was independent of place and residence (Banks, 1970:51).

Mezz (1971) investigated the effects of a "Black Cultural Positives" program on the self-concepts, intra-ethnic attitudes, and educational attitudes of black seventh and eighth grade students of a Phoenix, Arizona, elementary school. Thirty-six students were randomly selected and randomly assigned to the experimental and control group.

The "Black Cultural Positives" program was comprised of a series of twelve programs which reflected various aspects of black culture (Mezz, 1971:104). The programs, conducted over a six-week period, embraced an affective as well as a cognitive approach. Each program dealt with some aspect of black literature, art, music, history, dialect, and dance.

Two criterion instruments were administered to both groups prior to and on completion of the program. The Lippitt's Self-Concept Scale was used to determine the effects of the program on the self-concepts of the respondents. In order to assess the attitudes of the
students toward blacks and educational concepts, the educative
dimension of the semantic differential was employed.

An analysis of the data was made by using the A test to compare
the differences between the pre-and post-test scores for both groups.
The "t"-test was used to make a comparison of the change
score differences between the experimental and control groups for the
criterion instruments.

Mezz's (1971:90) results indicated that a "Black Cultural
Positives" program had the potential to produce positive changes in
the self-concept of black students. Although such self-concept changes
were not demonstrated to be significant at the confidence level which
was designated for this investigation, they were none-the-less
indicative of trends.

In this same vein, Robert Matthews' (1971) work was designed
to determine the relationship between student participation in "black
studies" and these students' academic achievement and attitude toward
school and self. Specifically, the researcher was concerned with
whether or not changes in self-concept and attitudes toward school
would occur. The sample included tenth graders at the Abraham Lincoln
Senior High School in San Diego, California. A total of 332 non-white
subjects were involved. Eighty-five were enrolled in "Black Studies"
and constituted the experimental group (49 males and 36 females), and
247 were included in the control group (140 males and 107 females).
The researcher attempted to assess the effects of the Black Studies program in four areas. They were: (1) scholastic accomplishment as measured by achievement tests; (2) academic progress as determined by grade point average and the ratio of failure grades; (3) intramural citizenship as measured by attendance data and the frequency of referrals for discipline to the administrator's office; and (5) self-concept as determined by a questionnaire exploring attitudes toward the self and various school functions.

The data collected from students' self-concept questionnaires were cast into a two-factor (P X Q X R) analysis of variance format.

The findings indicated no statistically significant differences for each of the areas investigated. With regards to changes in self-concept between Black Studies males and Black Studies females, there was a slight loss for both. The researcher believed that the limitation of time (less than one year) was a factor that may have affected the results under this measurement. A second factor was the effectiveness of available objective type methods for assessing self-concept changes, especially for minority students.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented a review of the literature related to the problem under investigation. The areas of focus included: (1) an overview of the development of the self-concept; (2) the self-concept of blacks; (3) some positive aspects of instruction in black studies; and (4) research studies dealing with the influence of instruction on the self-concept.
The literature revealed that the development of the self-concept was a continuous process enhanced or retarded by one's experiences with "significant others"; that the self-concept of many black disadvantaged students hindered them in their emotional, social and cognitive development; and that instruction in black studies could possibly aid in the development of a positive self-concept. Research studies dealing with the influence of instruction on the self-concept were limited but generally indicated a slight trend toward change in the self-concept.
Chapter 3

ADMINISTRATION OF THE EXPERIMENT

In this chapter attention was given to three main tasks that related to the methodology employed in the study. These were: (1) sources of data—the subjects and the evaluative instrument; (2) the experimental and control groups; and (3) procedures followed in administering the experiment:

SOURCES OF DATA

The Subjects

The sample consisted of 121 students (109 eleventh graders and 12 twelfth graders) enrolled in six sections of American history at McKinley Senior High, a public school operated by the East Baton Rouge Parish School System. Each section was representative of a cross-section in range of ability, since no effort was made on the part of the administrators to group the students homogeneously. A wide range was represented as to socio-economic background, although students from a low socio-economic background were in the majority.

The Instrument

The Counseling Form of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used to measure the self-concept of the student. This Scale was
developed by William H. Fitts under the auspices of the Tennessee Department of Mental Health. It consists of 100 self-descriptive statements which the student uses to reveal his conception of self. Responses are made in terms of choices: Completely False, Mostly False, Partly False, Partly True, Mostly True, and Completely True.

A sample of 626 persons constituted the standardization group from which the norms were developed. This sample included approximately equal numbers of males and females, both white and black subjects, representatives of all social, economic, and intellectual levels and educational levels from sixth grade through the Ph.D. degree (Fitts, 1965:13). These individuals were obtained from high school and university classes, state institutions and other sources.

The test-retest reliability coefficients of all major scores are reported in table form. A reliability coefficient of .92 was obtained for the total positive score. A .88 reliability coefficient for the total positive score was obtained by Congdon in his study of psychiatric patients. Reliability has also been established by the similarity of profile patterns found after repeated measures of the same subjects over long periods of time.

The Scale maintains validity in the areas of content, discrimination between groups, correlation with other personality instruments, and personality changes under specific conditions.
EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

The experimental design of this study included three experimental (e) groups and three control (c) groups. A total of 60 students, 26 females and 34 males constituted the experimental group. These students were involved in the activities of three supplementary units, constructed by the investigator, on the "black experience." For 12 weeks they received instruction on the role and contributions of blacks in the making of America prior to the Civil War, and as an integral part of the American history course.

The students (61) in the control group served as the basis for making comparisons, since they were not exposed to the treatment. These students, 31 females and 30 males, followed the basic text and units constructed by their teachers without exposure to any of the activities suggested in the supplementary units.

Using a control group-posttest design only, the two groups were administered the self-report instrument at the culmination of the treatment period. Thus, a posttest design was used which could be diagrammed as follows:

\[ E_R \times X T_2 \]

\[ C_R \times T_2 \]
PROCEEDURES

Following committee approval of the research proposal, a meeting was held during the Fall Semester, 1974, with the Junior-Senior High School Coordinator of the East Baton Rouge Parish School Board. At this time permission was granted to conduct the experiment in one of the parish schools. Upon the recommendation of the Coordinator, a meeting was set up with the principal of the selected school in order to secure his approval.

In the meeting with the principal a general view of what the investigation would entail was presented. Following this overview, several questions were asked by the principal. These questions involved clarifications relative to the semester in which the study was to be conducted, the number of sections of American history to be involved, the total number of teachers to be involved, the materials to be used, and the researcher's involvement at the school during the experimental stage. At the culmination of the meeting the principal voiced his approval of the involvement of the students. Permission was also given to converse with the American history teachers.

The first contact with two of the teachers was held one week later. The same general format used in the meeting with the principal was followed. Both teachers were very receptive and pleased that the experiment would start at the beginning of the school year (August, 1975) rather than during the Spring Semester, 1975. Therefore, each was able to begin at the same point. During this meeting the
investigator also secured the title of the required text, some approaches utilized by each teacher, and a general view of the range of abilities of their past and present students.

During the latter part of the Fall Semester, 1974, a second meeting was held with the principal. At this meeting a copy of the basic text was secured. The principal was asked whether or not the two teachers previously contacted would be involved in the teaching of nine sections of American history. Based upon his figures and projections for the coming year, it was concluded that only two teachers would be involved. Also, at this meeting permission was granted to use the school's library facilities.

At the beginning of the Spring Semester, 1975, work on the construction of three supplementary units for the American history course was initiated. Since the basic text followed the chronological order, this approach was also utilized in constructing the units. The next step was to decide upon a beginning point and a title for each unit. An examination of the text, however, revealed an omission of background information on the African heritage. In light of this revelation, it was decided that the first unit would be one designed to provide the student with historical links and insights relative to his African heritage. Therefore, the title of this unit became: "Black Americans' Story Began in Africa."

After arriving at the title, the researcher made a trip to the school's library. Approximately, one week was geared toward the completion of an annotated list of films, filmstrips, records, multimedia kits, books for the student, and books for the teacher. The
objectives were formulated in terms of Bloom's Taxonomy and written in behavioral terms. The content to be taught was then restricted to West Africa, in light of the tremendous number of slaves who came from this area in the nineteenth century. Therefore, the content included background information of three early West African political units--Ghana, Mali, and Songhay; the cultural patterns of Africa prior to the sixteenth century; the African Slave Trade; the Modern Traffic in African Slaves; the "Middle Passage;" and the Retention of African Cultural elements. A list of suggested learning activities for initiating, implementing and concluding the unit was provided. Methods of evaluation concluded the unit procedures. The annotated list of audio-visual materials followed. It was speculated that five weeks would be required to complete the teaching of the unit. Actual construction spanned a three-week period.

Work on the second unit began immediately upon the completion of the first. Since this unit dealt with the role of blacks during the Exploration and Colonization period, the basic text, Rise of the American Nation, was followed. The supplementary unit, "Blacks and the Building of the Colonies," coincided with Unit I of the text--"Building the Colonies," Chapters 1-5, pp. 3-90. In terms of construction, the same format used for Unit I was followed: Overview; Objectives (Cognitive and Affective Domains); Outline of Content; Unit Procedures, and the annotated audio-visual materials. Approximately
four weeks were geared toward the completion of the unit. Recommended
time for the teaching of the unit was five weeks.

The basic text was also used in constructing the third unit.
This unit, entitled—"The Birth and Growth of a New Nation: The Role
of Blacks," followed Unit II, Chapters 6-9, and Unit III, Chapter 11,
of the basic text. Following the same format as Units I and II, this
unit was completed in approximately three and one-half weeks. The one
exception, however, is that this unit included objectives from each of
Bloom's six phases in the cognitive domain. Recommended time for the
completion of the teaching of the unit was five weeks.

With the completion of the units, a second meeting was held
with the teachers, during May, 1975. At this meeting the discussion
involved a general overview of the future study. Purposes, concepts
and the role of the teachers were highlighted. The teachers received
the three units prior to the arrival of the students in August, 1975.

On August 13, 1975, a meeting was held with the principal and
assistant principal of McKinley Senior High for the purpose of randomly
assigning the sections to the experimental or control group. However,
due to their enrollment figures and changes in the schedules of the two
teachers, a third teacher was asked to participate. With his approval
the total number of teachers became three, one black male and two white
males. The number of sections involved became six. After this matter
was cleared, the computer number and times when each teacher taught
American history were secured. It was decided that a number, involving
a multiple of ten, would be assigned to each section or hour. These
numbers were then randomly selected from columns 2, 3, and 4 of a table of random numbers. The completion of this phase indicated that the black-male teacher would be assigned two sections in the experimental group and one in the control. One male, white teacher was assigned one section of the experimental group (this was the only section of American history taught by this teacher). The other white, male teacher was assigned two sections in the control group.

On August 16, 1975, the investigator met with the teachers and the assistant principal. Copies of the units were made available to each. An explanation of how the sections were designated experimental or control was given. Teachers with the experimental sections were encouraged to incorporate the units into the regular class work and to follow the guidelines established by the researcher. The two teachers involved with the control group students were requested to follow the basic text with no exposure to the activities of the units. The teachers were asked not to inform the students that they were involved in an experiment.

From August 16, 1975, until the culmination of the experiment, November 17, 1975, the investigator did not visit the school. Contact was made with the teachers by means of the telephone. The teachers were contacted only near the designated time for the completion of the units. The nature of the conversations centered around the interest of the students, the amount of work completed, and problems which had been encountered.
The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was administered, by the investigator, to the subjects during the third week of November, 1975. The students were administered the Scale on the same day, November 18, 1975. All testing was done during the first half hour of the regular class time. Such a schedule was established and followed so that students could not obtain from each other advance knowledge of the testing.

The teachers were asked to avoid informing the students in advance of the nature of the instrument and to refrain from any kind of special preparation. There was every reason to believe that these requests were carried out conscientiously.

Following the testing phase, the data were hand scored by the researcher and fed into a Litton Monroe Model 1860 Statistical Programmable Printing Calculator for purpose of analysis. The means, standard deviations, and the standard error of the difference between the uncorrelated means were computed. Using these measures, the "t"-value was obtained in order to test the three null hypotheses set forth in this study:

1. There are no statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores, component and total, for black students who participate in a study of the black experience in American history and those who are not exposed to such treatment.

2. There are no statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores, component and total, for black females who participate in a study of the black experience in American history and those who are not exposed to such treatment.
3. There are no statistically significant differences between the self-concept scores, component and total, for black males who participate in a study of the black experience in American history and those who are not exposed to such treatment.

The alpha level for this study was set at the .05 level of confidence. Since the "t" distribution does not differ greatly from the normal curve entries when the sample is large, Table D (Garrett, 1970:194) was utilized in arriving at the corresponding "t - limit" for the .05 level of confidence. According to Garrett (1970:192) this table gives the distances beyond which to the right and left certain percents of the sampling distribution fall. Therefore, the "t - limit" for the .05 level of confidence for 100 df was \( \pm 1.98 \).
Chapter 4

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION
OF THE DATA

The purpose of this chapter was to present the data which served as the basis for determining the differences, if any, between the self-concept of students involved in the experimental group and those who were not exposed to the treatment. In order to assess such differences, the analysis of the data unfolded in relation to the three null hypotheses. A null hypothesis was rejected if a "t"-value was found significant at the .05 level of confidence.

EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

The data presented in Table 1 indicated no statistically significant difference between the means for the experimental and control group students in the area of Self-Criticism. The obtained mean score of 34.15 for the experimental group and 34.96 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -0.78. This value indicated that the difference was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and failed to reach the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

The data presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4 represented the internal frame of reference of the experimental and control group students. As the data indicated in Table 2, the experimental group obtained a mean score of 120.41 under Row I-Identity. A mean score
Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in the Area of Self-Criticism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>34.15</td>
<td>5.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>34.96</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$SE_D = 1.04$
"t" = -0.78

of 121.98 was found for the control group. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.62 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, and not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in Terms of Row I-Identity: What He Is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>120.41</td>
<td>14.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>121.98</td>
<td>13.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$SE_D = 2.52$
"t" = -0.62
As the data in Table 3 indicated, there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the experimental and control group students under the category of Row II-Self-Satisfaction. A mean score of 101.56 for the experimental group and 103.73 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -0.89. Since the difference was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and found not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in Terms of Row II-Self-Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>101.56</td>
<td>11.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>103.73</td>
<td>14.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SED = 2.43  
"t" = -0.89

When asked to describe their behavior, the students' responses, when statistically analyzed, indicated no significant difference. As the data indicated in Table 4, a mean score of 104.61 was obtained by the students in the experimental group; the control group students obtained a mean score of 108.22. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -1.75 which was
a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero. However, since the alpha level for this study was set at the .05 level of confidence, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in Terms of Row III-Behavior: How He Acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>104.61</td>
<td>11.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>108.22</td>
<td>11.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_D = 2.06
"t" = -1.75

In an attempt to ascertain the students' external frame of reference an analysis of their responses to five vertical categories was made. The data in Table 5 indicated that the difference between the means for the experimental and control group students was not statistically significant in the area of Column A-Physical Self. A mean score of 71.23 for the experimental group and 72.16 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -0.61. Thus, the difference was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and failed to reach the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.
Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in the Area of Column A-Physical Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>71.23</td>
<td>8.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>72.16</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 1.54 \]
\[ "t" = -0.61 \]

Data secured under Column B-Moral-Ethical Self was presented in Table 6. A mean score of 62.41 for the experimental group and 65.36 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -1.98. The result was statistically significant in favor of the control group. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 6
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in the Area of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>62.41</td>
<td>8.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>65.36</td>
<td>8.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 1.49 \]
\[ "t" = -1.98 \]
The data in Table 7 indicated no statistically significant differences between the means for experimental (mean = 65.21) and control (mean = 66.18) group students in the area of Column C - Personal Self. The difference between the means yielded a "t"-value of -0.6 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero. Since the .05 level of confidence was established for this study, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 7
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in the Area of Column C-Personal Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65.21</td>
<td>8.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>66.18</td>
<td>8.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_L = 1.51
"t" = -0.64

A summary of the data under the category of Column D-Family Self was presented in Table 8. A 65.15 mean score was acquired by the students in the experimental group; the control group students obtained a mean score of 66.83. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -1.12 which was a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, but not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.
Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in the Area of Family Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65.15</td>
<td>8.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>66.83</td>
<td>8.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\text{SED} = 1.50$

"$t" = -1.12$

Mean scores of 62.95 for the experimental and 63.40 for the control group students were obtained in the area of Column E-Social Self. As the data in Table 9 indicated, the difference between the means gave a "$t$"-value of -0.32 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, and found not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in the Area of Social Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>62.95</td>
<td>7.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>63.40</td>
<td>7.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\text{SED} = 1.39$

"$t" = -0.32"
The overall level of self-concept was reflected by the total Positive Scores (Rows + Column scores). The data in Table 10 indicated a 326.76 mean score for the students in the experimental group, and a 333.95 mean score for control group students. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -1.23 which was a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero but not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Students in Terms of Total Positive Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>326.76</td>
<td>32.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>333.95</td>
<td>32.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_D = 5.85
"t" = -1.23

EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP--FEMALES

As the data indicated in Table 11, there was no statistically significant different between the mean scores of the experimental (mean = 35.42) and control (mean = 35.90) group females in the area of Self-Criticism. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.34 to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero. Since the
.05 level of confidence was established for this study, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in the Area of Self-Criticism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>35.42</td>
<td>6.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35.90</td>
<td>5.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_d = 1.41
"t" = -0.34

The data in Tables 12, 13 and 14 illustrated the internal frame of reference of the experimental and control group female students. As the data in Table 12 indicated, the female students in the experimental group, when queried about their basic identity, obtained a mean score of 123.07; while the control group female students' mean score was 123.19. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.05. This difference, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, was not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

As the data indicated in Table 13, the females in the experimental group obtained a mean score of 100.57 in the area of
Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Row I-Identity: What He Is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>123.07</td>
<td>12.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>123.19</td>
<td>12.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SED = 2.53
"t" = -0.05

Row II-Self-Satisfaction. The control group female students' mean score was 104.87. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -1.63 which was a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean of zero, but not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Row II-Self-Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100.57</td>
<td>12.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>104.87</td>
<td>15.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SED = 2.63
"t" = -1.63
As the data in Table 14 indicated, the females in the experimental group obtained a mean score of 107.80 in the area of Row III-Behavior. The control group female students obtained a mean score of 110.00. The difference between the means was a "t"-value of -1.13. Although the "t"-value was a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, it was not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Row III-Behavior: How He Acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>107.80</td>
<td>9.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>110.00</td>
<td>12.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_D = 1.95
"t" = -1.13

The external frame of reference of the female students was obtained from their responses under five vertical categories of the Scale. As the data in Table 15 indicated, there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the experimental and control group females in the area of Column A-Physical Self. A mean score of 71.80 for the experimental group females and 72.83 for the control group females gave a "t"-value of -0.63. Since the .05 level
of confidence was established for this study, a "t"-value of -0.63, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, was not significant. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 15
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Column A-Physical Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>71.80</td>
<td>7.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>72.83</td>
<td>7.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$SE_d = 1.63$
"t" = -0.63

As the data indicated in Table 16, a mean score of 65.88 was obtained by the females in the experimental group in the area of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self. A 67.03 mean score was acquired by the control group female students. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.68 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, and not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis, was, therefore, accepted.

Mean scores of 65.69 for the females in the experimental group and 65.38 for the control group females were obtained under the category of Column C-Personal Self. As the data indicated in Table 17, the difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.42. This value, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, was not
Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65.88</td>
<td>8.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>67.03</td>
<td>8.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 1.69 \]

\[ "t" = -0.68 \]

found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Column C-Personal Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65.69</td>
<td>7.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>65.38</td>
<td>8.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 1.63 \]

\[ "t" = -0.42 \]

As the data in Table 18 indicated, the difference between the means for the experimental and control group female students was not
significant under the category of Column D-Family Self. A mean score of 65.34 for the experimental group and 67.54 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -1.25. Although a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, the "t"-value was not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

Table 18
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Column D-Family Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65.34</td>
<td>8.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>67.54</td>
<td>8.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_D = 1.76
"t" = -1.25

As the data indicated in Table 19, there was no statistically significant difference between the means for the experimental (Mean = 63.30) and control (Mean = 64.19) group female students in the area of Column E-Social Self. A "t"-value of -0.60 to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero failed to reach the .05 level of confidence, and therefore the null hypothesis was accepted.

A summary of the data under total Positive Scores for the female students was presented in Table 20. The experimental group
Table 19
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Column E-Social Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>63.30</td>
<td>7.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>64.19</td>
<td>7.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SED = 1.48
"t" = -0.60

Females mean score was 331.46; while the mean score for the control group females was 335.09. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.61 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 20
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Females in Terms of Total Positive Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>331.46</td>
<td>29.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>335.09</td>
<td>37.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SED = 5.98
"t" = -0.61
EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP--MALES

The data presented in Table 21 indicated no statistically significant difference between the means for the experimental and control group male students in the area of Self-Criticism. The obtained mean score of 33.17 for the experimental group and 34.00 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -0.68. This value, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, failed to reach the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

Table 21
Means and Standard Deviations
for Experimental and Control Group Males
in the Area of Self-Criticism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33.17</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>5.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SED = 1.30
"t" = -0.68

The data presented in Tables 22, 23 and 24 represented the internal frame of reference of the male students in the experimental and control groups. As the data indicated in Table 22, the male students in the experimental group, when queried about Row I-Identity, obtained a mean score of 118.38. A mean score of 120.73 was obtained by the males in the control group. The difference between the means
Table 22
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Row I-Identity: What He Is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>118.38</td>
<td>14.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>120.73</td>
<td>14.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$SE_p = 3.67$

"$t" = -0.64$

gave a "$t"$-value of -0.64 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was accepted.

As the data in Table 23 indicated, a mean score of 102.61 was obtained by the male students in the experimental group in the area of Row II-Self-Satisfaction. The control group male students acquired a mean score of 102.56. The difference between the means gave a "$t"$-value of 0.02 which was to the right of the assumed mean of zero and not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

As indicated by the data in Table 24, the experimental group male students' mean score was 102.17 in the area of Behavior while the control group obtained a mean score of 106.46. The difference between the means gave a "$t"$-value of -1.54 which was a substantial difference to
Table 23
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Row II-Self Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>102.61</td>
<td>11.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>102.56</td>
<td>13.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
SE_D = 3.17
\]

"t" = 0.02

the left of the assumed mean difference of zero but not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 24
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Row III-Behavior: How He Acts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>102.17</td>
<td>12.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>106.46</td>
<td>10.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
SE_D = 2.79
\]

"t" = -1.54

The external frame of reference of the male students was obtained from their responses under five vertical categories of the scale. As the data indicated in Table 25, the mean self-concept
score for the male students in the experimental group under the category of Column A-Physical Self was 70.79. In this same category, the control group male students obtained a mean score of 71.46. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.30 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and not found statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 25

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Column A-Physical Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>70.79</td>
<td>8.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71.46</td>
<td>8.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 2.25 \]
\[ "t" = -0.30 \]

Table 26 presented a summary of the data for the male students under the category of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self. A mean score of 59.76 for the experimental group and 63.63 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -2.09. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The difference was statistically significant in favor of the control group.
Table 26

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>59.76</td>
<td>7.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>63.63</td>
<td>7.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_D = 1.85  
"t" = -2.09

The data in Table 27 indicated that the difference between the means for the male students in the experimental and control groups was not significant under the category of Column C-Personal Self. A mean score of 64.85 for the experimental group and 65.96 for the control group gave a "t"-value of -0.53. This value, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, failed to reach the .05 level of confidence; therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 27

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Column C-Personal Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>64.85</td>
<td>8.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65.96</td>
<td>7.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE_D = 2.08  
"t" = -0.53
As the data indicated in Table 28, there was no statistically significant difference between the means for the experimental and control group male students in the area of Column D-Family Self. A mean score of 65.00 for the males in the experimental group and 66.10 for the males in the control group gave a "t"-value of -0.57 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and failed to reach the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 28

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Column D-Family Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>65.00</td>
<td>8.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>66.10</td>
<td>7.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE₃ = 1.94
"t" = -0.57

As the data in Table 29 indicated, there was no significant difference between the means for the experimental and control group male students in the area of Column E-Social Self. A mean score of 62.76 for the males in the experimental group and 62.60 for the control group males gave a "t"-value of 0.08. Since such a difference, to the right of the assumed mean difference of zero, failed to reach the .05 level of confidence, the null hypothesis was accepted.
Table 29
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Column E-Social Self

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>62.76</td>
<td>7.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>62.60</td>
<td>7.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 1.92 \]
\[ "t" = 0.08 \]

The over-all level of self-concept was reflected by the male students' total Positive Scores (Rows + Column scores). A summary of those data was shown in Table 30. The experimental group male students obtained a mean score of 323.17; the mean score for the male students in the control group was 329.79. The difference between the means gave a "t"-value of -0.82 which was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and found not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis was, therefore, accepted.

Table 30
Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Group Males in Terms of Total Positive Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>323.17</td>
<td>33.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>329.76</td>
<td>31.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ SE_D = 8.04 \]
\[ "t" = -0.82 \]
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether any difference in self-concept would be found for students who participated in a study of the black experience in an American history course and those who did not. The central focus of the investigation was on the question of whether instruction in black studies would change the self-concept of the black student.

SUMMARY

Three supplementary units dealing with the black experience prior to the Civil War, and as an integral part of the American history course, were constructed by the researcher and taught by three of the regularly assigned teachers. This investigation attempted to answer the following question: Does instruction in black studies change the self-concept of senior high school students?

The sample was drawn from a population of black senior high school students enrolled in American history. Six sections, composed of 121 students (109 eleventh graders and 12 twelfth graders), were randomly assigned to three experimental and three control groups. Sixty-one students (31 females and 30 males) were assigned to the control group; while the experimental group involved 60 students (26 females and 34 males).
The students in the experimental group received instruction, over a period of 12 weeks, on the role and contributions of blacks in the development of America. The students in the control group were not exposed to the treatment. Two white, male teachers worked only with the students in the experimental or control group, while the black, male teacher worked with both groups.

A randomized, control group posttest design was followed in which the criterion instrument was administered by the researcher to the experimental and control groups on completion of the treatment period. Thus a posttest design was used which could be diagrammed as follows:

\[ E_R - X T_2 \]
\[ C_R - - T_2 \]

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used to assess the effects of the treatment. Ten selected categories of the Counseling Form of the Scale were analyzed. Excluding the Self-Criticism score, the remaining nine categories constituted positive scores which dealt with the students' internal and external frame of reference.

The analysis of data involved tests of the three null hypotheses set forth in this investigation. The posttest difference between the experimental and control group scores on each of ten selected categories was analyzed by means of a "t"-test. The alpha level for this study was set at the .05 level of confidence.

The first null hypothesis involved the significance of the difference between the posttest mean scores of the experimental and
control groups for each of ten selected categories. No statistically significant difference in mean scores was found in the area of Self-Criticism ("t" = -0.78); Row I-Identity: What He Is ("t" = -0.62); Row II-Self-Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself ("t" = -0.89); Column A-Physical Self ("t" = -0.61); Column C-Personal Self ("t" = -0.64); and Column E-Social Self ("t" = -0.32). Each "t"-value was to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero.

While the differences were not statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence, there were several substantial differences, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, for the two groups in the areas of Row III-Behavior: How He Acts ("t" = -1.75); Column D-Family Self ("t" = -1.12); and total Positive Scores ("t" = -1.23). However, in light of the obtained "t"-values, the first null hypothesis was accepted.

A statistically significant difference, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, was obtained by the two groups under the category of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self ("t" = -1.98). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The second null hypothesis dealt with the significance of the difference between the posttest mean scores of the females in the experimental and control groups for each of ten selected categories. No statistically significant differences were found in the areas of Self-Criticism ("t" = -0.34); Row I-Identity: What He Is ("t" = -0.05); Column A-Physical Self ("t" = -0.63); Column B-Moral-Ethical Self ("t" = -0.68); Column C-Personal Self ("t" = -0.42); Column E-
Social Self ("t" = -0.60); and total Positive Scores ("t" = -0.61). The "t"-values were to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero and failed to reach the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the second null hypothesis was accepted.

While the differences did not reach the .05 level of confidence, there were several substantial differences, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, for the female students in the areas of Row II-Self-Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself ("t" = -1.63); Row III-Behavior: How the Acts ("t" = -1.13); and Column D-Family Self ("t" = -1.25). However, as the .05 level of confidence was not reached, the second null hypothesis was accepted.

The third null hypothesis involved the significance of the difference between the post-test mean scores of the males in the experimental and control groups for each of ten selected categories. No statistically significant differences were found in the areas of Self-Criticism ("t" = -0.68); Row I-Identity: What He Is ("t" = -0.64); Row II-Self Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself ("t" = 0.02); Column A-Physical Self ("t" = -0.30); Column C-Personal Self ("t" = -0.53); Column D-Family Self ("t" = -0.57); Column E-Social Self ("t" = 0.08); and total Positive Scores ("t" = -0.82). All "t"-values were to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero except in the areas of Self-Satisfaction and Social Self. However, since the .05 level of confidence was not reached, the third null hypothesis was accepted.

There was a substantial difference, to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, for the male students in the
area of Row III-Behavior: How He Acts ("t" = 01.54). As the .05 level of confidence was established for this study, the third null hypothesis was accepted.

However, a statistically significant difference was observed between the self-concept scores of the males in the experimental and control groups under the category of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self. The third null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected.

In summary, it may be said that Senior High School students who received instruction on the role and contributions of blacks in the development of America showed no statistically significant differences in self-concept. There were statistically significant differences for the combined groups and male students in one of ten selected categories—Column B-Moral-Ethical Self. Indications of possible trends toward change in self-concept were observed in several areas.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the analysis and interpretation of the data, the following conclusions were drawn.

1. There was no statistically significant difference between the means of the experimental and control group ("t" = -0.78); the females in each group ("t" = -0.34); and the males in each group ("t" = -0.68) in the area of Self-Criticism.

2. There was no statistically significant difference between the means of the experimental and control group ("t" = -0.62); the
females in each group ("t" = -0.05); and the males in each group
("t" = -0.64) in terms of Row I-Identity: What He Is.

3. There was no statistically significant difference between
the means of the experimental and control group ("t" = -0.89); and
the males in each group ("t" = 0.02) in terms of Row II-Self-
Satisfaction: How He Accepts Himself. There was a substantial
difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of
zero, but not significant at the .05 level of confidence, for the
female in each group ("t" = -1.63).

4. There was a substantial difference to the left
of the assumed mean difference of zero, but not significant at the
.05 level of confidence, for the experimental and control group
("t" = -1.75); the females in each group ("t" = -1.13); and the males
in each group ("t" = -1.54) in terms of Row III-Behavior: How He
Acts.

5. There was no statistically significant difference between
the means of the experimental and control group ("t" = -0.61); the
females in each group ("t" = -0.63); and the males in each group
("t" = -0.30) in the area of Column A-Physical Self.

6. There was a statistically significant difference, to the
left of the assumed mean difference of zero, between the means of the
experimental and control group ("t" = -1.98); and the males in each
group ("t" = -2.09) in the area of Column B-Moral-Ethical Self. The
difference between the means for the females in each group was not
significant at the .05 level of confidence ("t" = -0.68).
7. There was no statistically significant difference between the means of the experimental and control group ("t" = -0.64); the females in each group ("t" = -0.42); and the males in each group ("t" = -0.53) in the area of Column C-Personal Self.

8. There was a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, but not significant at the .05 level of confidence for the experimental and control group ("t" = -1.12); and the females in each group ("t" = -1.25) in the area of Column D-Family Self. The difference between the male students was a -0.57.

9. There was no statistically significant difference between the means of the experimental and control group ("t" = -0.32); the females in each group ("t" = -0.60); and the males in each group ("t" = 0.08) in the area of Column E-Social Self.

10. There was a substantial difference to the left of the assumed mean difference of zero, but not significant at the .05 level of confidence, for the experimental and control group ("t" = -1.23) in terms of total Positive Scores. There was no statistically significant difference between the means of the females in each group ("t" = -0.61) and the males in each group ("t" = 0.82) under this same category.

There is no simple formula that adequately explains the findings of this study. Events which occurred during the treatment phase, differences in maturational levels and the number of dropouts in each group could have influenced the findings. The motivation,
techniques and atmosphere created by the teachers are important considerations. Nevertheless, despite a degree of inconclusiveness, the findings suggest the need to solve educational problems through continuous investigation rather than by mere speculation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. It is possible that the instrument used in this study was limited in the area of assessing the self-concept of many black disadvantaged students. Therefore, future studies should employ instruments that are designed to measure the cultural and physical distinctiveness of many black disadvantaged students.

2. Perhaps, twelve weeks was not enough time to bring about a change in self-concept. Therefore, future studies should involve a longer treatment period.

3. Although the units compiled for this investigation suggested activities in the area of the affective domain, follow-up studies should be made involving greater integration of the affective and cognitive domains.

4. Future investigations should utilize different designs.

5. Since this study involved the teaching of the black experience as an integral part of the American history course, additional studies should look at self-concept change in students enrolled in separate black studies classes and those assigned to regular American history classes.
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


Miss Ruby Jean Simms  
1290 Oriole Street  
Baton Rouge, LA 70807

Dear Miss Simms:

Permission is granted for you to conduct a study on The Effects of Black Studies' Instruction on The Self-Concept of Senior High School Students. This would seem to be a very interesting study, and I am anxious to see the results.

You are to contact Mr. W. B. Breda, Principal of McKinley Senior High School, as well as the social studies teachers in that school in order to get their permission for you to use the students at that school in your study.

Please furnish this office with a copy of the results of your study in order that we may have the benefit of your findings. It is understood that the results of this study cannot be published without prior permission from this office.

We wish you success with your program and, if there are other ways that we might be of help to you, please let us know.

Sincerely,

Graydon L. Walker, Coordinator  
Junior-Senior High School

cc: Dr. Doris Conway  
Supt. Robert J. Aertker  
Mr. W. B. Breda  
Mr. Gary W. Blocker

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APPENDIX B

PARTICIPATING CLASSES AT
MCKINLEY SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Experimental Group

Mr. John H. Hamilton - Second and Fourth hour classes

Mr. Ted Jambon - Sixth hour class

Control Group

Mr. Al Glynn Gossett - First and Third hour classes

Mr. John H. Hamilton - Fifth hour class
APPENDIX C

UNIT I

BLACK AMERICANS' STORY BEGAN IN AFRICA

A Supplementary Unit to the
Social Studies Curriculum

Developed for Teachers
of Secondary School Courses in the
History of the United States at
McKinley Senior High School

Compiled by
Ruby Jean Simms, Graduate Student
College of Education
Louisiana State University
Spring, 1975

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Format

Intended Student Audience

Title of the Unit

Approximate Time for Classroom Coverage

I. A Brief Introduction

II. Major Objectives of the Unit
   A. Objectives Within the Cognitive Domain
      1. Knowledge
      2. Understandings
      3. Application
      4. Synthesis
      5. Evaluation
   B. Objectives Within the Affective Domain

III. Outline of Unit Content

IV. Unit Procedures
   A. How to Introduce or Initiate the Unit
   B. How to Implement the Unit
   C. How to Conclude the Unit
   D. Evaluation

V. Materials Which Can Be Used
   A. Audio-Visual Materials
   B. Annotated Bibliography for the Student
   C. Annotated Bibliography for the Teacher
I. Overview

The history of blacks in America span an extensive time line. For centuries prior to the discovery of America, the people of Africa had been creating and developing their own unique customs, traditions, and skills. Indeed, variety was the main factor in describing any aspect of Africa. There were variations in government, labor, society, laws, the economy and in languages.

However, the people of Africa also shared certain commonalities. The various tribes or groups had high regards for the family unit, communal ownership of land, division of labor, complex art forms, love of music and dance, and the oral transmission of knowledge and popular literature.

Indeed, these characteristics continued to exist in spite of the widespread practice of slavery. African slavery had existed many centuries prior to the European's penetration in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The Egyptians were known for capturing and enslaving many different groups of people. The Muslims utilized slaves for their harems and for military and domestic service. Slaves from western Asia and North Africa were used in the Greek and Roman empires. Slaves were mostly servants, but menial service was not accepted as degrading. Many were provided with the opportunities for education and cultural advancement.

This early period of African slave trading was somewhat diminished with the coming of the New World slavery. Motivated
by the forces of the Renaissance and the Commercial Revolution, the Portugese (around 1400) began the modern traffic in Africa slaves. Around the 1500's the Portugese began to lose their monopoly, as the Swedes, Danes, French, Brandenburg Germans, Dutch, and English became involved.

The slaves carried across the "middle passage" to the New World came from areas mostly along the western coast of Africa. This area covered more than 3000 miles from the area of the Senegal River to the Southern portion of what is presently Angola. Therefore, since this region contributed the largest number of slaves in the nineteenth century; and because it excelled in cultural diversities and the development of rich, magnificent empires--the unit which follows focuses on early West Africa.

II. Objectives

A. Knowledge - The learner is to know specific facts, definitions, personalities, and characteristics so that he can:
   1. List and describe the characteristics of early political units.
   2. Give textbook definitions of specific terms.
   3. Describe important aspects of a particular culture within a given time span.
   4. Outline cultural elements retained by a group of people.

B. Understandings - The learner is to understand specific facts and concepts so that he can:
   1. Summarize the main aspects of early political units.
   2. Give examples of cultural diversities.
   3. Define in his own words selected historical terms.
   4. Distinguish between periods of time and events in American history.
5. Explain the role played by early rulers.

C. Application - The learner is to develop skill in applying concepts and methodology learned to new situations so that he can:

1. Use information acquired and understood to construct a graphic aid.
2. Use the steps in a "mode of inquiry" to formulate an hypothesis.

D. Synthesis - The learner is to develop skill in the formation of new patterns of communications so that he can:

1. Write a creative short story.
2. Compose a musical piece.

E. Evaluation - The learner is to develop skill in judging the value of written work so that he can:

1. Compare and contrast cultures and institutions.
2. Justify the retention of a cultural element.

F. Affective - The learner is to acquire new attitudes, appreciations, and interests so that he will:

1. Share new knowledge with classmates.
2. Read additional works pertaining to the unit.
3. Invite someone to speak to the class.
4. Complete required work.
5. Express likes and dislikes of materials covered.
6. List aspects of the unit which interest him.
7. Actively participate in classroom activities.
8. Make rational, defensible value judgments.

III. Content of the Unit

A. Three Early West African Political Units
1. Ghana

a. Cultural and political history of Ghana dates back to the early part of the Christian era.

b. Speculation—some believe that the unit was founded and ruled by white men from North Africa until around A.D. 700. At this time the unit came under the control of the indigenous Soninke people.

c. Early observations—revealed efficiency in political organization. The confederation of settlements were divided into provinces, and each province was further divided.

d. Tenkamenin—became the ruler in 1062
   (1) Fabulously rich—due to taxes and tributes collected from each province.
   (2) Splendid temples were built for the gods.
   (3) Justice administered by the ruler—in a court-like session he honored worthy subjects and punished others.
   (4) Religion—based on the idea that every object included good and bad spirits. The king was the head. In 1076 the Muslims invaded the area, killed Tenkamenin and made Islam the official religion.

e. Occupation—farming of date groves, sheep and cattle raising and commercial trading.

f. Trading—large deposits of gold in Ghana attracted many traders as far away as Egypt. In exchange for gold, rubber, and ivory, the merchants of Ghana received textiles, sugar, brass, salt, and wheat from other lands.

g. Economic decline—end of eleventh century, Ghana entered a period of droughts.

2. Mali

a. As Ghana declined—Mali began to develop. Between 1200 and 1400 she was a great power.

b. Sundiata Keita—early ruler
(1) aided in the consolidation of Mali.
(2) defeated the Soso and Ghana.

c. Mansa--Musa--ruled from 1307-1332 (noted for his famous pilgrimage to Mecca).

(1) Around 60,000 persons (soldiers, royal secretaries, and servants) accompanied him.
(2) Five hundred slaves were used to carry the gold
(3) Twenty-four thousand pounds of gold were used to pay for the journey.

d. Politics--by 1332 Mali was a powerful and well-organized political unit. The Arabian geographer Ibn Batuta observed:

(1) disciplined officials and provincial governors.
(2) public finance well-managed.
(3) respect for justice and the sovereign.

e. Occupations--mostly in the area of agriculture. Some engaged in crafts, mining and international trade.

f. Religion and education--the people were followers of a state religion which had international roots. Many schools were established.

g. Decline in fifteenth century--attacked by Songhay and Mossi.

3. Songhay - 1400-1600

a. Early history--under the control of Mali.

b. The largest and strongest of the three political units.

c. Sonni Ali--began to rule in 1464.

(1) By 1469--his forces had conquered Timbuktu and Mali.
(2) 1492--Sonni Ali died.
d. Askia Mohammed became the ruler.

(1) He improved learning.

(2) Used slaves and prisoners of war as an army instead of his subjects.

(3) Local rulers, four viceroys and his brother Omar kept law and order in the empire.

e. Pilgrimage to Mecca in 1497 resulted in a number of innovations in Songhay.

(1) Governors were assigned to rule over subdivisions of the region.

(2) Chiefs—used to administer the provinces and large cities.

(3) Army—re-organized for efficiency.

(4) Justice—based on law of Mohammed and the Koran.

(5) Banking and credit improved—a unified system of weights and measures used; scales were inspected. Trade was encouraged with other countries.

(6) Education—schools were established. Gao, Walata, Timbuktu, and Jenne were intellectual centers for West African scholars. Blacks and whites studied at the University of Sankore.

f. Decline—in 1529, after a series of wars and massacres, Askia Mohammed’s oldest son later de-throned him and Songhay started her decline.

B. African Culture Prior to the Sixteenth Century

1. Diversity of Political Institutions.

a. Family state—in places where the land was divided among several families. Much power was given to the chief.

b. Clan state—several family states united.

c. Village state—several groups or clan states united.
d. Kingdoms—village states which merged, voluntarily or by force. These could grow into federations or empires.

e. The power to govern in each of the above rested in a given family.

f. Power of the kings, ministers and subchiefs was considerable; but the individual still maintained a strong tie to local authority and local loyalties.

g. Each local area had its own "king." This practice had a "balance of power effect."

2. Regional Variations in Economic Organization

a. Ownership of land—Either individually or collectively, land was very important.

b. The people displayed a high degree of specialization within agricultural pursuits.

c. Domestic animals used: Sheep and cattle for grazing, chicken and other fowls.

d. Many engaged in basketry, weaving, woodwork, and pottery. Iron was also used. (blacksmiths)

e. Specialization was utilized in order to promote outside trade. Some villages engaged in fishing, metallurgy, weapons, and utensils.

3. Social Organizations

a. Family—the basic unit.

b. Family relationship traced through the mother (matrilineal).

c. Some tribes admitted relationship through the father (patrilineal).

d. Polygamy—permitted but not universally practiced.

e. Religion—played a role in determining the number of wives a man could have. Native religions did not limit the number of wives.

(1) Muslims—allowed no more than four wives.
(2) Christians--allowed one wife (monogamy)

f. Clan--all the families that claimed a common ancestor. Sometimes broken through separations. These separations diminished traditions and customs.

g. Social Stratification in the Tribe

(1) First-Nobility--men who were descendants of free men. (a respected clan)

(2) Second--mass of workers--these persons could not prove their right to a respected clan.

(3) Third (bottom of the ladder)--those persons who enjoyed no political or social rights (slaves and war prisoners).

(4) This system of social stratification was mostly based on economics. Certain economic pursuits brought political power.

(5) No caste--all persons, no matter where on the social ladder, were considered as valuable to society.

(6) Slavery--was a part of the social and economic life. Prisoners of war could be sold by their captors. They were chattel property by law, but considered as associates by some masters. Some were exported, sold, or sacrificed in worship ceremonies.

4. Religion

a. Early African religion was ancestor worship. Belief that the spirit of a loved one continued to live. (Kinship group very important)

b. Priests--the patriarchs of the families. They had the power to conduct the ceremonies of worship.

c. Temple--used for worship service.

d. Magic practiced--relied upon magical powers.

e. Elaborate funerals--the funeral was the climax of life.
f. Muslims--with the coming of the Muslims many rejected their religion and held on to their own cults and rituals.

g. Christianity--Africans were slow to accept the Christian faith. The Portuguese brought the religion to Africa in the sixteenth century.

5. The Arts

a. Carvings and sculptures of wood, stone and ivory revealed originality, creativity and skill.

b. Art was applied in industry through glazed and ornamental pottery, carved spoons and knives, golden jewelry, elegantly woven mats, and in the construction of houses, palaces and temples.

c. Music--instruments developed included the drum, guitar, harp, xylophone, flute and zither.

d. The Song was used most frequently.

e. The various dances were recreational, social and religious in nature.

f. Language--numerous languages and dialects hampered communication.

g. Literature--supernatural and moral tales, epic poems, love songs, comic tales, and funeral pieces were transmitted by oral means. The use of Arabic eventually paved the way to include the above in written form.

C. The African Slave Trade--Earliest Forms of Slavery

1. Egypt--enslaved at various times persons who were Semitic; blacks from Nubia, and of Mediterranean heritage.

2. Greek and Roman empires--slaves were brought from Western Asia and North Africa to perform services. Education and other opportunities were made available to slaves. Many were educated and very intelligent.

3. Muslims--bought or captured African slaves and transported them to Arabia, Persia and other lands of Muslim control.

a. African kings who became Muslims aided in the slave trade.
b. Slavery for the Muslims was a sign of wealth and not the prerequisite for wealth.

c. Very little cruelty prevailed.

d. Slaves who became Muslims were considered as brothers, but continued to be held as bondmen.

e. Africans considered slavery as an accident which befell the luckless, not the inferior.

D. Modern Traffic in African Slaves

1. Ignited by the Renaissance and the Commercial Revolution
   a. Concept of freedom.
   b. Revitalized economic life of Europe.
   c. Rise of great nation states in Western Europe.
   d. Techniques of exploration encouraged.

2. Modern traffic in slaves began in 1441—led by Portugal.

3. The slave trade soon became a part of Europe's commercial endeavors, especially the black labor supply.

4. Portugal's monopoly was later broken by England and France in the latter part of the sixteenth century.

5. Seventeenth century—the Dutch, Danes, Swedes, and Germans entered the slave trade.

6. The Dutch—the leaders in the slave trade business until displaced by England after 1700.

7. Most slaves brought to the New World were not kidnapped by Europeans.
   a. Some were already prisoners of war.
   b. Some criminals were sold as punishment.
   c. Inter-tribal warfare was common and encouraged.
   d. Some tribes became actively involved in the slave trade.
E. The Middle Passage

1. "Middle Passage" -- refers to the second point in the triangular journey to America (from home to Africa to West Indies and back to original take off).

2. Crossing the Atlantic Ocean -- lasted from forty to sixty days on the average.

3. One out of eight died; disease rate was high; some slaves committed suicide; and others instigated mutinies.

4. Arrival in the West Indies
   a. Approximately three years -- oriented to routines of plantation life. The slave had to adapt to the food and climate, learn his work assignment and a new language. (the "seasoning stage")
   b. Later the demand for slaves in West Indies decreased, but was counterbalanced by a demand for slaves on the mainland. Slavery then shifted to continental United States.

F. Retention of African Cultural Elements

1. Slaves brought and maintained in the New World many of their African customs and beliefs.

2. Music -- rhythmic relationship and melodic similarity between the American music and native African music (ex. black spirituals, black burial hymns).

3. Singing served as "labor saving devices" while they worked.

4. Dance -- African ritual dance became mixed with secular dances from Europe and became the rhumba, conga, habanera, the beguine, the samba, and the juba.

5. Folk Story -- Slaves brought legends, myths, proverbs, and animal stories. "Uncle Remus" tales are examples of the adaptations.

6. Speech patterns -- Syntax, inflections, sounds, and intonations were maintained in America.

7. Art -- Skill in handcrafts continued. Many black artisans built many of the mansions in the south (in New Orleans, Charleston, and Mobile).
IV. Unit Procedures--Examples of Suggested Learning Experiences

A. Initiatory Activities

This unit may be approached by means of an arranged environment. The following materials may be placed in the classroom to stimulate interest:

1. Pictures, illustrations objects or other material goods which are representative of the various cultures, customs, peoples, and resources of early or contemporary West Africa.

2. Books: historical and fictional accounts that reflect the cultural development of the countries in West Africa.

3. Have students plan a bulletin board on which they can collect and show pictures, newspaper clippings, and articles that show current problems and successes of black-Americans. (This should be a continuous effort and kept up-to-date).

4. Questions: Ask students to raise questions they wish to be answered concerning Africa in general and West Africa in particular. Place questions on the board. Since many of the questions will constitute misconceptions, this exercise may serve as a starting point toward exploring early African civilizations, or ask students the question: What do you think of when you think of Africa?


B. Developmental--Activities and Correlation

1. Suggested Readings:


2. Glossary—Using the text or other sources, begin a glossary of specific terms. Include the following:
   a. culture
   b. slave
   c. slave trade
   d. middle passage
   e. slave coast
   f. West Indies
   g. Triangular Trade Route
   h. heritage
   i. Islam
   j. Musliw

This is a long, significant and interesting unit. In order to facilitate time and encourage preparedness, provision should be made for adequate class planning and general reading assignments. One effective way to investigate this unit is to divide its various topics into group work. Based on the assigned library and group work have students:

3. List on the board the names of three early West African political units, their kings, and their general characteristics. (a discussion should follow)

4. After orally giving a textbook definition of culture and slave coast, have students describe four aspects of African culture prior to the sixteenth century.

5. Many African cultural elements were retained by blacks in America. Outline any four of these cultural traits.

6. Have students write summaries of three African political units discussed in a previous class meeting. Summaries should be prepared and submitted to teacher. Look for four main aspects of each African political unit.
7. Orally or in writing, students should give four examples of how early West African culture was a bundle of diversities.

8. Without looking at their "Glossary of Terms"—have students define (1) slave and (2) slave trade. Using the definitions as a starting point ask for three differences and similarities between early and modern traffic in African slave trading.

9. Write one paragraph—explaining the role played by Tenkamenin and Askia Mohammed in building their empires.

10. Using the knowledge and understanding gained from the previous activities construct two charts showing the more probable causes of the early and modern traffic in African slave trading.

11. Students should be introduced to the "Steps in a Mode of Inquiry" or the scientific method. Relying upon the steps or procedures have students formulate one hypothesis after reading the problem below:

"What Caused Africa's Deline: European Exploitation or Her Tribal Chiefs' Greed?"

Ask students what procedure would they follow in accepting or rejecting their hypotheses.

12. Have more able students write a creative short story dealing with the Middle Passage or the "Seasoning" stage in the West Indies.

13. Have students who are musically inclined write a musical piece dealing with a blend of African and black American rhythmic and melodic relationship.

14. Have more able students compare and contrast early West African culture and institutions with the institutions of other cultures, as well as with their own.

15. After the selection of one West African cultural trait, the student should justify how this trait or element has been retained in contemporary America.

Plan work so that teacher can record and make observations in terms of the student:

16. Shares his knowledge of West African culture with other classmates.
17. Completes additional reading on his own.

18. Invites someone who has visited West Africa to report on his or her observations and findings concerning modern day West Africa.

19. Completes required work on the Africa heritage. (self evaluation by student may also be used)

20. Expresses his likes and dislikes of West Africa culture. Record the number of times student makes such remarks.

21. Lists three aspects of West African culture he is interested in and indicates those of highest interest.

22. Attends and participates in classroom activities—number of times and amount of time.

23. Arrives at rational, defensible value judgments dealing with past or contemporary issues.

C. Culminating Activities

1. Summarize the highlights of the unit; relate the projects and activities to each other; and integrate the topics covered with the American history course as a whole.

2. A film, filmstrip or records may be used to unify the various threads of the unit. (Check Section V—"Materials Which Can Be Used" in making your selection).

3. Examination—objective and/or essay—type examination should reflect the unit objectives and content taught. For best results construct a "Table of Specifications."

4. Have a display of objects collected and work completed. Invite teachers and students to attend the display.

5. One significant goal of the teacher should be to aid students in developing a process for deriving and clarifying their values. In teaching the history of blacks many questions will be asked with direct value overtones. Although the following model (value inquiry) by James Banks is suggested, the teacher may utilize his own unique method. The value oriented lessons may be used as a culminating exercise, as is suggested here, or they may be used during each week's activities.
a. Recognizing Value Problems
b. Describing Value Relevant Behavior
c. Naming Values Exemplified by Behavior
d. Determining Value Conflicts
e. Hypothesizing About Sources of Values
f. Naming Value Alternatives
g. Hypothesizing About the Consequences of Values
h. Choosing (Declaring Value Preference)
i. Stating Reasons, Sources and Consequences of Personal Value Choice(s)

The teacher may use lead questions, open-ended stories, clippings from the newspapers and magazines and the role-exchange test to solicit student involvement.

D. Evaluation--Present a short summary at the end of each class period; at the end of each assignment; and at the end of the unit. Evaluate what has been accomplished in terms of the terminal objectives.

1. Provide Evaluation Experiences which will help teacher and student measure:

   a. What knowledge has been acquired to foster understandings?
   b. What understandings have been developed to accomplish specific skills?
   c. What skills have been used and developed?
   d. What attitudes, appreciations, and interests may have been learned?
   e. What values may have been clarified?

E. Measures to Employ

1. Use daily assignments as a means of evaluating accomplishments.

2. Observe and record evidences of changed behavior.
3. Use objective tests to measure the extent of what has been learned. (knowledge, comprehension, application, synthesis and evaluation). Construct a Table of Specifications based on course objectives and content taught.

4. Use essay questions to measure depth of what is understood.

5. Employ activities which will measure the skills that have been learned and are being developed.

V. Materials Which Can Be Used

A. Audio-Visual Materials

1. Films:


Presents the ancient music of the calabush, primitive horn, tom-tom, and twin xylophones.


Examines the civilization and achievements of ancient Africa and their importance to blacks today.


This film deals with three major African empires which were in existence more than 700 years ago.

2. Filmstrips


"From Africa to America" - An examination of slavery before 1500, contrasted with the slavery of blacks in America during the Colonial period. Economic conditions are also described.
"African Background and Early Days of The American Experience." Producer/Distributor: American Library and Educational Service Co., 44 frames. (Sound)

Recalls and illustrates the African heritage, the inhumanity of the slave trade; and the life of a slave.

"From African to America" No. 413 (Available at McKinley Senior High School Library).

3. Records


Read by James Earl Jones, this record is a series of poems dealing with Africa.

"Negro Folk Songs for Young People." Producer/Distributor: Folkway Record: 1060. 33 1/3 RPM.

Includes black work songs, blues and spirituals reflecting the life and history of blacks. Descriptions of notes with text are included.

4. Multi-Media Kits (Available at McKinley Senior High School Library).


Includes two records, two filmstrips and one guide.

"The Arts of Black Africa"

Includes three filmstrips, three cassettes, and a manual.

B. Reading Materials

1. Annotated Bibliography for the Student

This work is a compilation of selected works dealing with the poetry of Africa. Three of these works are: "Hymn To The Sun" by Pharaoh Akhenaton, Egypt; "The Moon" (Oral Traditional), Guinea; and "The Sky" (Oral Traditional), Ghana.


A collection of drawings and biographical sketches of famous black people. Recommended for student and teacher.


This work contains pictures of African culture as well as background information pertaining to Africa. Recommended for student and teacher.


An account of the African slave trade by an active participant. A good source for every aspect of the slave trade in the nineteenth century. (paperback)


A presentation of narratives by travelers and Africans, dealing with ancient Africa to contemporary Africa. An excellent source for both student and teacher.


An illuminating account of the contributions of Africa to the world. Many of the myths concerning African culture are dispelled in this work. Senior high school students should find this work most useful.


Songs, folk tales, essays, poems and stories of Africa are used to reveal the cultural roots of black Americans.

A well written and documented work dealing with the history of black Americans from Africa to the 1970's. Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 provide materials dealing with early African history and civilization. This work should serve as an excellent reference source for senior high school students.


Katz uses eyewitness accounts of events and episodes in the history of blacks in America. Each of the nineteen groups is prefaced with a self-contained narrative.


Lester presents tales from Africa and black America in a fascinating way. Easy reading and delightful.


The authors use an interdisciplinary approach to present a chronicle of the black man's history and culture. Chapter I deals with the African slave trade era. The African cultural elements, which were retained in America, are pinpointed. Students may find this work useful.


A collection of twenty stories related to African history and culture. Good source to use when discussing the topic of what African cultural elements were retained in America.


Widely acclaimed investigation of the role and contributions of blacks in America. Chapter I deals with the African background to 1619. Recommended for student and teacher.

This work covers the cultural beginnings of the African people. Considered an excellent source for student and teacher. (paperback)


African music is discussed in terms of its place in early African life; its melody, rhythm and form; its musical instruments; and contemporary African music.

2. Bibliography for the Teacher


This work is a collection of African poetic works. Three of the many selections include: "Hymn to the Sun" by Pharaoh Akhenaton, Egypt; "The Moon" (Oral Traditional), Guinea; and "The Sky" (Oral Traditional), Ghana.


A number of black personalities are presented through drawings and biographical sketches. A good source for background information.


A collection of fourteen articles dealing with ethnic studies.


African culture and history is illuminated through a verbal and pictorial form.

This work traces the black man's course in America from the fifteenth century to the sixties. Filled with names and events, this book is an excellent source for the teacher.


This work traces the culture and character of blacks in America from Africa to the 60's. Chapters 1 and 2 deal with unit I.


The author traces the history of West Africa from its early beginnings to the nineteenth century.


Davidson unfolds the history of Africa from ancient times to the contemporary scene. Narratives by travelers and Africans are utilized.


In attempting to re-evaluate the past of Africa, the author examines early African-European contact; the effects of this contact on Africa; and reasons why it ended in attacks and conquests.


A good source for teachers. The work deals with the many contributions of blacks to the world, and destroys many of the myths surrounding African culture.


Black Africa's cultural elements (songs, folktales, essays, poems, and stories) are used to reveal the cultural roots of black Americans. (paperback)

Documents are utilized to unfold the history of blacks from Africa to the 60's. One section deals with the history of early Africa. An overview of each period is presented.

Franklin, John Hope. *From Slavery To Freedom*. New York: Knof. (paperback)

An excellent supplementary text for teachers. It covers the history of black Americans from Africa. Well documented and well written.


Unfolds the history of black Americans through the use of documents. For this unit see Chapter I - "Africa and the Slave Trade."


In nine chapters Herskovits discusses the African background of black Americans, with the goal of determining what aspects of the African heritage were retained in America. This work dis-spells many of the myths concerning blacks.


An excellent collection of 120 spirituals. Included is Johnson's discussion of the origin, artistic quality, and historical importance of the songs.


A highly readable history of the African slave trade.

The authors utilize an analytical and interdisciplinary approach in presenting the history and culture of the black man. A valuable source for teachers.

The Making of Black America. Vol. 1

A compilation of articles by outstanding scholars, dealing with the black American from Africa to the 60's. Among the articles are--"The Negro Kingdoms of the Sudan" by Joseph Greenberg, and "Trade and Politics" in the Niger Delta by K. O. Dike.

Oliver, Roland and J. O. Page. A Short History of Africa.

Traces the history of Africa from its earliest beginning to the end of colonialism. Chapters 1-3, 5, 7, 10 and 13 should aid in understanding the history and culture of West Africa.


This work unfolds the cultural beginnings of the African people. Excellent source for the teacher.
APPENDIX D

UNIT II

BLACKS AND THE BUILDING OF THE COLONIES

A Supplementary Unit to the
Social Studies Curriculum

Developed for Teachers
of Secondary School Courses in the
History of the United States at
McKinley Senior High School

Compiled by
Ruby Jean Simms, Graduate Student
College of Education
Louisiana State University
Spring, 1975
Intended Student Audience

Title of the Unit

Approximate Time for Classroom Coverage

I. A Brief Introduction

II. Major Objectives of the Unit

A. Objectives Within the Cognitive Domain

1. Knowledge

2. Understandings

3. Analysis

4. Synthesis

5. Evaluation

B. Objectives Within the Affective Domain

III. Outline of Unit Content

IV. Unit Procedures

A. How to Introduce or Initiate the Unit

B. How to Implement the Unit

C. How to Conclude the Unit

D. Evaluation

V. Materials Which Can Be Used

A. Audio-Visual Materials

B. Reading Materials

1. Annotated Bibliography for the Student

2. Annotated Bibliography for the Teacher
I. Overview

In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Europeans began to focus their attention toward the discovery of new routes to India. This goal led to the exploration of many parts of Africa and eventually the New World. In the process many Africans were first carried to Europe by the explorers and later many came to the New World with Columbus, Balboa, Pizarro, deVaca, Cortes, and others.

With the discovery and exploration of various parts of the North American continent, many persons of diverse backgrounds began to colonize the area. Blacks were some of the earliest inhabitants. In 1619 twenty African indentured servants from the West Coast of Africa, landed at Jamestown. These persons must be considered as among the first to reach the English colonies. As the years passed, however, blacks replaced Indian labor and were legally given the status of slaves.

The legality of slavery did not prevent blacks from playing a significant role and making many contributions toward the growth and development of the colonies. Comprising twenty percent of the population during the Colonial Period, many blacks served as skilled workers and field hands in each of the thirteen colonies. Some held jobs in factories, on fishing fleets, and others served in the colonial militia. Many of the
"free people of color" served as skilled craftsmen, teachers, doctors, and caterers. Serving in these capacities, blacks were destined to leave their mark on the Exploration and Colonization period.

II. Objectives

A. Knowledge - The learner is to know specific facts, dates, events, terms, personalities, and concepts so that he can:

1. Select important dates and events in American history.
2. Name and match personalities with their accomplishments.
3. Define and compile specific terms.
4. Describe the plight of a given people and efforts made by others to aid them.

B. Understandings - The learner is to understand specific facts and concepts so that he can:

1. Summarize significant contributions of individuals.
2. Generalize about the effects of one individual on another.
3. Discuss good and bad influences of a group of people.
4. Give examples of patterns or developments in historical periods.
5. Generalize about an important historical period.
6. Explain historical materials and influences.

C. Analysis - The learner is to distinguish between fact and opinion and recognize unstated assumptions so that he can:

1. Point out the implications of events in American history.
2. Separate facts from opinions.
3. Illustrate the author or authors' "frame of reference(s)".
4. Point out unstated assumptions.
D. Synthesis - The learner is to develop skill in the formation of new patterns of communication so that he can:

1. Reconstruct a historical event.
2. Create a news broadcast.
3. Write a well organized theme.
4. Categorize historical figures.

E. Evaluation - The learner is to develop skill in judging the value of written work so that he can:

1. Compare cultural assets and liabilities of two groups of people.
2. Justify a given viewpoint.

F. Affective - The learner is to acquire new attitudes, appreciations and interests so that he will:

1. Ask questions concerning specific personalities.
2. Answer questions asked during discussions.
3. Assist in group and committee work.
4. Complete required work.
5. Describe positive feelings toward the unit content and activities.
6. Share knowledge gained with others.
7. Work with others in reaching a value judgment.

III. Content of the Unit

A. Black Explorers and Spanish Ventures

1. Pedro Alonso Nino--served as a pilot on one of Columbus' ships.
2. Nuflo de Olana and thirty other blacks accompanied Balboa in the discovery of the Pacific Ocean.
3. Blacks were with Cortes in Mexico
4. Two hundred blacks went to Quito with Alvarado.
5. Pizarro's trip to Peru included blacks.

6. Spanish masters were saved from the Indians by blacks, in 1525. (Almagro and Valdivia)

7. Conquest of New Mexico by Alarcon and Coronado--blacks included.

8. Blacks were with Narvaez in his 1529 expedition.

9. Alvar Cabeza de Vaca's expedition of the Southwestern portion of North America included Estevanco or "Little Stephen." He was the Moorish black slave who led a group in search of the Seven Cities of Cibola and also aided in the opening up of New Mexico and Arizona.

B. Black Explorers and French Ventures

1. Blacks accompanied the French in the exploration of the New World.

2. Many blacks were with Jesuit missionaries.

3. 1790--Jean Baptiste Point du Sable--a French-speaking black, built the first building on the site which became known as Chicago.

C. Blacks explorers and English ventures--no evidence that blacks accompanied the English.

D. Blacks in the Colonial Period--Contributions

1. Alexander Garden--taught slaves the principle of holy religion.

2. Touro Synagogue in Newport--built by black craftsmen.


4. Lucy Terry Prince--won case involving land disputes in the Supreme Court.

5. Jupiter Hammon--published religious poems.


7. Gustavus Vasa--wrote an account of his capture and enslavement.

9. Benjamin Banneker, a free Maryland farmer—contributed to scientific, mathematical, and political affairs. He helped to survey the land for Washington, D.C. and his almanac was published for 11 years.

10. Paul Cuffe—pushed for educational opportunities for blacks in Massachusetts. Owner of a ship-building business, but later became frustrated over the equality question and sponsored a shipment of blacks to Sierra Leone.

E. Blacks in the Colonial Period—Changing Status: From Indentured Servants to Slaves

1. Southern Colonies
   a. 1619 - First blacks brought to Jamestown as indentured servants.
   b. 1661 - The Virginia legislature—first of the southern colonies to legalize slavery.
   c. 1664 - Maryland reduced to slave status all blacks in the colony regardless of whether or not they were already free or the status of their mothers.
   d. 1663 - Slavery recognized by law in the Carolinas (actually in existence since 1634).
   e. 1667 - Virginia legislature—ruled out religion as a basis for freedom. Maryland, North Carolina, and South Carolina followed.
   f. 1671 - Maryland legislature passed a law which stated that the conversion of slaves to Christianity would not affect their status.
   g. 1681 - Maryland changed its 1663 Act—blacks children of white mothers and children of free black mothers would be free.
   h. South Carolina - passed additional laws restricting slaves (Slave Codes) Georgia adopted South Carolina's code.
   i. 1705 - Virginia passed a law permitting slave owners to list slaves as property (chattel).
2. Middle Colonies

a. New Netherland - Under the Dutch the slave codes were not too elaborate.

b. 1664 - The English took over (New York). In 1665 the colonial assembly recognized the existence of slavery where persons had willingly sold themselves into bondage.

c. 1688 - Slavery recognized as a legitimate institution in New York.

d. New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware each subscribed to the institution of slavery. Slavery did not grow fast in Pennsylvania due to the anti-slavery efforts of the Quakers. Delaware was a part of Pennsylvania until 1703. After this date slavery increased in Delaware.

3. New England Colonies

a. 1638 - A Salem ship brought several Africans to Boston. There after the number increased.

b. 1641 - Massachusetts became the first to recognize slavery as a legal fact.

c. By the 1640's Africans were arriving in all the colonies as slaves.

d. By 1644 - Ships from Rhode Island and Massachusetts were participating in the "triangular trade." (Rum from New England exchanged for slaves in Africa who were carried to the West Indies and exchanged for sugar for the New England distilleries).

e. Number of slaves in New England - remained relatively small, with more freedom of movement.

F. Forms of Resistance

1. 1712 - New York was the scene of several minor outbreaks and a full scale slave up-rising (1741), due to the concentration of an increasing number of slaves.

2. 1741 - Slave revolt in South Carolina.
3. Other Acts of Resistance
   a. Suicides
   b. Runaways
   c. Fake illnesses
   d. Destruction of property and crops

G. Changing Ways of American Life - Efforts to Free and Educate Slaves

1. Society for Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts - attempted to raise the living levels of both whites and blacks.
   a. Wanted slaves to be granted time to study the Bible and to learn to read and write.
   b. Taught slaves themselves.
   c. Established a school for slaves in Charleston.
   d. Pushed for abolition of slave trade in North Carolina.

2. Anthony Benezet and John Woolman led antislavery activities early in the eighteenth century.

3. Pennsylvania - slavery was legally recognized in 1700, but opposition to it was based on economic and moral grounds.

4. First organized effort against slavery was led by Germantown Quakers in 1688. Efforts of the Quakers led to an increase in voluntary manumission.

5. Throughout the eighteenth century the antislavery movement grew. Many colonies passed laws prohibiting the slave trade.

6. Slavery was beginning to die in the New England and Middle colonies.

7. In the South - it continued.

IV. Unit Procedures - Examples of Suggested Learning Experiences

A. Initiatory Activities
1. Have students plan a bulletin board on which they can show certain personalities, events, or trace a theme concerning the "Age of Exploration and Colonization." Include blacks as active participants.

2. Update the bulletin board which shows current problems and successes of black Americans.

3. Books: Have available in the classroom books and other literature on the period; or have students visit the library and construct a short bibliography on some sources which are available.

4. Review the central idea in the previous unit.

5. Allow students to scan through their basic text in search of information pertaining to black Americans, during the period of Exploration and Colonization. If very little is found - ask why? From their answers, the teacher may initiate a general discussion of famous black American explorers.

B. Developmental - Activities and Correlation

1. Suggested Readings


2. Add these terms to your "Glossary of Key Terms:"

   a. Indentured servant

   b. Slave codes

   c. Chattel slavery
3. Due to the tremendous number of dates and events in the history of blacks during the period of exploration and colonization, have students select the ten most significant dates and events. (Selections will vary, but each will help students to narrow the events along this time line).

4. Place on the board a list of accomplishments made by blacks during the Colonial Period. Involve students by having them name five black personalities and match them with their accomplishments.

5. Have students give textbook definitions of the following: (use "Glossary of Key terms").
   a. Indentured servant
   b. Slave code
   c. Chattel slavery

6. After reading from Quarles' work or another source, allow students to describe the changing status of blacks in the Southern, Middle and New England Colonies.

7. Students should know that attempts were made during the Colonial period to free and educate blacks. Have students describe three of these efforts.

8. Assign student committees to research and report on the topic - "Five important black individuals who made significant contributions before 1620." The teacher might submit a list to each committee. The final report should constitute a summary.

9. Estebanico, a black man, supposedly was the first black the Indians had ever seen. He had a charming personality and was quite tall. Write three generalizations depicting the effects Estebanico might have had on the Indians - why some trusted him and others not.

10. Discuss with the class three influences, good and bad, of the Quakers' involvement with the slavery issue.

11. Black Explorers: A Chart --- A list of facts can tell you much more than it appears to at a first glance. One way to make facts speak is to group them in different ways. This chart groups black explorers by country and by approximate date. Study the chart to see how much you can learn from it about explorations and the role blacks played.
Black Explorers: A Chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spain</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>England</th>
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<tr>
<td>1492 - 1498</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pedro Alonso Nino</td>
<td></td>
<td>1524 - 1680 blacks accompanied</td>
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<td>1513</td>
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<td>the French in the exploration of the New World</td>
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<td>Nuflo de Olano</td>
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<tr>
<td>1519 - 1521</td>
<td>blacks with Cortes</td>
<td>blacks were with Jesuit Missionaries</td>
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<tr>
<td>1522 - 1524</td>
<td>200 blacks to Quito</td>
<td>1790 Jean Baptiste Point du Sable</td>
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<td>1529</td>
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<td>1531</td>
<td>blacks with Pizarro</td>
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<tr>
<td>1535 - 1536</td>
<td>Estevanico</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1540 - 1542</td>
<td>blacks with Coronado</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Questions:

a. Do you recognize any patterns or developments in the exploration of the New World? For example:

(1) Is there any one nation which dominated and used more blacks in its search for the New World in a certain period of time? What else can you say about that country from the chart?

(2) What can you say about the black man's role in the exploration period as a whole?

b. This chart answers some questions about black explorers. Does it also raise questions? Explain.

c. Could there have been influences on black explorers other than the ideas of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries? Does the chart suggest this? Explain your answer.
12. Read two accounts of the formation of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1619 and the landing of the first twenty Africans at Jamestown.

a. Both events occurred in 1619; what implications did they have to the development of American democracy?

b. In presenting these two accounts, which source used more facts rather than opinions. Separate these facts.

c. Illustrate how the authors' "frame of reference" is revealed in the accounts. (A frame of reference is based on: (1) one's total life experiences, (2) one's place in society, (3) how one views society's problems, and (4) the amount of knowledge a person has accumulated).

d. Are there any unstated assumptions? If so, point them out.

13. Reconstruct the landing of the twenty black indentured servants who arrived in Jamestown in 1619. Use a role playing technique to depict:

a. Why did they come to America?

b. How long would their status remain that of indentured servants?

c. What were some of their first observations and reactions to the New World?

14. Prepare a news broadcast--reporting the changing status of blacks in the colonies:

a. from the blacks' (slaves) viewpoint.

b. from the free blacks' viewpoint.

c. from the colonists' viewpoint.

15. Which area did blacks make their greatest impact during the colonial period? Have students write a well organized theme centered around this problem.

16. Select any ten black personalities of this period? Place each under as many different categories as you can think of. For example: explorers, colonizers, male, female, "Free persons of color," slaves, artisans, fieldhand, etc.
17. One's heritage contains both assets and liabilities. Comparing that of the English and the African, what assets and liabilities did each bring to Colonial America and how did these influence their respective roles?

18. Justify a viewpoint - Imagine yourself as a "free black" living in one of the Northern colonies. Would you have favored the removal of all the slaves codes? Why or why not?

As progress is made during the teaching of the unit, observe or record the following:

19. The kinds and number of questions asked and answered concerning black explorers, colonizers, and the changing status of blacks during this period.

20. The willingness of students to assist in group and committee work.

21. Completion of required work dealing with the unit.

22. The number of times student makes favorable comments about his black heritage, and shares additional knowledge learned with others.

23. Willingness of students to work with classmates in arriving at a common value judgement about some value object in question.

C. Culminating Activities

1. Use the last week or at least three days to summarize the work covered; relate the projects and activities to each other; and integrate each topic with the American history course as a whole.

2. Examination - Objective and/or essay-type examination should reflect the unit objectives and content taught. For best results, construct a "Table of Specifications."

3. One significant goal of the teacher should be to aid students in developing a process for deriving and clarifying their values. In teaching the history of blacks many questions will be asked with direct value overtones. Although the following model (value inquiry) by James Banks is suggested, the teacher may utilize his own unique method. The value oriented lessons may be used as a culminating exercise, as is this case, or they may be used during each week's activities.
a. Recognizing value problems
b. Describing value relevant behavior
c. Naming values exemplified by behavior
d. Determining value conflicts
e. Hypothesizing about sources of values
f. Naming value alternatives
g. Hypothesizing about the consequences of values
h. Choosing (declaring value preference)
i. Stating reasons, sources and consequences of personal value choice(s)

The teacher may use lead questions, open-ended stories, clippings from the newspapers and magazines, and the role-exchange test to solicit student involvement.

D. Evaluation

Teacher may wish to present a short summary at the end of the unit. Evaluate what has been accomplished in terms of the terminal objectives.

1. Provide evaluation experiences which will help teacher and student measure:
   a. What knowledge has been acquired to foster understandings?
   b. What understandings have been developed to aid in the accomplishments of specific skills?
   c. What skills have been developed and used?
   d. What attitudes, appreciations, and interests may have been learned?

E. Measures to Employ

1. Use daily assignments as a means of evaluating accomplishments.
2. Use an objective test to measure the extent of what has been learned. The test should include items dealing with knowledge, understandings, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. A Table of Specifications, based on course objectives and content, would make the construction of the test enjoyable.

3. Use essay questions to measure the depth of what is understood.

4. Record or observe student's behavior for changes in attitudes, appreciations, and interests.

5. Employ activities which will measure the skills that have been learned and are being developed.

V. Materials which can be used

A. Audio-Visual Materials

1. Films


Three films trace the growth and development of the black man in different periods of American history. For this unit see Part I - 1619-1860.


Chronicles the history of slavery in the U. S. to the Civil War.

2. Filmstrips


"Slavery in America." (Sound)

Traces the beginning of slavery in U. S., the problems created, reasons for enslavement; slavery in the North and South; and the slavery issue as it affected the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.

The contribution of such blacks as Benjamin Banneker, Robert Smalls, Frederick Douglass, and Harriet Tubman are included.

"The Negro in United States History." No. FS. 249. Scholastic Filmstrip. (Available at McKinley Senior High School Library).

3. Records


A recorded account of the adventures in the history and growth of blacks in American life.

"The Glory of Negro History." Producer/Distributor: Folkway Records and Service Corporation, 1966. 33 1/3 RPM.

Written by Langston Hughes, this record discusses a number of topics related to black history and culture. Among them are: (1) How blacks first came to America as sailors and (2) The triumphs and failures of black Americans. Told through the use of African chants and black American folk songs.

4. Multi-Media Kits: (available at McKinley Senior High School).

"Life in Colonial America." Accession Number: 73.

This kit includes six transparencies and one filmstrip.


Includes four filmstrips, two records and four guides.

"Negro History" (SVE) Accession Number: 04.

Includes four records, seven filmstrips, six games, six over-head transparencies, three picture-display portfolios, and twenty-four pictures.
B. Reading Materials

1. Annotated Bibliography for the Student

Adams, Russell L.  *Great Negroes: Past and Present.*  

This collection of drawings and biographical accounts of famous black Americans is a scholarly presentation of historical source materials on blacks. Recommended for student and teacher.


Presents the role of blacks in four periods of American history. For this unit see Chapter I - "Negro Slave Revolts in the U.S.: 1526-1860," pp. 1-70.


The black heritage is traced from its African beginnings to James Meredith's admission to the University of Mississippi. Good illustrations. Recommended for student and teacher.


Fascinating accounts of famous black personalities. Among them are, Peter Salem and Benjamin Banneker.


An excellent general history of blacks in America.

A well written account of the black pilgrimage in America.


Very easy reading narrative on the arrival and domestic activities of slaves. It covers such topics as work, play, punishment, the family, and resistance.


Biography of the life and role played by Toussaint L'Overture in the revolution in Haiti.


An account of the significant contributions made by blacks in the scientific field.


Over 1,000 photographs, prints, and engravings are used to unfold the history of blacks in America.


A compilation of eyewitness accounts of events and episodes in the history of blacks in America. Each of the nineteen groups is prefaced with a self-contained narrative.


The authors, one a historian, the other a sociologist, analyze the history of blacks in America from Africa to the 60's. For this unit see Chapter II 'Black Men in Agrarian America: Slavery and the Plantation.'

Various documents are used to depict the life of the slave and the free blacks. Two of these documents will aid in this unit: "I saw a Slave Ship" pp. 1-10 and "Banneker to Jefferson," pp. 10-16.


An interesting and scholarly account of the history of the black man in America. Recommended for student and teacher.


A series of biographical sketches of selected black Americans. Sketches of Crispus Attucks and Benjamin Banneker are included.


Using pictures and verbal explanations, the author traces the history of blacks from Africa to Okinawa. Easy reading.


This work covers the period from slavery to black nationalism. Easy reading.

2. Annotated Bibliography for the Teacher


Several black heroes included in this unit are included in this collection of drawings and biographies. A good resource for the teacher.

This documentary history of the role of blacks in America is a two volume series. Volume I includes materials from the colonial era to the Civil War. Volume II covers the period from the Civil War to the formation of the NAACP in 1910.


Presents the role of blacks in four periods of American history. For this unit see Chapter I - "Negro Slave Revolts in the United States - 1526-1860," pp. 1-70.


Excellent biography of Benjamin Banneker. Extensive bibliography included.


Bennett traces the history of blacks from their African beginnings to the admission of James Meredith to the University of Mississippi.


The story of the blacks is told by a compilation of names, dates, and events. Excellent source for the teacher.


Using documents, Fishel and Quarles unfold the history of black Americans. An overview of each period is presented.


An excellent general history of blacks in America. A valuable source for the teacher. It includes an extensive bibliography and important pictures.

Using documents, Grant chronicles the history of blacks in America from 1619 to the 60's.


A study of the slave and free black in New England during the colonial period.


This excellent work uses over 1,000 photographs, engravings and prints to present the story of the black man. The picture studies of slavery and the Abolitionist movement are especially good.


The authors, one a historian, the other a sociologist, analyze the history of blacks in America from Africa to the 60's. For this unit see Chapter II.


An interesting and scholarly account of the history of the black man in America. It is an excellent resource.
APPENDIX E

UNIT III

THE BIRTH AND GROWTH OF A NEW NATION:
THE ROLE OF BLACKS

A Supplementary Unit to the
Social Studies Curriculum

Developed for Teachers
of Secondary School Courses in the
History of the United States at
McKinley Senior High School

Compiled by
Ruby Jean Simms, Graduate Student
College of Education
Louisiana State University
Spring, 1975

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Format

Intended Student Audience

Title of the Unit

Approximate Time for Classroom Coverage

I. A Brief Introduction

II. Major Objectives of the Unit
   A. Objectives Within the Cognitive Domain
      1. Knowledge
      2. Understandings
      3. Application
      4. Analysis
      5. Synthesis
      6. Evaluation
   B. Objectives Within the Affective Domain

III. Outline of Unit Content

IV. Unit Procedure
   A. How to Introduce or Initiate the Unit
   B. How to Implement the Unit
   C. How to Conclude the Unit
   D. Evaluation

V. Materials Which Can Be Used
   A. Audio-Visual Materials
   B. Annotated Bibliography for the Student
   C. Annotated Bibliography for the Teacher
In 1763 the English defeated the French in what has become known as the French and Indian War. This war marked the culmination of hostilities between England and France, which had lasted for approximately one-hundred years. Not only was it world-wide in scope, but domestically it had the effect of unifying the Colonies. Later, however, when England began to tax the Colonies in order to pay for the cost of the war, it united the Colonies against England, as well as the slave trade.

Increased taxation by England coupled with increased residence by the Colonies soon led to open-conflict. On March 5, 1770, the first tragic confrontation of the prewar period occurred. The first to die was a runaway slave and sailor, Crispus Attucks. The death of Attucks and others at the "Boston Massacre" became historical proof of the discontent which was prevalent in the Colonies.

As tensions increased a full-scale war erupted on April 19, 1775 with the Battle of Lexington and Concord. Black men made many contributions as participants in the war, although during the first two years their participation was limited. The degree of limitation was based on the question of whether or not blacks should be excluded or permitted to fight. With the appeal for blacks by the royal governor of Virginia, Lord Dunmore, the
question was answered. The Continental Congress authorized the enlistment of slaves and free blacks as soldiers, sailors and laborers.

When the war ended, some blacks who served were freed or manumitted later. What blacks and many colonists had hoped for was a government which would dispense equality and justice to all. Realizing that the "antislavery" passage had earlier been stricken from the Declaration of Independence, they now turned to the delegates to the Constitutional Convention.

However, the delegates reached three compromises which hampered the goals of blacks and other abolitionists, but did not destroy them. A new movement calling for internal changes was led by religious groups; and the renewed efforts of old and new groups pushed for the abolition of slavery. Prior to the convention several northern states had moved toward the emancipation of slaves, beginning with Vermont in 1777 and spreading throughout the northern states with acts of manumission in others and ending in 1884 with New Jersey's proclamation.

At the same time that some blacks were experiencing political and social oppression, there existed a group of prominent free blacks, living mostly in northern cities. Many of these blacks acquired land, built schools, worked in the trades, owned businesses and plantations, and entered the professions. Many, such as Richard Allen and A. Jones formed their own churches and fought for the emancipation of all blacks.
As the institution of slavery continued to expand, the abolitionist movement lost its impetus. However, following the role played by blacks in the War of 1812 and the official ending of this war in 1815 the movement gained new strength.

II. Objectives

A. Knowledge - The learner is to know specific facts, events, terms, concepts, personalities and characteristics so that he can:

1. Describe the changing attitudes of a group of people.
2. Give textbook explanations of specific terms.
3. List and cite the arguments of selected historical personalities.
4. Identify important persons and events in American history.
5. Outline the plight and realities of a war on a group of people.
6. Label the provisions of selected compromises.
7. List problems of a group of people during a particular period of time.

B. Understandings - The learner is to understand specific facts and concepts so that he can:

1. Construct a timeline of major historical events.
2. Summarize the role of a group of people in a particular war.
3. Give examples of problems created after a war.
4. Summarize the life history of selected individuals.
5. Interpret an historical inscription.
6. Select a problem and write a lead paragraph.

C. Application - The learner is to develop skill in applying concepts and methodology learned to new situations so that he can:
1. Use the steps in "a mode of inquiry" to solve a problem.
2. Use information acquired to formulate an hypothesis.
3. Relate material covered to a given topic.

D. Analysis - The learner is to develop skill in uncovering the organizational structure of historical materials so that he can:
   1. Differentiate between statement of fact and opinion.
   2. Point out biased statements.
   3. Outline parts of an argument.
   4. Point out unstated assumptions.

E. Synthesis - The learner is to develop skill in the formation of new patterns of communication so that he can:
   1. Write a well organized theme.
   2. Make a freehand map of pictures.
   3. Write and produce a skit.
   4. Develop a "You Are There Program."
   5. Write an editorial.

F. Evaluation - The learner is to develop skill in judging the value of written work so that he can:
   1. Debate a specific topic.
   2. Compare past and present problems.
   3. Appraise historical decisions.

G. Affective - The learner is to acquire new attitudes, appreciations and interests so that he will:
   1. Complete required assignments and activities.
   2. Describe positive feelings toward the unit content and activities.
   3. Assist in group and committee work.
4. Answer questions asked during discussions.
5. Share knowledge gained with others.
6. Make rational, defensible value judgments.

III. Content of the Unit

A. End of French and Indian (War 1763) - Colonies take new approach to slavery.
   1. Dual Role - As England imposed more restrictions the colonists found themselves as the oppressed and the oppressor.
   2. This inconsistency led to several colonial leaders denouncing slavery and the slave trade
      a. Benjamin Franklin
      b. Benjamin Rush
      c. Thomas Jefferson
      d. Thomas Paine
      e. Patrick Henry
      f. James Otis

B. The Pace of Antislavery Activity Quickened
   1. Enlightenment and natural law theory - used as a philosophical basis for antislavery sentiments.
   2. James Otis - his paper "The Rights of the British Colonies" affirmed blacks' inalienable right to freedom.
   3. Blacks petitioned the General Court of Connecticut, Massachusetts and New Hampshire - Their pleas were based on the "natural rights theory."

C. First Prewar Open Attack
   1. 1770 - Boston Massacre
   2. Led by a runaway slave, Crispus Attucks

D. Years following Boston Massacre
1. Colonists continued to speak out against slavery.
   a. Reverend Isaac Skillman (1773) - thought that slaves should revolt.
   b. Abigail Adams (1774) - expressed antislavery sentiments in a letter to her husband.
   c. Thomas Jefferson - his "A Summary View of the Rights of British America" - stated that the goal of the colonies was to abolish slavery, but Great Britain was blamed for blocking such efforts.

2. Continental Congress (1774) - passed a law prohibiting the importation of slaves after December 1, 1775. (More a reaction to England's "Intolerable Acts" rather than antislavery views).

3. Declaration of Independence (1776) - original draft included an antislavery passage but this was dropped due to opposition from southerners and northerners.

4. Various groups organized antislavery societies from Massachusetts to Virginia.

E. Blacks played a significant role in the American Revolution

1. Lexington and Concord (April, 1775) - blacks participated.

2. Slaves and free blacks participated in the Battle of Bunker Hill - Peter Salem, a manumitted slave, is credited with shooting the British Major Pitcairn on June 17, 1775.

3. Salem Poor - was recognized by army officers as a brave and superior fighter.

4. Prince Whipple and Oliver Cromwell - accompanied George Washington when he crossed the Delaware River - Christmas, 1776.

5. Tack Sisson - aided in the capture of the British general, Richard Prescott. (Newport, Rhode Island, July 9, 1777).

6. Lemuel Hayes - in 1777 participated in the Ticonderoga venture, which was designed to stop the penetration of Burgoyne's army.

7. Pompey - acting as a spy aided, Anthony Wayne in his victory at Stony Point.
8. Fighting in Savannah in 1779, Free Haitian blacks (over 700) assisted the French forces.

9. Other Blacks who were commended
   a. Caesar Brown - Westford, Massachusetts, killed in action.
   b. Barzillat Lew - drummer and fifer.
   c. Prince Hall - later became an abolitionist and masonic leader.

F. Blacks and the military - exclusion or enlistment?
   1. George Washington - order sent July 9, 1775 (no recruiting officers were to enlist any blacks).
   2. Blacks already in service were not affected.
   3. Washington, Major Generals Ward, Lee and Putnam (October 8, 1775) - agreed not to enlist any slaves nor free blacks.
   4. British appeal to blacks by the royal governor of Virginia, Lord Dunmore, caused a reversal of the Continental Congress' position.
      a. Free blacks were allowed to serve in the colonial army by January, 1776.
      b. Most states, through legislation or a reversal of its policy, began to enlist slaves and free blacks.
      c. Over 5,000 blacks fought in the war (the majority came from the North).

G. All black companies
   1. Massachusetts (2) - one was commanded by Major Samuel Lawrence, and the other "The Bucks of America" was under Commander Middleton (a black).
   2. Connecticut - had an all black company under Captain David Humphrey.
   3. Rhode Island - had an all black company under Colonel Jeremiah Olney and later led by Colonel Christopher Greene.

H. Blacks served in the Navy

2. Connecticut and Massachusetts - three black crewmen were on Captain David Porter's Aurora; and four were on the crew of the "Privateer."

I. Realities of the Revolution for blacks

1. Some blacks who served were freed at the time of enlistment or manumitted at the end of the war.

2. Antislavery spokesmen and societies increased.

3. More legislation against the slave trade - some Southern states abolished the slave trade.

4. Abolition of slavery in the northern states.
   a. Vermont - 1777
   b. Pennsylvania - 1780
   c. Connecticut and Rhode Island - 1784
   d. New York 1799; New Jersey 1804

5. North West Ordinance of 1787
   a. Outlawed slavery in the Northwest Territory.
   
   b. This document became the seed of the idea of Congress regulating slavery in the territories.

J. Constitutional Convention of 1787 - A conservative reaction to antislavery sentiments

1. No federal intervention or regulation of slavery. The states were in control of this matter.

2. Three-fifths Compromise.

3. Extension of slave trade for twenty years before the federal government could abolish it. Outlawed by Congress in January, 1808 but not rigorously enforced.

4. Return of fugitive slaves by free states to owners.

K. Free blacks and exslaves in the North and South

1. Acquired land, built schools, worked in trades, owned businesses or plantations, entered the professions.
2. Established their own religious organizations
   a. 1787 - Richard Allen and Absolom Jones organized the free American Society and the African Episcopal Church.
   b. John Stewart - conducted missionary work with Indians in the Lake Erie Region.
   c. An independent black church was established by Daniel Coker and Lott Carey.

3. Performed volunteer work - Allen and Jones (1793) aided the city of Philadelphia in its attempt to eradicate a cholera epidemic.

4. Participated in another war - the War of 1812
   a. John Johnson - recognized as a naval hero (bravery) by his commander.
   b. Two (unofficial) battalions of blacks answered Andrew Jackson's call to defend New Orleans against the British in 1814. (In New Orleans these two had been in existence before the Louisiana Purchase, although no state in the Union permitted blacks to join the military).
   c. Andrew Jackson, in a letter to Napoleon, gave credit to a black as being the one who shot the British General Packenham.

IV. Unit Procedures - Examples of Suggested Learning Experiences

A. Initiatory Activities

1. Plan a bulletin board on which students can show certain personalities, events or trace a theme concerning the "Birth and Growth of the Nation." Include blacks as active participants.

2. Update the bulletin board which shows current problems and successes of black Americans.

3. Books: Have available in the classroom books and other literature on the period.

4. Review the central idea in the previous unit.

6. The first class period may involve an informal conversation, questioning, explanations, viewing a filmstrip, film or listening to a record. For the second class period students should be encouraged to ask questions concerning the points discussed the previous day and to ask additional questions. If audiovisual aids are used, students should have been given questions to react to prior to viewing or listening to the aid. Use these activities to present an overview of the unit, and to solicit students' suggestions and involvement.

B. Developmental Activities and Correlation

1. Suggested Readings


2. Add to your "Glossary of Specific Terms" the following:
   a. Boston Massacre
   b. Three-Fifths Compromise
   c. Great Compromise
   d. Manumission
   e. Emancipation
   f. "Free Blacks"

3. Begin a biographical dictionary. Include the following:
   a. Crispus Attucks
   b. Benjamin Banneker
   c. Paul Cuffe
d. Salem Poor

e. George Washington

f. Thomas Jefferson

g. Lord Dunmore

h. Peter Salem

i. John Randolph

In order to facilitate time and encourage preparedness, assignments should be given prior to the general discussions and activities. Based on the assigned work have students:

4. Enter into a discussion centered around a description of the colonists' attitudinal changes with regards to slavery.

5. The Boston Massacre was a most significant event leading to the American Revolution. Ask several students to give their textbook explanation of the Boston Massacre followed by a statement of the role Crispus Attucks (a black) played in the Revolution.

6. Early during the colonial period many persons expressed antislavery sentiments. Have students to list six such individuals and cite the argument of each.

7. Blacks were not only explorers and colonizers but fighters as well. Ask for the identification of five blacks who fought in the American Revolution. Since blacks had problems enlisting in the army, have students outline the main difficulties.

8. When the war ended many blacks felt that freedom had come for the colonies as well as themselves. Outline in writing the realities of the war for blacks.

9. The Constitution does not mention the word black or Negro, yet the delegates of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 were confronted with his presence and future status. Label the provisions of the three compromises which affected blacks.

10. Between 1783 and 1787 blacks were confronted with a number of problems. Have students list five problems blacks faced about which editorials might have been written during this span of time.
11. Construct a timeline to show the twenty year period between the two treaties of Paris (1763 and 1783). Along this line indicate the various events of this period in which blacks played a major role.

12. In your own words, summarize the major aspects of the black man's role in the American Revolution.

13. Give four examples of the problems blacks faced after the war for independence. Include in your examples the plight of "free blacks," as well.

14. Summarize the life history of two selected black individuals during the Colonial Period. (Check the biographical dictionary)

15. The following statement deals with the inscription written on the monument dedicated to Crispus Attucks and others who died in the Boston Massacre of 1770. Read the statement, then orally give an interpretation:

"On that night the foundation of America was laid."

16. For a committee - arrange a panel discussion on the Compromises of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. The group should summarize the issues involved, solutions arrived at, and the effects of the compromises on blacks.

17. Select one of the five problems listed in Activity Exercise 10 and write the lead paragraph of an editorial. Provide an appropriate headline. Draw a cartoon to accompany the editorial.

18. Use the steps in a "mode of inquiry" to solve the following problem:

   I. Problem: Were the Framers of the Constitution Enlightened Innovators or Preservers of the Status Quo?

   II. Tentative Hypothesis:

   III. Implications of the Hypothesis:

   IV. Collection of Data:

   V. Interpretation and Analysis of Data:

   VI. Tentative Conclusion:
19. Using the knowledge in this unit, form a hypothesis about how united the slaves and "free blacks" of the colonies were likely to be. Consider:

a. Whether they were likely to have common problems which would require a degree of cooperation.

b. Whether their interests would be the same or different.

c. Whether their beliefs and attitudes were likely to be similar.

20. What conclusions from the previous unit are related to the topic on the role of blacks in the military? (American Revolution and War of 1812)

21. Have students read from three different sources the event of the Boston Massacre of 1770. Pinpoint two facts and two opinions found in each reading. Which source attempts to explain why the word "massacre" became applied to this event?


The Testimony of Slave Andrew

The people seemed to be leaving the soldiers, and to turn from them, when there came down a number from Jackson's corner, huzzaing and crying, damn them, they dare not fire, we are not afraid of them. One of these people, a stout man with a long cord wood stick, threw himself in, and made a blow at the officer; I saw the officer try to ward off the stroke; whether he struck him or not I do not know; the stout man then turned round, and struck the grenadier's gun at the captain's right hand, and immediately fell in with his club, and knocked his gun away, and struck him over the head; the blow came either on the soldier's cheek or hat. This stout man held the bayonet with his left hand, and twitched it and cried, kill the dogs, knock them over. This was the general cry, the people then crowded in, and upon that the grenadier gave a twitch back and relieved his gun, and he up with it and began to pay away on the people. I was then betwixt the officer and this grenadier; I turned to go off, when I heard the word fire; at the word fire, I thought I heard the report of a gun, and upon my hearing the report, I saw the same grenadier swing his gun, and
immediately he discharged it. Do you know who this stout man was, that fell in and struck the grenadier? I thought, and still think, it was mulatto who was shot.*

Questions:

a. On what facts does slave Andrew base his testimony?

b. What other kinds of questions might have been asked Andrew in the courtroom by a lawyer? Why?

c. Do you detect any opinions on the part of Andrew which might influence his testimony?

d. Is there evidence that racial prejudice influenced the testimony of Andrew?

23. Write a well organized theme on the following: How might American history have been different if the framers of the Constitution had not reached compromises on the slavery issue?

24. Make a freehand map with pictures that will tell the story of the Battle of Bunker Hill and the role played by Peter Salem.

25. Write and produce a skit showing a group of colonists discussing whether or not to support the freedom of blacks or to remain silent on the questions.

26. Develop a "You Are There Program" - presenting a press conference with four delegates at the Constitutional Convention of 1787. Questions from pupils representing the press should be based on the problems of slavery at the time. Answers by the delegates must be based on their actual statements and historically documented beliefs.

27. Write an editorial for a leading Southern newspaper on the bravery of the two black battalions at the Battle of New Orleans.

28. Debate the following topic: Resolved: That blacks helped the cause of American independence more than they hurt it.

29. Of what value today is the decision of the Continental Congress to enlist slaves and free blacks in the military?
30. Compare the list of five problems (knowledge, objective 7, using activity 10) with five problems facing blacks today.

Plan work so that teacher can record and make observations in terms of the student:

31. Completes required assignments and activities on the birth and growth of America.

32. Describes positive feelings toward the role of blacks in the Revolutionary period. (Record the number of times student makes such remarks).

33. Completes assigned group and committee work.

34. Attends to and participates in classroom discussion.

35. Shares his knowledge of the blacks during the Revolutionary period with other students.

36. Arrives at a rational, defensible value judgment dealing with past or contemporary issues.

C. Culminating Activities

1. Summarize the highlights of the unit; relate the projects and activities to each other; and integrate each topic covered with the American history course as a whole.

2. Examination - objective and/or essay-type examination should reflect the unit objectives and content taught. For best results construct "Table of Specifications."

3. March 1, 1975 marked the official beginning of the twenty-two month Bicentennial Celebration. Have students present a display in which bicentennial-related projects are shown.

4. One significant goal of the teacher should be to aid students in developing a process for deriving and clarifying their values. In teaching the history of blacks many questions will be asked with direct value overtones. Although the following model (value inquiry) by James Banks is suggested, the teacher may utilize his own unique method. The value oriented lessons may be used as a culminating exercise, as is suggested here, or they be used during each week's activities.
a. Recognizing Value Problems
b. Describing Value Relevant Behavior
c. Naming Values Exemplified by Behavior
d. Determining Value Conflicts
e. Hypothesizing About Sources of Values
f. Naming Value Alternatives
g. Hypothesizing About the Consequences of Values
h. Choosing (Declaring Value Preference)
i. Stating Reasons, Sources and Consequences of Personal Value Choice(s)

The teacher may use lead questions, open-ended stories, clippings from the newspapers and magazines, and the role-exchange test to solicit student involvement.

D. Evaluation - Teacher may wish to present a short summary at the end of each class period; at the end of each assignment; and at the end of the unit. Evaluate what has been accomplished in terms of your terminal objectives.

1. Provide Evaluation Experiences which will help teacher and student measure:
   a. What understandings have been developed to accomplish specific skills?
   b. What skills have been used and developed?
   c. What values, attitudes, appreciations, and interests may have been learned?

2. Measures to Employ:
   a. Use daily assignments as a means of evaluating accomplishments.
   b. Direct observations and recordings by teacher.
   c. Self evaluation by student.
   d. Use objective tests to measure extent of what has been learned. Construct a Table of Specifications based on course objectives and content taught.
e. Use essay questions to measure depth of what is understood.

f. Employ activities which will measure the skills that have been learned and are being developed.

V. Materials which can be used

A. Audio-Visual Materials

1. Films


Traces the role of blacks in America from the American Revolution to Martin Luther King.

2. Filmstrips

"Black History." Producer/Distributor: Library Filmstrip Center, 1969. 55 frames. 4 in series. (sound)

The filmstrips relate the history of the black man from slavery to citizen. Part II - 1492-1865.


Series II - "Slavery in the Young American Republic" Covers the gains blacks made toward freedom during and after the American Revolution; discusses the antislavery attitudes of certain colonists; and why slavery declined in the North but grew in the South.

3. Records

B. Reading Materials

1. Annotated Bibliography for the Student


A collection of drawings and biographical sketches of famous black people. Recommended for student and teacher.


Depicts the role of the black man in four periods of American history. For this unit see Chapter II - "The Negro in the American Revolution," pp. 71-110; and Chapter III, pp. 111-160.


The classic general history of the black man's role in the making of America.


Although the work traces the history of blacks from Africa to the 60's, two of the chapters are pertinent to this unit. Chapter II - "Colonial Economics versus Colonial Conscience" pp. 39-57; and Chapter III - "The Peculiar Institution." pp. 58-73.

This book includes pictures and content on the blacks in the American Revolution; their role in the War of 1812 and Richard Allen's role in the creation of the African Methodist Episcopal Church.


Eyewitness accounts of events and episodes are used to unfold the history of blacks in America. Each of the nineteen groups is prefaced with a self-contained narrative.


A well written and well documented study of the role of blacks played in the American Revolution.


An easy reading account of the lives of selected blacks. Richard Allen's biographical sketch is included.


A study of the ante-bellum free black in the state in which the African first arrived. It covers the number and distribution of free blacks; the origin of the free black class; manumission, and the social status of the free blacks.
2. Annotated Bibliography for the Teacher

Adams, Russell L. *Great Negroes Past and Present.* 

A good resource which includes drawings and 
biographies of black personalities discussed in 
this unit.

Aptheker, Herbert. *A Documentary History of the Negro 
People in the United States.* New York: The Citadel 

Volume I deals with the history of blacks from the 
colonial period to the Civil War. Volume II covers 
the period from the Civil War to the establishment 
of the NAACP in 1910.

________. *Essays in the History of the American 
(Paperback)

This work deals with the role of blacks in four 
periods of this country's history. For this unit 
see Chapter II - "The Negro in the American 
Revolution," pp. 71-110; and Chapter III, pp. 111- 
160.

Bergman, Peter M. and Mort N. Bergman. *The Chronological 
History of the Negro in America.* New York: The 
New American Library, 1969. (Paperback)

A book of factual materials dealing with the history 
of the blacks in America. Excellent source for 
teachers.

Grant, Joanne. *Black Protest: History, Documents, and 

Using documents, Grant traces the history of blacks 
in America from Jamestown (1619) to the 60's.

Port Washington, N. Y.: Atheneum, 1942. (Paperback)

A study of the slave and free black in New England, 
during the Colonial period.

Over 1,000 pictorial aids are used to present the story of the black man. For this unit, the picture studies of slavery and the Abolitionist movement are good.


The authors, one a historian, the other a sociologist, analyze the history of blacks in America from Africa to the 60's. For this unit see Section II - "American Negroes and the System of Slavery."


A well written study of the role blacks played in the American Revolution.


An interesting and scholarly account of the history of the black man in America. For this unit see Chapter II.


A study of the ante-bellum free blacks in Virginia. Topics covered include: (1) The number and distribution of free blacks; (2) The origin of the free black class; (3) Manumission, and (4) The social status of the free blacks.
INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes. You will fill these boxes in later. Write only on the answer sheet. Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. Do not omit any item! Read each statement carefully; then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a circle around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an X mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked time started and record the time. When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked time finished.

As you start, be sure that your answer sheet and this booklet are lined up evenly so that the item numbers match each other.

Remember, put a circle around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Completely false</th>
<th>Mostly false and partly true</th>
<th>Mostly true</th>
<th>Completely true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You will find these response numbers repeated at the bottom of each page to help you remember them.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I have a healthy body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I am an attractive person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I consider myself a sloppy person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I am a decent sort of person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I am an honest person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I am a bad person.</td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>I am a cheerful person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>I am a calm and easy going person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>I am a nobody.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>I am a member of a happy family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>My friends have no confidence in me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>I am a friendly person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>I am popular with men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>I am not interested in what other people do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91</td>
<td>I do not always tell the truth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93</td>
<td>I get angry sometimes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Completely false</th>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Completely Mostly Partly false Mostly Completely false partly true true

1 2 3 4 5
2. I like to look nice and neat all the time.
4. I am full of aches and pains.
6. I am a sick person.
20. I am a religious person.
22. I am a moral failure.
24. I am a morally weak person.
38. I have a lot of self-control.
40. I am a hateful person.
42. I am losing my mind.
56. I am an important person to my friends and family.
58. I am not loved by my family.
60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me.
74. I am popular with women.
76. I am mad at the whole world.
78. I am hard to be friendly with.
92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.
94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I am neither too fat nor too thin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I like my looks just the way they are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I would like to change some parts of my body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my moral behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my relationship to God.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I ought to go to church more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>I am satisfied to be just what I am.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>I am just as nice as I should be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>I despise myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my family relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>I understand my family as well as I should.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>I should trust my family more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79</td>
<td>I am as sociable as I want to be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>I try to please others, but I don't overdo it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83</td>
<td>I am no good at all from a social standpoint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>I do not like everyone I know.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97</td>
<td>Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses: Completely false, Mostly false, Partly false and partly true, Mostly true, Completely true
8. I am neither too tall nor too short. ......................................................... [ ]
10. I don't feel as well as I should. .......................................................... [ ]
12. I should have more sex appeal ........................................................... [ ]
26. I am as religious as I want to be ....................................................... [ ]
28. I wish I could be more trustworthy ................................................... [ ]
30. I shouldn't tell so many lies .............................................................. [ ]
44. I am as smart as I want to be ............................................................ [ ]
46. I am not the person I would like to be ............................................. [ ]
48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do ............................................. [ ]
62. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living) [ ]
64. I am too sensitive to things my family say ...................................... [ ]
66. I should love my family more ............................................................ [ ]
80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people .............................. [ ]
82. I should be more polite to others ....................................................... [ ]
84. I ought to get along better with other people .................................. [ ]
96. I gossip a little at times ................................................................. [ ]
98. At times I feel like swearing ............................................................. [ ]

Responses - Completely false  Mostly false  Partly false and partly true  Mostly true  Completely true
1  2  3  4  5
13. I take good care of myself physically......................................................... 13
15. I try to be careful about my appearance.................................................... 15
17. I often act like I am "all thumbs"............................................................... 17
31. I am true to my religion in my everyday life............................................ 31
33. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong................. 33
35. I sometimes do very bad things............................................................... 35
49. I can always take care of myself in any situation..................................... 49
51. I take the blame for things without getting mad...................................... 51
53. I do things without thinking about them first......................................... 53
67. I try to play fair with my friends and family........................................... 67
69. I take a real interest in my family............................................................ 69
71. I give in to my parents. (Use past tense if parents are not living)............. 71
85. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view................................. 85
87. I get along well with other people.......................................................... 87
89. I do not forgive others easily................................................................. 89
99. I would rather win than lose in a game.................................................. 99

Responses -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page 5  155  Item No.
14. I feel good most of the time .................................................................
16. I do poorly in sports and games ...........................................................
18. I am a poor sleeper ...........................................................................
32. I do what is right most of the time ......................................................
34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead ...........................................
36. I have trouble doing the things that are right ....................................
50. I solve my problems quite easily .......................................................  
52. I change my mind a lot ......................................................................
54. I try to run away from my problems ................................................
68. I do my share of work at home ...........................................................
70. I quarrel with my family ...................................................................
72. I do not act like my family thinks I should ........................................
86. I see good points in all the people I meet ..........................................  
88. I do not feel at ease with other people ..............................................
90. I find it hard to talk with strangers ...................................................
100. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today ....
Ruby Jean Simms was born in Scotlandville, Louisiana, on December 2, 1937 and was graduated from Scotlandville Junior-Senior High School in 1956. In September of that year she entered Southern University and remained until May of 1960, at which time she received the Bachelor of Arts degree in the area of history. In 1963 and 1967 the Bachelor of Science and Master of Education degrees were conferred upon her by the same institution.

Her teaching career began in January, 1963 as a tenth grade teacher in the Carter C. Raymond High School in LeCompte, Louisiana. From September, 1963 to May, 1968 she was employed as an English, Social Studies teacher at Scotlandville Senior High School. In 1968 she joined the faculty at Southern University, in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, as an instructor of geography and American history. Presently, she is employed as an Assistant Professor of history.
EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

Candidate: Ruby Jean Simms

Major Field: Education

Title of Thesis: THE EFFECTS OF BLACK STUDIES' INSTRUCTION ON THE SELF-CONCEPT OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Approved:

[Signatures]

Major Professor and Chairman

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

[Signatures]

Date of Examination:

April 1, 1976