

Faculty Journal
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PREFACE

The Faculty Journal of Delaware State College is dedicated to those men and women whose primary responsibility is student instruction, but who feel that their mission would be incomplete without continued research, study, and creative effort. Here we feel we've given a representative sampling of the type of research and creative activity carried on by Delstate faculty members.

This second volume has been edited and prepared by the Faculty Journal Editorial Board: Dr. Tamara Jackson, Mrs. Mary King, Dr. Lester Larson, Mr. Cecil Willis, and Dr. Robert Obojski (Chairman).

As its editors, we acknowledge our sincere appreciation to the individual contributors and those anonymously involved for their effort, patience and cooperation.

Dover, Delaware
May 15, 1972

Cover Photo: Delstate's \$4.5 million Education and Humanities Center will house the Departments of Art Education, Education, English, Foreign Languages and Philosophy. An ultra-modern auditorium, counseling offices and educational media center will also be housed in the new complex.

Delaware State's next major construction will be a \$2.5 million library, and this will be followed by a modernization of the Athletic Department complex.

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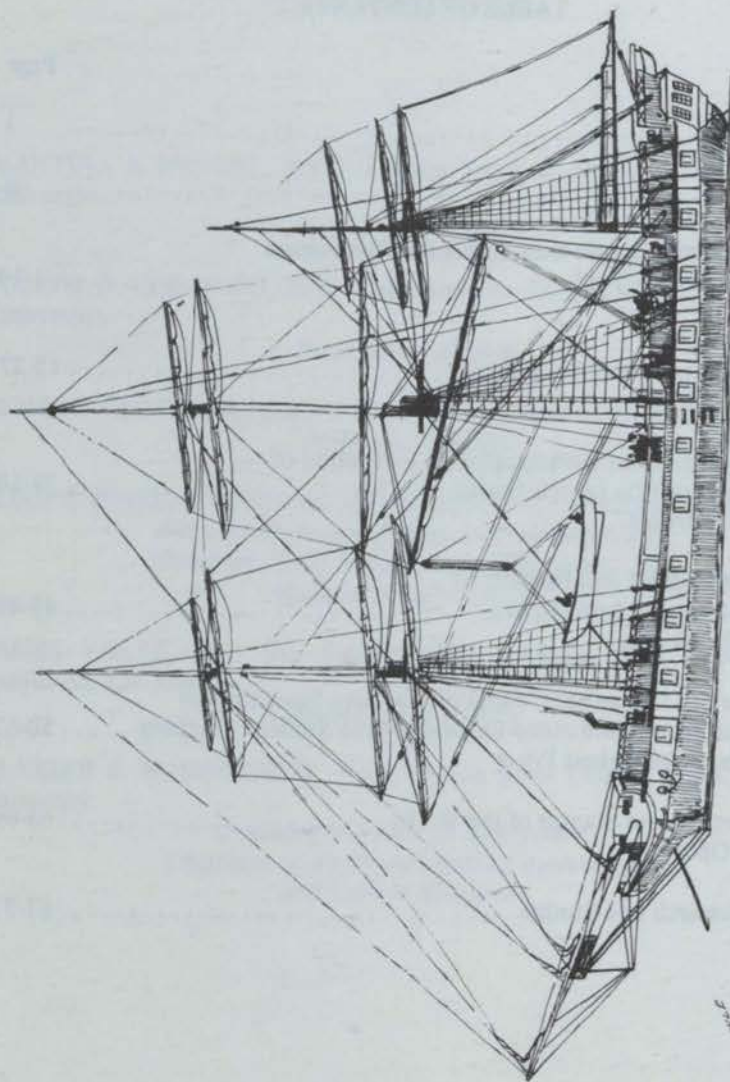
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The American Sloop-of-War, *Cyane*, Flagship of the Africa Squadron in the Years Immediately Following the End of the War of 1812.

ANGLO-AMERICAN DISPUTES CONCERNING THE SUPPRESSION OF THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE: 1815-1860

By James E. Valle

The signing of the Treaty of Ghent in 1814 is customarily considered by many historians to be the conclusion of a period in United States *Diplomatic History* characterized by the preoccupation of American policy makers and negotiators with maritime disputes, and particularly with British searches and seizures of American ships and seamen. It is commonly believed that the conclusion of the War of 1812 laid these problems safely to rest for at least the remainder of the nineteenth century.

This assumption is, to some degree, inaccurate. It is a fact that the period from 1815 to 1860 is filled with disputes between the United States and Britain over illegal searches, seizures, and questionable detentions of American seamen. Although the level of public outrage over these activities never reached the intensity of the pre-1812 period, enough controversy was generated to ensure that the forty-five years following the signing of the Treaty of Gent represent, to some extent, a continuation of the maritime controversies that had formerly disrupted relations between the two English-speaking powers. *The basic cause* of the continuation of this dispute was the African Slave Trade.

At the root of the Anglo-American collision was the peculiar relationship of Britain and the United States to the slave trade. The British, acting under the powerful stimulus of such forceful and determined statesmen as William Wilberforce, Lord Castlereagh, and Lord Palmerston, had taken it upon themselves to rid the World of slave trading. As the years passed this resolve became almost an obsession, a holy and righteous crusade carried on with great persistence and determination. The United States, on the other hand, was a major slave power, an important carrier of slave traffic, and an enormous market for slave traders. The plantation economy of the Southern States was rapidly expanding, and the advocates of the "peculiar institution" were present at all levels of the national government.

British zeal to begin the destruction of the slave trade had been largely frustrated by the Napoleonic Wars, but with the settlement of that conflict it came rapidly to life. The British Commissioners at Ghent laid an important foundation stone of Britain's new policy when they caused Article X to be written into the treaty ending the War of 1812. The article declared that:

"Whereas the traffic in slaves is irreconcilable with the principles of humanity and justice and whereas both His Majesty and the United States are desirous of continuing their efforts to promote its entire abolition, it is hereby agreed that both the

contracting parties shall use their best endeavours to accomplish so desirable an object."

With this resolution in the Treaty, the British quickly sought concrete agreements that would allow for the practical elimination of the slave trade. Overtures were made to all the maritime powers, including the United States, requesting treaty agreements delegating to Britain the right to impound suspected slaving vessels of all nationalities. The United States, whose diplomats experienced acute suspicion and discomfort whenever the British broached the topic of search and seizure, categorically rejected the British proposals. On June 20, 1818, United States Minister Richard Rush informed the British Foreign Secretary, Lord Castlereagh, that while the United States was sympathetic to the British objectives concerning the suppression of the slave trade, the concessions asked for "appeared of a character not adaptable to our institutions".

Castlereagh was not easily put off and pursued the topic further, prompting Secretary of State John Q. Adams to forward a still more forceful and detailed rejection. Said Mr. Adams:

"A compact giving the power to the Naval Officers of one nation to search the merchant vessels of another for offenders and offences against the laws of the latter, backed by a further power to seize and carry into a foreign port, and there subject to the decision of a Tribunal composed of at least one half foreigners, irresponsible to the supreme corrective tribunal of this Union and not amenable to the controul [sic] of impeachment for official misdemeanors, is an investment of power, over the persons, property, and reputation of citizens of this Country, not only unwarranted by any delegation of Sovereign Power to the National Government, but so adverse to the elementary principles and indispensable securities of individual rights,...that not even the most unqualified approbation of the ends...could justify the transgression."

In this manner, the American Secretary of State summed up all of the bitter legacy of the years prior to 1812, a legacy which still dominated American interpretations of maritime sovereignty.

THE FIRST JOINT PATROLS

Adams did not, however, completely reject the implication that the United States had a duty to aid in the suppression of the slave trade. He hinted that an agreement might be reached whereby the navies of the United States and Britain could jointly and cooperatively patrol the African Coast. Eventually, a joint patrolling arrangement was adopted but the number of

ships that the American Navy committed to this venture was small and their time on station off the African Coast was limited and irregular. Not only this, but American Naval commanders off the African Coast were obliged to divide their time between patrolling for slavers and assisting the African Colonization Society settlers to establish themselves in Liberia. The tribulations of the original Liberian settlers were so great that they actually absorbed the bulk of the time and energies of the American personnel on the station during the decade of the 1820's.

Such was the situation of Lieutenant (later Commodore) Matthew C. Perry, who served on the African Station as First Officer of the U.S.S. *Cyane* and Commander of the U.S.S. *Shark* during 1819-20. When he was not occupied with the Liberians, Perry was an avid slave patroller who carried out his duties with much determination. On one occasion he stopped a French slaver which he could not detain because of her nationality. Perry's crew was so incensed at the brutality of her crew and the wretched condition of her cargo that they requested in a body that he impound her regardless of her legal immunities and offered to collect and donate the sum of any fine that might be incurred in so doing. Perry declined to do this but he ordered provisions and water hoisted out and demanded that the French crew feed the slaves in his presence before he released them. He also arrested one member of the slaver's crew who was an American citizen.

Occurrences such as this tended to be rare, however, as months passed between the visits of American warships on the station and there were never more than one or two present on the entire coast at any one time. This situation rendered the American contribution to the joint patrolling venture *practically* insignificant. Eventually even this tiny effort was found to be irksome and, early in 1823, the House of Representatives sought to evade the responsibility of furnishing patrol vessels by requesting the President to enter into negotiations with the other maritime powers to have the slave trade denounced as piracy. Pirates, of course, could be searched and seized by any naval vessel and could claim the protection of no flag or nation. The flaw in this plan was that if a search was carried out on a suspicious vessel which eventually proved not to have a cargo of slaves aboard, an international incident could result as an insult to the suspicious but innocent vessel's flag could be alleged.

The British pointed out to the Americans that the only practical way to catch a slaver at sea was to search her. Therefore, they maintained, the Americans must grant at least a limited right of search in order to establish guilt before the Piracy Act could be invoked. The British proposed to treat ships displaying an American flag very cautiously. The right of search would be strictly defined and limited. Captured vessels were to be adjudicated in American courts, and it was further stipulated that American acquiescence to

the searching of suspected slavers would not commit the United States to acceptance in principle of belligerent right of search.

President Adams was agreeable to the British proposals and a draft treaty was submitted to the Senate for approval. In the Senate, members from the Southern States attacked it with fury and managed to render the pact impotent through amendments which removed all the provisions that were intended to ensure effective enforcement. The British refused to sign the emasculated document and the two countries were obliged to return to the old joint cruising arrangement which stood as originally constituted except that American vessels became even less conspicuous on the African Station. No ships at all were sent from 1826 to 1839 and never more than one or two from 1839 to 1843.

The absence of American naval vessels soon tempted the British to board suspected vessels flying the American flag. Complaints of British insults and abusiveness multiplied until a request for information on this point by the House of Representatives in 1841 resulted in some 760 pages of reports and correspondence detailing scores of boardings and seizures, together with accompanying complaints and protests.

AMERICAN SHIPS IN THE SLAVE TRADE

Much of the controversy of 1841 centered around the activities of the United States Consul in Havana, Cuba. Havana was an important center of the slave trade for it was here that American ships built expressly for the trade were outfitted, manned, and dispatched on slaving expeditions. At this time American shipyards from Georgia to Maine were building scores of vessels from a basic design first developed in Baltimore early in the nineteenth century. These were the famed "Baltimore Clippers" which proved to be the most successful slaving vessels ever designed.

A number of easily detectable ruses were employed to preserve the legal fiction that none of the slavers operating out of Havana was an American ship. These evasions required the close cooperation of the American Consul, Nicholas Trist. The British Consular Officials in Havana carefully noted the activities of American built ships, manned largely by American crews, sailing in and out of the port on what were obviously slaving voyages. These reports eventually reached Washington together with diplomatic protests appended to them by the Foreign Office in London. For example, in September, 1836, the British Consul noted that:

"During the month of August and September, 1836, there arrived here, for sale, from the United States, several new schooners, some of which were already expressly outfitted for the slave trade."

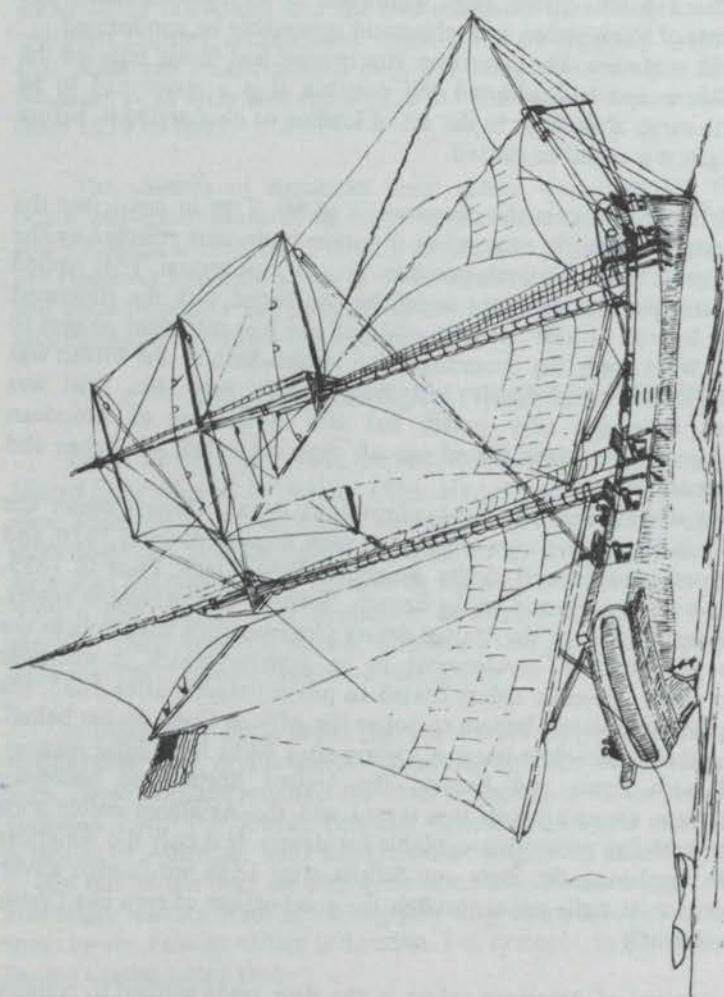
The report continues describing how two of the vessels were sold to Cuban owners but that two others had left Havana under the American flag bound for the Cape Verde Islands with cargoes that were outlawed by the Equipment Clause.

The Equipment Clause was a device that the British had designed in order to make it possible for them to intercept slavers before they had picked up a cargo. Its operating theory was that ships carrying certain types of gear, such as ventilated hatch covers, large quantities of leg irons, manacles and unusual amounts of food, water, and salt, could reasonably be condemned and confiscated as slavers. The American government had firmly rejected the Equipment Clause and had adopted the position that a slaver had to be caught with its cargo aboard, or in the act of loading or discharging it, before proceedings against it could be started.

British efforts to secure the cooperation of Mr. Trist in restricting the activities of vessels obviously engaged in the slave trade were rejected by the Consul in the most emphatic terms possible. To one such appeal, Trist replied with a very strongly worded letter which he concluded with the statement that his "very limited official character did not give him sufficient powers to detain ships". What made the communication so shocking to the British was the fact that it was so obviously and demonstrably false. Mr. Trist was authorized to issue not only passes but also certificates of American nationality, a power he made liberal use of, even on behalf of Cuban and Portuguese slavers.

The two slavers that Mr. Trist allowed to depart Havana under the American flag in September were among five such ships to do so in 1836, and they represented a new trend in the American Slave Trade. Prior to 1835, American slave ships preferred to fly French, Spanish, or Portuguese colors. This was apparently due to the United States Government's wish to hide the true extent of American involvement in an activity which it officially professed to abhor. Spanish colors ceased to protect slavers after 1835, the year that Spain empowered Britain to police the African Coast on her behalf. Portuguese and French colors became useless after 1839 for similar reasons. In contrast with Spain and France, the United States was becoming progressively less cooperative in this regard and the American colors soon provided the best flag protection available for slavers. Not only did American ships resume displaying the Stars and Stripes after 1836 but foreign slavers began to adopt it as well, either through the good offices of men like Consul Trist or fraudulently.

This adoption of American colors in the slave trade seemed to coincide with a renewed trend of pugnaciousness and sensitivity over the treatment meted out to vessels displaying the Stars and Stripes by the British. Inevitably, the British Foreign Office was quickly flooded with complaints and the Foreign Minister, Lord Palmerston, was obliged to formulate a new



The American Schooner *Shark* under Lieutenant Matthew C. Perry's Command on the African Station, 1819-20.

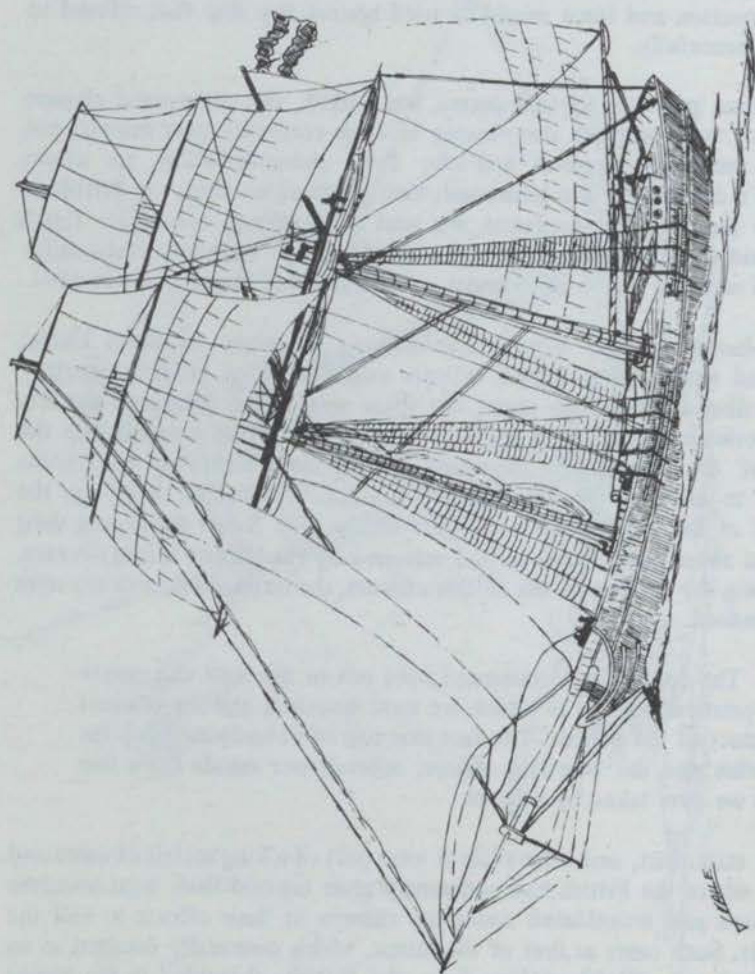
policy. Palmerston declared that the British Government was not prepared to allow such liberal use of the American flag. He allowed that genuine American vessels, even proven slavers, could not be arrested or detained by the British but foreign vessels would not be allowed to protect themselves through fraudulent use of the American flag. To determine who was and who was not entitled to use American colors, it was necessary for the British to board and search *all* suspected vessels. Those with papers in order would be immediately released. Those with foreign papers, or with two sets of papers, foreign and American, would be detained, but everyone must submit to the original inspection and force would be used against any ship that refused to be boarded peacefully.

American reaction to this decree was varied. The diplomatic climate between the two countries was veering towards cordiality over matters not related to maritime disputes and the Tyler Administration, to whom Palmerston's declaration was addressed, tacitly agreed to allow the British to do as they pleased. A commission was sent to Havana to investigate Trist's activities and the source of many bogus certificates of American Nationality was cut off when he was recalled under a vague cloud of disgrace late in 1841.

A subsequent note from Palmerston to Secretary of State Daniel Webster had stressed that British officers would show all possible courtesy when boarding an American vessel but there were some American masters with memories extending back to 1812 who would not be satisfied with the deportment of any British boarding officer and blistering complaints continued to arrive in Washington and London. Typical of these was the deposition of the Master and passengers of the ship *Susan* expressing their indignation about being boarded and searched by His Majesty's Brig *Grecian*. In describing the actions of the British officers, the outraged Americans were eloquent indeed.

The [preceding] statement does not in the least exaggerate the piratical manner in which we were boarded, and the insolent conduct of the officer. The fact that one of us knowing [sic] the *Grecian* and the boarding officer, relieved our minds from fear that we were taken by a pirate.

This statement, and others like it were part of a long recital of cases and incidents where the British had apparently gone beyond their legal mandate and harassed and intimidated American citizens in their efforts to halt the slave trade. Such cases as that of the *Susan*, which eventually resulted in an investigation and official apology from the British, abounded in the House and Senate Journals the official diplomatic correspondence, and even in the newspapers. They provided much support and justification for those American politicians who opposed and fought against the granting of any right of search of United States vessels by British naval authorities.



An Example of a Typical Baltimore Clipper Slave Trading Vessel.

THE WEBSTER ASHBURTON TREATY

The British countered American protests by publishing and widely distributing detailed exposures of the activities of United States slavers and of the fraudulent use of the American flag by Spaniards, Cubans, Portuguese, and other opportunistic traders. Such actions threatened to destroy the Anglo-American *detente* of the early 1840's and more specifically, to wreck the attempts being made by Secretary Webster and British Ambassador Ashburton to settle longstanding disputes over the Canadian - United States Boundary and the use of the Newfoundland Fisheries.

This state of affairs forced Webster and Ashburton to incorporate a new anti-slave trade agreement into their Treaty of 1842. This article called essentially for a resurrection, once again, of John Q. Adam's joint cruising plan of 1819. The British agreed to give up all attempts to police American flag users, fraudulent or otherwise. In return, the United States bound itself to maintain a permanent squadron mounting not less than eighty guns on the Coast of Africa at all times to deal with any slaver or suspect that sought refuge under the American flag. In submitting the Webster-Ashburton Treaty to the Senate, President Tyler went to some lengths to assure the members that the new pact "...proposes no alteration, mitigation, or modification of the rules of the law of nations. It provides simply that each of the two governments shall maintain on the Coast of Africa a sufficient squadron to enforce separately and respectively the laws, rights, and obligations of the two countries for the suppression of the slave trade".

The steps taken by the American Government under the provisions of the Webster-Ashburton Treaty proved to be only slightly more effective than the earlier joint cruising arrangements had been. The navy was, of course, the main agency charged with carrying out America's obligations under the treaty. One of America's foremost historians of the slave trade, W.E.B. DuBois, charged that the commitment of the naval officers was, at best half-hearted and that the administration was even less seriously interested in actually destroying the slave trade. This charge is probably unfounded. The first Commodore of the African Squadron was Matthew C. Perry, whose detestation of slavery and abolitionist sympathies were well known and had not abated since his last tour of duty on the African Station in 1820.

Furthermore, Commodore Perry's orders from Secretary of the Navy Upshur seemed unequivocal:

"You are charged with the protection of American commerce in that quarter, and with the suppression of the slave trade so far as the same may be carried on by American citizens or under the American Flag".

Included in these orders was a reminder to Perry that the slave trade had been declared piracy and a warning about various tricks and subterfuges employed by the slavers involving the use of the Stars and Stripes.

Apparently, this tough-minded atmosphere did not last too long after the demise of the Tyler Administration. The diligent Perry left the Africa Station in 1844 and subsequent commodores were soon hemmed in by new orders and directives which seemed designed to hinder their performance as slave patrollers. In 1847, the British station commander complained to his superiors in the Admiralty that American search procedures were largely unproductive because their regulations allowed them to seize only slavers with slaves actually on board. This meant that a fully equipped American slaver could sail past the entire American Squadron to a loading port. Here, she could be "sold" to a foreign national and, hoisting the colors of her new owner, load a cargo of slaves unmolested by any American vessel. Her cargo completed, she could then set sail for the West Indies showing foreign colors to any American cruiser and American colors to the British.

Such a vessel was the slaver *Illinois* of Gloucester, Massachusetts. She sailed to Whydah Bay, West Coast of Africa, under American colors to escape prosecution under the Equipment Clause. At Whydah she was searched by the British but could not be detained because her American papers were in order. Three days later, she hoisted Spanish colors and sailed away with a cargo of slaves. Presently, she encountered a British vessel and rehoisted her American Flag, whereupon the British decided not to attempt an arrest. The Master of the *Illinois* apparently lost his nerve at this point and deliberately ran his ship aground, exposing her true character. The British had at all times treated the *Illinois* with exaggerated forbearance for fear that she would lodge a complaint with the United States Government as other American vessels in similar circumstances had done.

The sending of restrictive orders to American naval officers was not the only device used to sabotage the effectiveness of the African Squadron. Although the Webster-Ashburton Treaty stipulated a strength of eighty guns, the effective strength of the Squadron was cut down by establishing its operating base at Teneriffe, Canary Islands, fully one thousand miles from the principal slaving grounds. The British had offered to let the American Squadron share their base at Freetown, Sierra Leone, but this had been refused. Another tactic was to send out unsuitable vessels. Two forty-gun heavy frigates could satisfy the letter of the eighty gun requirement and at the same time be virtually useless in pursuing the lighter and faster slavers.

In surveying the state of the African Squadron, one cannot escape the conclusion that persons in high places in the American Government seemed to want it to fail as an effective barrier to the slave trade. This state of affairs probably cannot be ascribed to the men who negotiated the Webster

Ashburton Treaty, President Tyler and Secretary of State Webster, who represented a mild Whig anti-slavery bias. Truly lax and negligent enforcement of the treaty provisions seemed to coincide with the Democratic Administrations of James K. Polk, Franklin Pierce, and James Buchanan.

The Senate provided the major forum for Southern politicians to argue against cooperation with the British, introduce bills designed to hamper and restrict the African Squadron, and keep up a running stream of protests and investigations against alleged British misconduct towards American vessels. In 1850, the Senate demanded, as it had in 1841, that the Fillmore Administration once again submit all information in its possession relating to the illegal seizure of American ships by the British. Daniel Webster, once more Secretary of State, replied with some spirit that while many American ships were being illegally detained by the British nine out of ten such detainees eventually proved to be slavers. The Southerners were obviously not impressed by such damaging evidence and believed, with some justification, that memories of British misconduct prior to 1812 were sufficient to obscure and nullify it.

This was true of certain Northerners, most notably Lewis Cass, United States Minister to France. Cass was so vitriolically opposed to the principle of British search and seizure that he spent much of his time in Paris trying, with some eventual success, to get the French Government to withdraw its treaty with Britain allowing the Royal Navy to apprehend suspected French slavers. Cass eventually mellowed somewhat after he became Buchanan's Secretary of

State, consenting to spell out a very limited situation in which British searches might be acceptable.

"...if in the honest examination of a vessel sailing under American colors, but accompanied by strongly marked suspicious circumstances, a mistake is made, but no injury is committed, and the conduct of the boarding party is irreproachable, no government would be likely to make a case this exceptional in its character a subject of serious reclamation."

There was widespread economic interest in the slave trade outside of political circles in the America of the 1840's and 1850's, and this interest was not limited to Southerners either. Lieutenant Andrew Hull Foote, commander of the American Brig *Perry* on the African Station captured the American slaver *Martha* registered out of New York. Foote later claimed that among her papers he found "curious revelations of the guilt of persons in America who were little suspected". The discreet Lieutenant did not comment more specifically than this but his seemingly loose charge is further buttressed by the "revelations" of one Richard Drake who operated a slave training center and barracoon on Bay Island off the Coast of Honduras during

the decade of the 1850's. Drake explained in detail how his headquarters were visited almost weekly by agents from Havana, New York, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Boston, and New Orleans. The ships used to carry slaves from Bay Island to the United States were built in Maine and came out loaded with lumber. Drake concluded that:

"If you could hang all the Yankee merchants engaged in [the slave trade] hundreds would fill their places."

In the statements of Foote and Drake there is a curious reluctance to name names and cite specific acts and vessels. This reluctance was not shared by the Society of Friends who had established an agency for the express purpose of monitoring and reporting on the status of the slave trade. The Quakers eventually turned up so much detailed information including the names of ships, firms, slaving captains, and other individuals over an extended period of time that their efforts were, to some extent counter-productive. To have followed up all the leads that the Quakers provided would have required a massive law enforcement campaign, probably an effort so vast as to be impossible under the circumstances. Not surprisingly, no such effort was made and the few who were arrested often escaped on technicalities or through the good offices of friendly juries.

THE END OF THE SLAVE TRADE

Blessed by its widespread character and the irresolution of the American Government, the slave trade continued largely without serious hindrance until 1861. In that year, with the institution of slavery itself finally under effective attack, and the South no longer participating in the National Government, all scruples about granting the British the right to search and seize American vessels suddenly and dramatically vanished. With the granting of these rights the Trans-Atlantic slave trade quickly collapsed under the efficient British slave patrol system.

The Anglo-American dispute over the suppression of the slave trade is one that poses many problems for the historian. Obviously, the United States Government showed, in general, great reluctance to limit the overseas commercial activities of its citizens, even when these resulted in continuous friction with another power. It is equally obvious that the maritime struggle initiated between Britain and America before the War of 1812 extended well beyond the settlement of that conflict and continued to disrupt, to some degree, the establishment of normal relationships between Britain and America. Meanwhile, the overly developed American sensitivity to interference with her commerce and insults to her flag allowed a despicable and unlawful trade in human misery to flourish long after it would normally have been abolished.

I. PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS

1. DRAKE, RICHARD, *Revelations of a Slave Smuggler*, R.M. De Witt, New York, 1860.

A firsthand account by a participant on how the slave trade functioned in The West Indies.

2. FOOTE, ANDREW HULL, *Africa and the American Flag*, D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1854.

An Eyewitness account of the frustrations experienced by American naval officers trying to police the slave trade off the coast of Africa. By an officer of strong abolitionist convictions.

3. MILLER, DAVID HUNTER, (Ed.) *Treaties and other International Acts of the United States of America*, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1931, in five volumes.

4. *British and Foreign State Papers*, H.M. Stationery Office, London, 1820 — 21, 1823 — 24, 1858 — 59.

An invaluable primary source for uncovering the official diplomatic correspondence that passed between the powers relating to the slave trade.

5. *Irish University Series of British Parliamentary Papers, Papers Relative to the Slave Trade*. Irish University Press, Shannon, Ireland, 1968, in 90 volumes.

This is a voluminous compilation of documents, testimony, letters, reports, and other official papers relating to all aspects of the slave trade. It thoroughly exposes all of practices of the slave traders and the difficulties in enforcing the ordinances against the trade.

6. *Journal of the House of Representatives of the United States*, Blair and Rives, Printers, Washington, D.C., 17th Congress., 2nd Sess., 26th Congress, 2nd Sess.

7. *Senate Executive Journal*, Blair and Rives, Washington, D.C., 26th Cong., 2nd Sess., 31st Cong., 1st Sess.

8. *Society of Friends, Philadelphia Yearly Meeting*, "An Exposition of the African Slave Trade from the Years 1840 to 1850 Inclusive," J. Rakestraw, Philadelphia, 1851.

A fearless and highly detailed expose by the Society of Friends of the various American mercantile houses and individuals businessmen who

engaged in the Slave Trade in United States after it had been officially outlawed.

II. SECONDARY SOURCE MATERIALS

1. BAILEY THOMAS A., *A Diplomatic History of the American People*, 7th edition, Appleton Century Crofts, New York, 1964.

A general survey of U.S. Diplomatic History which helps the reader to achieve some perspective on the diplomatic side of the slave trade issue.

2. CHAPPELLE, HOWARD I. *The History of American Sailing Ships*, W.W. Norton, Inc., New York, 1935.

Gives a thorough account of the development of the "Baltimore Clipper" type vessel and its adaption to the slave trade.

3. Du BOIS, W.E.B., *The Suppression of the African Slave Trade*, Longmans Green and Co., New York, 1904.

This is the pioneering work of an eminent black scholar on the subject of the slave trade. It is a thorough and unsparing account based on exhaustive research of primary source documents.

4. MORISON, SAMUEL ELIOT, *Old Bruin, The Life of Commodore Matthew C. Perry*, Little, Brown, and Co., Boston, 1969.

A modern account of the doings of a naval officer sympathetic to the cause of abolition on the African station. Valuable not only for its account of the slave patrol but also for the description it gives of the initial settlement of Liberia by black members of the American Colonization Society.

5. WARD, WILLIAM E.F., *The Royal Navy and the Slaves*, Pantheon Books, New York, 1969.

A valuable modern examination of the British Navy's efforts to suppress the slave trade. Mr. Ward gives valuable information as to the activities of American slavers on the African Coast and describes the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the American Navy's slave patrol.

Author's Note

At the request of the editors of this journal, all footnotes have been deleted from this article in conformity with the spirit of footnote logic as set forth in *The MLA Style Sheet* and interpreted by the editors. The author will be glad to furnish exact citations for any part of his article to any reader upon request.

Author—Lawyer,
America's First Ambassador
to Argentina

Frederick Jesup Stimson: A Portrait

By Robert Obojski

Frederick Jesup Stimson was one of those rare men in American history who achieved prominence in a number of widely divergent fields: as an author and humorist, legal scholar, public servant, and during the Wilson Administration as the first United States Ambassador to Argentina.

Stimson served with high distinction at Buenos Aires throughout the 1914-21 period, including during those critical World War I years when U.S.-Argentine relations were often subjected to enormous international pressures. Both nations endeavored above all to stay out of the war. The United States was, of course, eventually drawn into the struggle, but Argentina, under the leadership of Presidents Roque Saenz Pena (1910-16) and Hipolito Irigoyen (1916-22), maintained her neutrality.

Maintaining American-Argentine relations on an even keel was no easy task. For one thing, Argentina, because of heavy German immigration and other reasons, leaned toward Germany and the Central Powers—and she was among the first to favor German membership in the League of Nations after the conclusion of the war. But it was men like Stimson who kept U.S.-Argentine differences from flaring into an open break.

The purpose of this study certainly won't be to survey twentieth century American-Argentine relations. . . rather, this paper will only attempt to portray Fred Stimson as one of America's truly remarkable personalities. Stimson, every inch the Boston Brahmin, was directly descended from George Stimson who sailed from England in 1670 and settled near Ipswich, Mass. George Stimson went on to fight gallantly under the banner of the English crown in America, especially in the battles against the armies of foreign marauders in 1675. George Stimson later died of wounds sustained in battle, and in compensation Charles II, King of England, granted his family large tracts of land in New England. These tracts became an integral part of the Stimson family fortune.

Subsequently, it became almost a family tradition for the male Stimsons to matriculate at Harvard College and to pursue such honorable professions as medicine, law and banking. Fred Stimson, whose grandfather, Jeremy Stimson, and father, Edward, were both doctors and Harvard graduates, was born at Dedham, Mass., a Boston suburb, on July 20, 1855.



Ambassador and Mrs. Frederick J. Stimson are seen returning to New York aboard the *S. S. Vestris* early in 1921 after having spent seven years in Argentina. Stimson created a mild sensation on shipboard when he walked out of the main salon while the band was playing the "Star Spangled Banner." He protested the action of the band in playing the national anthem as part of a medley. "This is against regulations," he snapped.

Young Fred dutifully went off to Harvard in 1872, and there he worked assiduously at developing his talents as a writer. Like all aspiring writers at Harvard at the time, he tried his hand at humor first and went on to become one of the most noted contributors to the college humor magazine, *The Lampoon*. (The *Lampoon*, of course, is still being published today and ranks as the most venerable of all the collegiate literary magazines.)

A typical Stimson contribution to the *Lampoon* was entitled "The Nirwana at Harvard: Addressed to the Modern Cassandra." The poem reads in part:

"I dreamed I dwelt mid Harvard's halls; the year
Was aught-aught four: Arose to contemplate the pure idea
Of what I saw. *The Apotheosis of Eastlake?*
So naughty, void, and vain; Naught the men ne'er brought
Cigars, nor Bass, nor earthly food; nor sought
The lusty oar

* * *

Each student is the whole, and all are one,
No separate bubble
Floats in that peaceful sea; all work is done—
Why till the stubble?
In learning, *the intuitive kind*, there soaks
Each undergrad; but outside life's a hoax,
He breathes of 'baccy burnt in trays,—not smokes!
It's too much trouble . . ."

Thus wrote the fledgling nineteen-year-old poet and humorist.

Stimson earned the reputation as one of the college's most prolific writers of humor during this period, with his prose and poetry continuing to appear in the *Lampoon* even after he received his A.B. in 1876. In fact, Stimson's work was to be featured in the *Lampoon* until he won his LL.B. from Harvard Law School in 1878.

After taking the L.L.B., Fred Stimson was soon admitted to the Massachusetts Bar and he began the practice of law, but his chief interest for many years continued to remain in writing. . . using the pseudonym "J.S. of Dale" he wrote books in a humorous vein, along with a number of mysteries, that enjoyed considerable popularity, especially in New England and environs. His titles included: *Rollo's Journey to Cambridge* (1879), *Guerndale* (1882), *The Crime of Henry Vane* (1884), *The King's Men* (in collaboration, 1884) *The Sentimental Calendar* (1886) *Mrs. Knollys and other stories* (1894), *King Noanett* (1896), *Private Gold* (1896) and *Jethroe Bacon of Sandwich* (1901).

We must hasten to emphasize at this point that Stimson did not limit his

writings to fiction. His essays and books on law were extensive with his major works in the field being: *American Statutory Law* (2 vols., 1886), *Stimson's Law Glossary* (1890), *Government by Injunction* (1894), *Labor in its Relation to Law* (1894), *Handbook to the Labor Law of the United States* (1895), *Uniform State Legislation* (1896), *The American Constitution* (based upon his Lowell Lectures at Harvard, 1906), *The Law of the Constitutions, State and Federal* (1907), *The Forms of Law* (1909), *Popular Law-Making* (1910), *The American Constitution as it Protects Private Rights* (1923), and *The New Deal Under the Constitution* (1936).

Stimson also produced a number of other books on a wide variety of topics. These include: *In Cure of her Soul* (a novel, 1906), *The Light of Provence* (poetry, 1917), *My Story: An Imagined Autobiography of Benedict Arnold* (1917), *My United States* (autobiography, 1931), and *Critique of Pure Science* (1938).

Charles Scribner & Sons of New York City published most of Stimson's books, from the earliest to those written late in his career.

In Cure of her Soul Banned in Dedham

In Cure of her Soul caused a mild sensation in Boston literary circles, especially after it was banned by the Trustees of the Dedham Public Library...an ironic action since Stimson was one of town's most respected citizens and himself a former Trustee of the Dedham Public Library.

In Cure of her Soul deals with the failings and foibles of the society of Newport and New York, the exclusive "400," and graphically relates the whole process of healing the particular soul in question. In reviewing the novel, the *Boston Globe* for January 18, 1907, commented: "In their criticism of *In Cure of her Soul*, the Dedham gentlemen compare the book—disadvantageously—with Edith Wharton's *The House of Mirth*. In this tale the heroine, Lily Bart, has all kinds of exciting experiences, which culminate when she takes an overdose of chloral [commonly called "knock-out drops" — the action of chlorine upon alcohol.] But Lily's high society gait is fully equalled by that of Frederick Jesup Stimson's heroine, Dorothy."

The Dedham Library Trustees gave as their official reason for banning the book: "Books which do not tend to elevate the moral standards of the community are not welcomed at this library."

In reply to the Trustees' action Stimson said: "A menace to the morals of the community? Why, my very idea in writing the book was to uplift and elevate the morals of society. There's nothing in the book at which the most particular person could take offense."

Stimson made further public comments in an interview with the *Boston Globe's* literary editor: "What's the plot? Oh, a man marries for the mere physical attraction, don't you know, and then the woman he marries goes wrong. The usual thing, you see. But he is still true to his wife. There's nothing immoral about that."

"But how does the lady, Dorothy, get her soul cured?" asked the *Globe*.

"Well, it's like this," answered Stimson. "The man's wife goes wrong and he is still true to her, although he meets the woman whom he should have married, as one might say. Finally his wife is brought to her senses by her husband's faithfulness and she returns to him. That's the 'Cure of her Soul,' don't you know."

The author said further: "Oh no. I wouldn't want to compare it with Edith Wharton's *House of Mirth* for she's a friend of mine."

"I am opposed to divorce in any form," Stimson emphasized at the conclusion of the interview. "My book is intended to rebuke divorce and its purpose is to uplift and elevate the morals of society. It contrasts a sensual marriage with a real marriage. I've received a lot of the finest, most touching letters from women who have read the book and want to thank me for writing it. It was very well received in South Carolina, where divorce is not welcomed," he stated.

After the announcement of the ban by the Dedham Public Library, sales of *In Cure of her Soul* skyrocketed not only in Dedham, but throughout the greater Boston area and points beyond. "The ban turned out to be a most effective means of advertising," chuckled Stimson.

We should remember, of course, that Boston was long identified for its marked conservatism in regard to literature. A full twenty years later, for example, Eugene O'Neill's great play "Strange Interlude" was summarily banned in Boston...but indefatigable Harvard students hired busses and journeyed to see the play in neighboring Quincy.

Stimson: The Legal Scholar as a Liberal

As a legal scholar, Stimson was clearly both a liberal and a staunch defender of the free enterprise system. He had ample opportunity to express his views in his numerous books and periodical articles on law, in addresses he delivered around the country, and as Professor Comparative Legislation at Harvard, a post he held from 1903 until he was named as Ambassador to Argentina in 1914.

In a speech delivered in Boston's Faneuil Hall on February 7, 1903,

while a candidate for Congress in the 12th Massachusetts District (Stimson lost the election by a close margin), he vehemently opposed state socialism. He said in part:

"The question of securing to man the full and fair reward of his labor and, incidentally, of how best to give every man the chance to labor if he chooses, is the greatest question, save one alone, that can occupy the human mind. Leaving out religion, the affairs of the next world, the most important affair to a man in this world is how he may subsist in it. . . I say then boldly that so far from there being a great surplus under socialism . . . so far from there being partridges to fly into our mouths ready buttered, and yachts and automobiles and free shows to be had for the asking, the universal condition will be about as good as—certainly no better than—that of the ordinary mechanic today. . . . Life will be one dead dull round; everybody will work and nobody will have any heart in his work. There will be no hope of escape; no man can better his condition by going from one factory to another, or by changing his trade; probably that will not even be allowed. And this we can see must be so, and for these reasons: First, the general indifference. . . second, the absence of inventiveness, enterprise broadening out into new industries, which characterize the present system—some of which may fail, but all of which create demand for labor. . . third, the enormous waste caused by the swarm of government inspectors, supervisors, detectives created to see that work is properly done. For the history of municipal employment is the same the world over; set one man to work and you must set another to watch him."

Stimson broadened these remarks in an essay entitled "Experiments in Socialism Made Before the Prospect Union," published in Cambridge, Mass. later in 1903.

It should be emphasized here that Stimson pretty accurately prophesied the major economic problems those countries who adopted socialism (or communism) later on in the twentieth century would encounter. There isn't much question, for example, that the Soviet Union's bureaucracy has been quite incapable of harnessing the nation's agricultural resources to produce enough food to feed the entire population comfortably on a long-term basis.

Throughout his career, Stimson strongly advocated the right of workingmen to organize and form labor unions. At the same time he pointed out the difficulties Congress continually faced in drafting anti-trust legislation. In an address entitled "The Law of Combined Action or Possession" and delivered before the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the Indiana State Bar Association held at Indianapolis on July 3, 1910, Stimson, said in part:

"Capital can organize and then why not labor? . . . the law of the acts of

one should be identical with the law of the acts of many. . . Most of our antitrust legislation, the Sherman Act included, and much of our legislation in the matter of labor combination, is confused and clumsy and apt to be either unnecessary or unconstitutional."

Stimson went on to say that the difficulty of discriminating between "good trusts" and "bad trusts" is enormously more difficult for a high court of appeal in a hearing on a bill in equity than it is for a jury in a common law suit for damages. He observed that a corporation holding a 100 per cent monopoly in a certain area might be 100 per cent within the law, but that a partial monopoly might be criminal. "The core of the matter might lie in this question," concluded Stimson; "What are the company's intentions? Good or evil?"

Stimson held a variety of public offices over a period of many years, and he was always active as a worker for the Democratic Party on both a state and national level. He was Assistant Attorney-General of Massachusetts in 1884-85, served as General Counsel to the U.S. Industrial Commission from 1898 to 1902, and from 1891 to 1904 was a member of the Massachusetts Commission to promote uniformity of legislation throughout the United States. For several years he also acted as chairman of that commission. Stimson was elected as a delegate to the Massachusetts State Democratic Convention many times, serving as chairman of that body in 1904 and 1908. Moreover, he was a delegate or observer at the Democratic National Convention for a period of some 40 years, and he played a significant role in the nomination of Woodrow Wilson for President of the United States at the 1912 convention held in Baltimore.

The *Boston Globe* commented on Stimson's activities in behalf of Woodrow Wilson at Baltimore: "At the Baltimore convention the tall, almost gaunt, form of the Dedham scholar could be seen wedging its way through the dense crowds at the hotels and gathering places of the delegates to say a word in behalf of Mr. Wilson. Though Frederick Stimson was not an official delegate, his influence at the convention was considerable."

Stimson also enjoyed a successful career as an attorney, a profession he was able to blend in with his co-careers as a writer and public servant. As we indicated earlier in this paper, Stimson was admitted to the Massachusetts Bar soon after he graduated from Harvard Law School in 1878; and then in 1886 he gained admission to the New York Bar. As a member of a special New York commission he played a major role in revising the framework of municipal law in that state. In 1890 he formed a partnership in Boston with Francis C. Lowell, later a judge for the U.S. District Court in Boston, and Abbott Lawrence Lowell, later president of Harvard University.

With the exception of his service in Argentina, Stimson continued to

maintain a Boston law practice until the 1930's, with his offices being located on State Street in the heart of the city's banking and legal district.

Of all public service Stimson rendered before he received his ambassadorship, he was especially proud of the contributions he made as a member of the U.S. Industrial Commission. He worked particularly hard at simplifying and unifying commercial law, at eliminating flagrant child labor abuses in the South, and securing more uniform hours of labor in factories throughout the country.

Ambassador to Argentina, 1914-21

Woodrow Wilson recognized that Argentina was emerging as one of the great nations of Latin America, and in that respect he urged raising the rank of the U.S. mission in Buenos Aires from that of a consulate to an embassy. And when President Wilson made the announcement of Stimson's appointment as the first U.S. Ambassador to Argentina, the *Boston Globe* commented succinctly: "Another scholar has been added to the Wilson Diplomatic Corps."

M.E. Hennessey, foreign affairs writer for the *Boston Globe*, said about the Stimson appointment:

"When Prof. Stimson presents his credentials to the President of Argentina and is welcomed by that official as the first American Ambassador... the Argentine chief of state will greet one of the best-known authorities on political and economic questions in the United States, a novelist of no small repute and a scholar whose superiority probably cannot be found in the entire diplomatic corps. Prof. Stimson is a deep student of the Constitution and has an intimate knowledge of current political events. He is an advanced thinker on social, political and financial topics as affecting the everyday life of Americans... In him the President [Wilson] will find a ready and enthusiastic supporter of his peace policies. A man of broad culture and wide travel, Prof. Stimson has come into personal contact with the people of the world, and the President will find in him a representative of his Administration who will always uphold his ideals in the public service."

Hennessey also observed in his long article on Stimson: "Although Prof. Stimson has mixed considerably in home politics, he is not very well known among the politicians, and his appointment came to them as a surprise. The average politician has little use for scholars in politics, except when they consider it necessary for the party to make a good front and then trot them out in some honorary position where they have a chance to display their literary and forensic abilities... If he could afford it, the chances are that Prof. Stimson could have had one of the important European embassies, but only the very rich can afford those posts nowadays. The Argentine position

affords an opportunity for splendid service owing to the growing commercial and political relations between that country and the United States."

The *Boston Globe* writer concluded his story with a personal observation on the new ambassador: "Frederick Stimson has just passed his 59th year and is the best of health. He is one of the best-dressed men in Boston and has demonstrated that one may wear spats, gloves and a cane every day and still be a Democrat. He was born in Dedham and lives in the ancestral home on the banks of the Charles River in that town, whose velvety lawns slope to the water's edge."

When Stimson arrived at Buenos Aires on January 9, 1914, he presented his credentials to President Roque Saenz Pena at Government House and said in part:

"In presenting my credentials as the first Ambassador of the United States to the Argentine Republic, I bring more than the ordinary message of good will from one great friendly nation to another. For my nation stood as an elder sister at the birth of yours. First among the nations of the world, in 1822, we formally recognized your independence; but earlier than that, in 1819, our President Monroe said, in his message to Congress, that 'Buenos Aires still maintains unshaken the independence which it declared in 1816, and has enjoyed since 1810. ...'"

Stimson had made the long journey to Buenos Aires by ship with his second wife, the former Mabel Ashurst, whom he had married in 1902. His first wife, Elizabeth, had died several years earlier.

Stimson, a voluminous letter-writer and meticulous record-keeper, retained all papers concerned with his ambassadorship, and after his death in 1943 most of these materials were turned over to the Massachusetts Historical Society in Boston. Harvard University does hold a small collection of Stimson material, but the bulk of the manuscript is held at the Massachusetts Historical Society, and in the final section of this study we'll deal with those manuscripts. All of the letters quoted here have not been previously published.*

The ambassador experienced a number of personal problems because his diplomatic post was more than 4,000 miles from home... and because of this he took relatively few leaves over the seven-year period of service since the journey by shipboard was so slow. Moreover, it took weeks and even months for a letter to reach Boston from Buenos Aires. (This was before the days of speedy airmail communication.) On one occasion he purchased a supply of canned foods from the S.S. Pierce Co. of Boston, and his check in payment for those provisions took many months to arrive. In the meantime he received

*We have been given permission to reproduce these letters by the Massachusetts Historical Society and by the estate of Frederick J. Stimson.

a number of nastily-written dunning letters from this company—a most embarrassing and exasperating situation for the distinguished diplomat.

Stimson had offered to separate himself completely from his Boston law firm, but William Phillips, Third Assistant Secretary of State (Phillips later became Assistant Secretary of State), wrote in a letter of October 19, 1914:

“ . . . As to removing your name from the firm of Stimson, Stockton, Livermore and Palmer, that is entirely unnecessary. The Department would not ask any such sacrifice of its diplomatic representatives and merely requires that such representatives shall not engage in business of any kind in the country to which they are accredited. . . .”

Sincerely yours,
William Phillips

President Wilson himself wrote a great number of personal letters to Stimson, and the following sent from the White House on November 20, 1914 is typical:

My dear Mr. Stimson:

“ . . . You certainly go to your new post with my entire confidence and the certain expectation on my part that you will play there a role which will greatly assist to a more complete friendship and intimate understanding between this Government and the Government of the Argentine Republic.

Cordially and
Sincerely yours,
Woodrow Wilson

— William Phillips, on June 12, 1915, sent Stimson a long dispatch on William Jennings Bryan's resignation as Secretary of State because of President Wilson's strong note to Germany deploring the sinking of the *Lusitania*:

“ . . . Everything here has been overshadowed during the last two or three days by the resignation of Mr. Bryan, which came with a dramatic suddenness. As a matter of fact, the resignation itself added strength to the President's note to Germany, but I am a little afraid of the result in Germany over the various statements which Mr. Bryan is making in public. . . . In spite of the extraordinary situation, there is not a shade of unfriendliness between the President and Mr. Bryan, or between Mr. Bryan and anyone in the Department.”

Louis Brandeis, distinguished lawyer and member of the U.S. Supreme Court (1916-41), on June 26, 1916, wrote to Stimson concerning Roy W. Howard's plan to extend United Press' operations into Latin America:

My dear Fred:

Mr. Roy W. Howard, president of the United Press Association, is sailing for South America with a view to extending the influence and activity of the United Press throughout South America and thus bringing the Latin American countries into closer relation with the United States. You are no doubt familiar with the important service which the United Press has already rendered our country in advancing the progressive cause and its friendly relations with the Administration.

I am sure you will be glad to see Mr. Howard.

Very cordially yours,
Louis D. Brandeis

Woodrow Wilson, in a letter dated October 24, 1916, spoke of the pressures of campaigning for re-election while keeping up with his official duties:

My Dear Mr. Ambassador:

It was kind of you to send me a copy of your speech on Argentina, and I am heartily sorry that this campaign should have absorbed all the time that I have to spare in keeping up with my daily official duties that I am to miss the pleasure of seeing you. May I not tell you how gratified I have been to have you in Argentina, and how safe I feel with regard to the interests of the United States there? And may I not wish you the very best fortune in every respect?

Cordially and
sincerely yours,
Woodrow Wilson

In a letter to Edward V. Morgan, U.S. Ambassador to Brazil at Rio de Janeiro, dated June 6, 1917, Stimson indicated alarm as to belligerent German activities throughout Latin America. (The U.S. had declared war against Germany on April 6, 1917).

My dear Mr. Morgan:

“ . . . I am more concerned over the independent grant to a German company for powerful wireless stations, nominally to communicate with Berlin, but really, I fear, with Mexico or some station in Central America. . . .”

Yours very sincerely,
F.J. Stimson

Stimson referred to a Brazilian's company's grant of radio communication rights to the German Government in an entire series of letters to Ambassador Morgan.

In a letter to William Phillips, dated December 10, 1917, Stimson said he was delighted with the work of young Sumner Welles, who was attached to his Embassy's commercial section. Welles went on to have a distinguished diplomatic career, serving as Undersecretary of State during World War II.

Stimson reported to the State Department in great detail the activities of the Central Powers, especially Germany, in Argentina throughout the war. Surveillance of this type clearly indicated that the Germans were never really able to gain great sympathy for their cause in Latin America.

After the war, Stimson remained at his post at Buenos Aires and conducted many important negotiations with the Argentine Government. In June 1920, for example, he obtained permission from President Hipolito Irigoyen for the shipment of 14,000 tons of Argentine sugar to the United States in order to help relieve a serious sugar shortage that developed as an aftermath of World War I.

In April 1921, Stimson led the negotiations through which the American steamer, the *Martha Washington*, and other American ships were released from the port of Buenos Aires after they had been tied up for weeks because of a boycott against American vessels by the Argentine Port Worker's Union. Ambassador Stimson told Honorio Pueyrredon, Argentine Foreign Minister, that the United States Government expected American ships coming to Buenos Aires to receive the full protection of the Argentine laws, and in the strongest terms demanded that the Argentine Government intervene and take all necessary steps so that all boycotted American ships should be free to unload and go about their legitimate business. Stimson's success in handling these delicate negotiations assured the maintenance of good political and economic relations between the two countries.

Stimson remained at his Buenos Aires post into the first months of the Harding Administration, but had determined to retire early in May after approximately seven and one-half years service.

While sailing home on the Lamport and Holt Line steamer *Vestris*, Stimson created a mild sensation when he walked out of the main salon while the band was playing the "Star Spangled Banner." Explaining the incident, Stimson said:

"I walked out in protest against the action of the band in playing the

national anthem as part of a medley. This is against regulations. After the selection had been finished, I returned and informed the bandmaster of my objection and he assured me that it would not happen again. The incident is closed."

The Elder Statesman

After retiring from his ambassadorship, Stimson resumed his Boston law practice, continued to write, and remained active on the political scene as an adviser to government officials from the local to the Federal level. In 1922, he was awarded an honorary LL.D. by his alma mater, Harvard University, and his old friend A. Lawrence Lowell, president of Harvard, wrote him this letter dated October 13, 1922:

Dear Fred,

It was a great pleasure to confer an honorary degree of Doctor of Laws upon you at Commencement; because of the work you have done in life, of your many writings in such different fields, of your latest services as Ambassador to Argentina during the war; and also because of our close personal friendship which goes back now nearly fifty years.

Yours as ever,
A. Lawrence Lowell

Fred Stimson carried on an extensive correspondence almost until the day of his death, November 19, 1943, at Dedham. The Stimson papers concerning the latter 20 years of the ambassador's life (housed at the Massachusetts Historical Society in Boston) contain letters to and from such major political and literary figures as Henry L. Stimson (F.J.'s cousin), Franklin D. Roosevelt, Cordell Hull, Sumner Welles, Samuel Eliot Morison, Bliss Perry, Charles Scribner, Henry Van Dyke, and Edith Wharton. Most of the letters are still unpublished and they stand as a potential gold mine for anyone interested in any phase of Americana.

In conclusion, we might only emphasize that Fred Stimson throughout his career played a role similar in many ways to the one played by Andre Malraux later in the twentieth century, "The Scholar in Action." Stimson could have easily spent his days within the paneled walls of his Boston law firm and within the friendly confines of the Harvard classroom. However, for him this would never have been enough. He was just as comfortable in taking the stump in a heated Boston congressional election, finding his way through the Byzantine intrigues in state and national Democratic conventions, and helping to settle an acrimonious dock strike among tough longshoremen at the port of Buenos Aires.

Editor's Note: In this study, Martina Bryant tackles the difficult subject of evaluating student composition. Through this select bibliography, Mrs. Bryant calls our attention to newly-developed evaluation techniques . . . these techniques often involve the use of tape-recorders, dictaphones, and computers, as well as other types of equipment.

INTRODUCTION

A Selected Annotated Bibliography on Evaluation of Student Composition for the English Teacher

Compiled by Martina J. Bryant

Evaluation is a necessary part of the learning process. It is an attempt to appraise one's accomplishment in reference to his previous experiences. Evaluation, too, is a tedious part of the learning process because often it places marks on student attainment, marks that may affect the student permanently.

For the teacher of English composition, the evaluative process is the most frustrating, agonizing and complicated phase of teaching. The composition teacher is forced to evaluate and grade student work with few definite criteria and standards. As a result, controversy exists among English teachers about what good writing is and how it should be judged. This, unfortunately, accounts for much of the subjectivity that abounds in composition grading.

Numerous studies, articles, experiments, and programs have focused on this dilemma of the composition teacher. The problem is not new; it did not creep upon us with the coming of the space age. A look at the dates of the materials included in this bibliography can give the reader some indication of the concern for evaluation in composition through the years. For example, the oldest article appeared in *School Review* in 1912 and the most recent in *College English* in 1971. Studies on the subject are, of course, being published constantly. The summaries of the articles, booklets and pamphlets selected for inclusion in this paper reflect the various efforts to deal with evaluation in the teaching of composition. They may be especially useful to the teacher of college freshman English courses.

A. Articles.

ARNOLD, LOIS V. "Writer's Cramps and Eyestrain — Are They Paying Off?", *English Journal*, LIII (January, 1964), 10-15.

Teachers and administrators should work toward a more thorough understanding of what written composition is, what prompts students to write, and what methods of evaluating are more effective. Student practice and intensive teacher examination do not necessarily result in better writing.

BAKER, WILLIAM D. "An Investigation of Characteristics of Poor Writers." *College Composition and Communication*, V (February, 1954), 23-27.

In this study, two groups of freshman college students were used; one group scored high on English placement tests and the other low. Generally, poor writers have the low scores and are below average in linguistic ability, average in quantitative ability and slightly below average in reading ability.

BALAZS, EUGENE E. "What Do You Mean, Awkward? You Know What I Meant," *English Journal* LVI (March, 1967), 424-425.

The Composition Corrector is a portable electronic machine through which the teacher can speak his corrections and record them for the student to play back later. The author feels that this machine makes the job of correction easier for the teacher and, thus, allows for clearer, more detailed corrections. Students and teachers both, in an experimental situation, liked the machine. Distributed by Educational Technology, Brooklyn, New York 11211.

BARTEL, ROLAND. A Letter to the Editor, *English Journal*, LVI (March, 1967), 473, 474.

As a part of teaching composition and evaluating papers, the author suggests a method that he found useful. He suggests that the student should keep a complete record of his writing progress. Then, elsewhere, he should summarize his successes and failures for each theme. Also, he might write a response to his teacher's comments. With the student responding to teacher comments and being aware of them, the comments should be more meaningful to him.

BERNADETTE, SISTER MIRIAM. "Evaluation of Writing: A Three-Part Program," *English Journal* LVI (January, 1965), 23-27.

Student writing may be improved if much of the responsibility for

evaluation is placed on the student. The student should be concerned with three levels of evaluation for his paper: basic skills, paragraph structure and organization of ideas, and the significance of ideas. The student should be encouraged to receive insights into his own problems.

BLACKMAN, RALPH. "Accentuate the Positive and Save the Red Pencil," *English Journal*, LII (January, 1964), 31-33.

Pointers for use in evaluating student compositions are presented in hopes that they may alleviate the boredom of correcting compositions. Twelve suggestions are given.

BLONDINO, CHARLES. "Looking at a Theme Reader Program," *English Journal*, LVII (October, 1968), 1028-1031.

This article looks into lay help as theme readers to help to evaluate student papers. A successful program is described with the following successes listed: (1) Theme readers are carefully selected. (2) The program encourages teacher participation. (3) Another audience for student writing is provided. (4) Definite guidelines exist. (5) The program seeks to be teacher orientated. (6) Evaluation of the program is regularly done.

BRIGGS, DENNIS. "The Influence of Handwriting on Assessment," *Educational Research*, XIII (November, 1970), 50-55.

An experiment was conducted to see if teachers were influenced in their assessment of students' essays by the quality of their handwriting. The evidence from this experiment supports the notion that handwriting influences the assessment of essays. A teacher may well mark down a paper because the writing is poor or because more than usual effort is required to read it.

BURKE, VIRGINIA. "A Candid Opinion on Lay Readers," *English Journal*, L (April, 1961), 258-264.

Dr. Burke feels that lay reader programs can help toward the improvement of student writing. The program in order to be successful must be well structured with competent readers and teachers who are willing to work together.

COOK, LUELLA V. "The Search for Standards," *English Journal*, XLIX (May, 1960), 321-335.

The English profession needs a set of standards that will operate to get the job of evaluation done for all levels of ability. Standards for

evaluation should be set in accordance with goals of the individual institution. They should provide an organizational clue in evaluating the writing performance of students.

COWARD, ANN F. "A Comparison of Two Methods of Grading English Compositions," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (October, 1952), 81-93.

This study compared two methods of grading compositions. One method—the atomistic—calls for an evaluator to make specific and objective judgments on compositions; the other method—the wholistic—calls for an evaluator to view the paper as a whole and to grade it in its totality. The wholistic method was faster than the other, but reading reliability would probably be the same for both if the same amount of time was taken. Overall, there is no evidence of the intrinsic differences in the nature of the abilities evaluated by the two methods.

CRABB, ALFRED. "Keep Your Eye on the Mark," *Peabody Journal of Education*, (May, 1968), 326+.

The article presents ideas that may be useful in the evaluation of student compositions. It suggests that teachers should secure materials on evaluation from the NCTE, that they should receive training in planning writing assignments, and that they should often have their own writing evaluation.

DAIGON, ARTHUR. "Computer Grading of English Compositions," *English Journal*, LV (January, 1966) 46-52.

The computer is presented as a possibility for grading compositions. Factors that can be computer graded are discussed (e.g. mechanics) as well as those that cannot (e.g. logic, connotation).

Even with considering the disadvantages of a computer, the author feels that it can contribute greatly to the process of composition evaluation.

DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "How to Measure Growth in Writing Ability," *English Journal*, LV (April, 1966), 435-449.

Recognizing the "intangible" quality of writing, the author reviews procedures to use in measuring writing improvement. For example, one procedure utilizes a group of teachers and a group of students working/evaluating together with a carefully constructed checklist in evaluating.

DOHERTY, EUGENE N. "The Princeton Township Lay-Corrector Program," *English Journal*, LIII (April, 1964), 273-276.

In the lay-corrector program, a negative approach to composition grading is discouraged. Papers should be graded by the correctors and submitted to the teacher; then, the teacher determines the final grade. The program is recommended.

DUSEL, WILLIAM. "How Should Student Writing Be Judged?," *English Journal* XLVI (May, 1957), 263-268+

Standards for judging writing should include honesty, growth, order, and accuracy in writing. Forms of evaluation should be self evaluation, group evaluation, and teacher evaluation.

— "Some Semantic Implications of Theme Correction," *English Journal*, XLVI (October, 1955), 390-397.

Questions about marking themes were posed to some teachers of writing in California. Results show that there are problems in marking. Some suggestions for marking, consequently, are presented. Teacher should (1) show an appreciation of successful writing, (2) emphasize the importance of purpose and idea in writing composition, and (3) indicate faults in a way so as to facilitate learning.

FITZ, PATRICK, VIRGINIA. "An AV Aid to Teaching Writing," *English Journal*, LVII (March, 1968), 372-374.

Comments about themes recorded on a tape recorder were found to be better, to hold students' attention, and to be better for the individual student's difficulties.

The experiment did not reveal any significant difference in the number of rewritten papers turned in, and it is difficult to estimate that improvements in the rewritten papers were greater because of the taped comments. The author thought that this procedure, although taking more time, could produce wanted results.

FOSTVEDT, DONALD. "Criteria for the Evaluation of High School English Compositions," *Journal of Educational Research*, LIX (November, 1965), 108-112.

The problem was to find a set of criteria that could bring a type of standardization in evaluation written compositions. Perhaps, the only thing concluded is that teachers of English composition feel that criteria are important, but there is no consistency in the use of such criteria.

GELSHENEN, ROSEMARY. "Compositions on Trial," *English Journal*, XLI (October, 1952), 431-432.

The teacher notes errors made in papers of students. Then, a group (students) is formed to decide if composition is acceptable.

GIRR, FRANCIS. "Group Paragraph Revision," *English Journal*, XLIX (December, 1960), 630-632.

Through group work, the teacher may be able to illustrate weaknesses in student writing.

GRISSOM, LOREN V. "Student Leadership in Evaluating Compositions," *English Journal*, LXVIII (May, 1959), 338-339.

A method that involves student participation in evaluating English composition is described. In the student-centered program, students should work out their own standards and engage in group writing sessions prior to turning in assignments. Each student should receive comments about his paper from four or five other students. Then, each does a rewrite and hands two papers in to the teacher.

HALVERSON, NELIUS O. "Two Methods of Syndicating Errors in Themes," *College English*, II (December, 1940), 277-279.

This study attempted to discover how effective are (1) the use of symbols/abbreviations and (2) the use of checks. The check system seemed to be better in terms of student achievement. This method places more responsibility on the student and encourages him to look deeper into the check.

HAWKINSON, BRUCE. "Grading Themes with a Tape Recorder," *Education Digest*, XXX (March, 1965), 48-49.

Students may number every other line on their papers to provide reference points for teacher's comments, and also submit a tape with their themes. The author suggests that this method is superior to conventional grading because it can be more personal and positive.

HAYS, FRANK. "The Theme-a-Week Assumption: A Report of an Experiment," *English Journal*, LI (May, 1962), 320-322.

This experiment tested the idea that increased reading will improve the ability of students to write. The study showed no statistically significant differences between the gains of the READING group and those of the WRITING group.

HUGH, SISTER MARY. "Visual Aid Versus Red Pencil," *English Journal*, XLI (May, 1952), 266-268.

Student themes may be projected over the opaque projector, and, then, the teacher has a better opportunity to point errors all at one time.

JOHNSON, ERIC W. "Avoiding Martyrdom in Teaching Writing: Some Shortcuts," *English Journal*, LI (September, 1962), 399-402.

Evaluation should teach. A method is described that should encourage the student to write more, make him recognize his strengths and weaknesses, and stimulate him to engage in some revision.

JOHNSON, LOIS J. "Proofreading — A Student Responsibility," *English Journal*, LVI (December, 1967), 1323-1324+.

This English teacher presents a method for proofreading, often a neglected part of the writing process. Careful reading of papers is very necessary if proofreading is to be beneficial. Students should be given sufficient time to proofread. Teachers should possibly encourage proofreading by not accepting papers which obviously have not been proofread.

KALLSEN, T.J. "Grades: Judgment or Lottery," *Improving College and University Teaching*, XV (Summer, 1967), 178-180.

The author calls for a return to mathematics in grading freshman themes. His approach assumes that freshman English students deserve a standard grading system for their themes. The ideal grade should be one that is an average of the grades that the entire freshman English teaching staff would assign to the paper.

KEENE, KATHERINE. "Students Like Corrections," *English Journal*, XLV (April, 1956) 215-215.

Students attitudes towards correction and theme grading are presented. Students want to know specific strengths and weaknesses of their papers.

KOCLANES, T.A. "Can We Evaluate Compositions?" *English Journal*, L (April, 1961), 252-257+.

Evaluation should teach individuals how to improve their writing. It should involve three levels: (1) spelling, grammatical, and mechanical errors; (2) paragraph development; (3) purpose, organization, and significance of ideas.

KRILL, E. JACK. "My Mistakes Are Mine Alone," *Audio-Visual Instruction*, VIII (December, 1963), 734-736.

Taped evaluations for English compositions may be easier for both the teacher and student. By using taped comments, teachers may be able to do a better and more thorough job of evaluating compositions. The taped comment is an excellent medium for providing individualized instruction. The human voice from the tape provides this personal contact; at the same time, the student does not face his critic/teacher.

LARSON, RICHARD L. "Invention Once More: A Role for Rhetorical Analysis," *College English*, XXXII (March, 1971), 665-672.

Students are urged to find material for effective compositions through their experiences and observations. Other criticizing essays may help students analyses of their writing. Points for analyses should include (1) structural plans (2) methods of development (3) finer points of writing. The hope is that students will be freed from inhibitions.

———"Training New Teachers of Composition in the Writing of Comments on Themes," *College Composition and Communication*, XVII (October, 1966), 152-155.

Suggestions are offered to aid prospective teachers evaluating themes. A guide to writing comments is used; it consists of three parts that explain a method for writing marginal comments, general comments, and for handling papers when comments are to be made.

LIEF, LEONARD. "The 'D' Student in Composition," *College English* XVII (May, 1956), 477-478.

The "D" student exists in colleges and must be given some attention and understanding. The student who receives a "D" in composition should repeat the course. If he still shows no improvement, he should be failed. The author realizes the implications, but believes that proper command of the mother tongue is an important facility in subsequent college courses.

LIVINGSTON, LORRAINE K. "An Experiment in Correction and Revision," *College English*, XVIII (December, 1956), 169-170.

This experiment tries to discover how correction and revision can be made an integral part of the theme assignment, so that the student can get a better view of the writing process. The results revealed that students may profit — in beginning English courses — more with writing if fewer different themes were assigned. Then, he could spend *more time on revision and correction*. This should lead students to a deeper understanding of writing techniques.

LOGAN, EDGAR. "A Red Pencil Holiday," *English Journal*, XL (January, 1951), 41-42.

The author suggests a positive approach to evaluating. Underscoring a good idea may have a more positive effect with students than pointing out errors.

MARSHALL, JON C. and JERRY POWERS. "Writing Neatness, Composition Errors, and Essay Grades," *Journal of Educational Measurement*, VI (Summer, 1969), 97-101.

This investigation set out to discover if factors such as handwriting and composition errors could affect the grading of an essay examination. The results indicate that an essay response that contained either eighteen spelling errors or eighteen composition errors was assigned a significantly lower grade than the same response containing no gross errors. Also, a good handwritten response was assigned a significantly higher grade than a fair handwritten one.

MARSHALL, MARIAM. "Helping Children to Write Better Themes," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXXVIII (September, 1960), 96-99.

In encouraging students to write better themes, this teacher gives much attention to the evaluation process. Students kept themes on file in chronological order. Periodically, they were asked to look over their themes, list their grades, reread comments, and then decide upon a mark which would fairly express what they had done. Then, they wrote summary statements of their themes.

MAY, MARJORIE. "Punctuation with Punch," *English Journal*, XL (December, 1951), 572-573.

Punctuation mistakes can be corrected with duplicated copies of student errors.

McCAFFERTY, JOHN. "Beginning Composition in the Senior High School," *English Journal*, XLIX (December, 1960), 636-638.

Composition grading may be facilitated by using a step-by-step progression of items taught.

McCOLLY, WILLIAM. "Composition Rating Scales for General Merit: "An Experimental Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Measurement* LIX (October, 1965), 55-56.

An experiment was conducted to compare a 4-point and a 6-point rating

scale. No statistically significant differences were found in the two scales. However, using the 6-point scale took much longer than the 4-point. Also, extensive orientation had to be given to those using the 6-point scale.

——— "What Does Education Research Say About the Judging of Writing Ability?" *Journal of Educational Research* LXIV (December, 1970), 148-156.

The judging of writing ability is a long, difficult, and complicated process. Factors that make essay grading difficult include writers, readers, and topics. If these factors are minimized, then judgements of writing ability may become reliable and valid. With the coming of the computer, there is hope that it can function as a means of providing some valid basis for evaluating written compositions.

McGUIRE, EDNA. "College Freshmen on Writing in High School," *English Journal* LI (April, 1962), 256-258.

College freshmen were asked about the teaching of writing in their high schools. Various comments were received in response to such questions about evaluation: (1) How should teachers mark themes? (2) Should every piece of writing be marked and graded? (3) Should papers be revised?

MORRILL, A. REED. "Evaluating Term Papers," *Improving College and University Teaching*, XIV (Summer, 1966), 181-182.

The article presents an evaluating scale that should help give the student insight into the standards that he is expected to reach in his papers. Matters are rated on a 5-point scale; those evaluated are form, organization, scope, effort, and content.

MOULTON, PAUL J. "A Mathematician Rushes In," *English Journal*, LVI (December, 1967), 1301-1304.

A humorous piece, this article catalogues the trials of a mathematics student who was not too bright in English composition. He believes that English teachers spend too much time worrying about spelling, commas, capital letters, and fault-finding. All such trivialities stifle students and must be eliminated.

NELSON, LAWRENCE E. "Sequential Composition Grading," *Clearing House*, XLI (March, 1967), 434+.

Too often repeated marking of errors and strong points do not help

students improve in writing. The sequential grading program helped students discover what was wrong with their writing before they submitted it for examination by the instructor. The program has five steps.

NEWBERRY, R.A. "Objective Indices in the Assessment of Essays," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVII (November, 1967), 403-405.

This investigation considered the discriminating value of objective indices which may show a tendency toward more formal treatment of an essay according to the nature of the topic and the maturity of the writer. Three age groups were used: a group of grammar and secondary school students, a group of college students, and a group of post graduate students. The study found that the higher age group almost always was superior in writing.

PALMER, ORVILLE. "Seven Classic Ways of Grading Dishonestly," *English Journal*, LI (October, 1962), 464-467.

Bad evaluation systems exist, unfortunately. The author challenges English teachers to find better methods of grading and eliminate dishonest grading.

PATTISON JOSEPH C. "How to Write an "F" Paper: Fresh Advice for Students of Freshman English," *College English*, XXV (October, 1963), 38+.

This humorous essay presents principles for writing an "F" paper. In doing so, students are challenged to (1) obscure the ideas, (2) mangle the sentences, (3) and slovenize the diction.

PAUL, BERNICE I. "Group Participation in Theme Writing," *English Journal*, XXXIX (November, 1950), 524-526.

Student committees can help in the evaluation papers. Also, reading orally the best papers may be effective.

PERRIN, PORTER G. "Maximum Essentials in Composition," *College English*, VIII (April, 1947), 352-360.

Composition should help students to communicate their information, and ideas, their conceptions, and their desires and feelings appropriately in various situations. The evaluation of students, then, should be based on the achievement of these goals.

ROGAL, SAMUEL. "The Lay Reader Must Go," *Clearing House*, XXIX (March, 1965), 407-410.

The author presents a severe criticism of a program that has been hailed by many. He feels that lay reader programs are ineffective because they do not offer sufficient help to the average and below average student.

ROODY, SARAH I. AND BESS LYMAN. "Managing Student Writing," *English Journal*, ILIV (February, 1955), 75-79.

Suggestions are made for handling a large number of student papers. They include (1) varying the comments made to bright, average, weak student, (2) grading papers as they are turned in, (3) training student committees to help in evaluation, and (4) displaying themes.

ROTHSTEIN, ARNOLD. "Marks on Term Papers in the Liberal Arts," *Journal of Teacher Education*, XVI (June, 1965), 249-250.

An investigation was made to explore what effects a teacher's assignment and the grading of it had on students. Markings on the papers related to (in order of occurrence) the mechanics of writing, value statements, form and style. Commentary was more frequent when the professors disagreed with students or when they appeared to be justifying the grade given. Of the thirty-six papers surveyed, twenty-one contained less than seven markings, and five of the twenty-one contained no markings at all.

RUOFF, JAMES. "Evaluating Student Essays in Literature: A Plea for Objective Criteria," *College English*, XXII (October, 1960), 35-37.

Because grading essays is too often a matter of opinion, there is too much subjectivity and inconsistency. Means for achieving a desirable margin of objectivity may include an analysis of the rhetorical and logical configurations of the essays. The problem should not be to assess what is eternally true, but to formulate and evaluate definitions and logical constructions.

———"Variations on a Theme," *College English*, XVIII (February, 1957), 268-269.

To help students understand the problems in writing, the author devised a method employing a composite theme that contained errors that students make. The composite themes were mimeographed, distributed, and discussed by class members.

SCHUMANN, PAUL F. "What Criteria Do You Use in Grading Compositions?" *English Journal*, LVII (November, 1968), 1163-1165.

The author suggests ways that may help to eliminate wide disparity of grades that one composition may receive and to eliminate subjectivity. The coding of student names and two grading of themes may be possibilities. Also, the results of one experiment point to the need for more criteria in evaluating.

SCHWARTZ, MAJORIE. "Non-Academic Writing: Requirements and Evaluation," *English Journal*, LV (April, 1966), 468-471.

Standards are given for dealing with students who do not intend to engage in further academic pursuits. For them, an evaluating system may be better than a marking system. Standards should involve the student's intention, reasoning, and word choice.

SHUMAN, R. BAIRD. "Theme Revision? Who Needs It?" *Peabody Journal of Education*, XLI (July, 1962), 12.

Theme revision should be carefully discussed with students. They should know that revision is different from proofreading and re-writing. Revision is useful if the student knows the problems that he should focus on in revising.

SMITH, EUGENE H. "Composition Evaluation: A Problem of Voice," *English Journal*, LVI (November, 1967), 1189-1194.

In evaluating the writings of their students, teachers should carefully scrutinize the assignment to see if it serves each of their purposes. Also, having the student write to someone should be a major factor in the teachers' approach to writing and evaluation.

STARCH, DANIEL AND EDWARD C. ELLIOTT. "Reliability of the Grading of High School Work in English," *School Review*, XX (September, 1912), 442-457.

The problem of this evaluation was to determine the range of variation and the reliability of the marks assigned by teachers to examination answer papers. The results showed that there is a tremendous range of variation. Also, the standards of a given teacher are more or less variable and indefinite.

STEVICK, ROBERT D. "Better Grading of Better Themes," *College Composition and Communication*, XII (December, 1960), 234-237.

The student should be engaged in the process of grading and composition instruction. Consequently, he will know points of rhetoric, style, and "correct English." (A complicated and ironic article).

STRUCK, HERMAN R. "Some Facts on Revision," *College English*, XV (February, 1954), 279-283.

The author believes that revision is a necessity in learning to write and should be stressed even though some students do not enjoy it. Revision should be stressed in order to improve such qualities of writing as coherence, clarity, and exactness. All may profit from revision.

TANNER, BERNARD. "Teacher to Disc to Student," *English Journal* LIII (May, 1964), 362-363.

A method of evaluating by utilizing a dictating machine is explained. The machine is used with papers that demand detailed responses. The student and teacher meet in a conference setting to hear the recording; this can put an end to an experience that can be frustrating.

TAYLOR, WINNIFRED AND KENNETH HAEDT. "The Effect of Praise Upon the Quality and Quantity of Creative Writing," *LX Journal of Educational Research*, (October, 1966), 80-83.

From an experiment on praise, results indicate that praise with little correction is advisable. Students who received praise with little correction produced more work, had more favorable attitudes, were more motivated, and appeared to be more independent than others.

TOVATT, ANTHONY L. AND JEWETT ARNO. "Just What Do College Composition Instructors Look For?" *English Journal*, XLVI (January, 1957), 47-48.

Theme marking and grading systems in Iowa Colleges and universities are reviewed. It was discovered that teachers, for the most part, are concerned about purpose, organization, and conventional errors — spelling, punctuation, and usage.

WAGNER, LINDA W. "The Student-Centered Theme Series," *English Journal*, LIII (December, 1964), 689-670.

This article explores the "student-graded theme series" as a method of evaluation. This procedure lets each student "grade" a group of five themes that have been mimeographed. Each theme represents a grade from A — F. Students then comment on the themes and the grade while the teacher defends the grade he has given each theme. All seem to participate in these discussions.

WARD, WILLIAM S. (ed). "Principles and Standards in Composition for High Schools and Colleges," *Kentucky English Bulletin*, VI (Fall, 1956), p. 17.

Considerations given to grading themes include contents and mechanics, marginal notes, and terminal comments.

WEBB, BERNICE L. "You Put Strawberries in Your Outline," *English Journal* LVI (September, 1967), 863-864.

Corrections of student themes may be livened by using figures of speech.

WEHR, OLIVE C. "R Is For Re-Write," *Junior College Journal*, XXVII (January, 1958), 276.

The symbol "R" may be used effectively for an unsatisfactory theme. It tells the student that the theme must be rewritten before it receives a grade.

WELLS, CARTON F. "Ten Points for Composition Teachers," *English Journal*, LV (November, 1966), 1080-1081.

A 10-point statement of do's and don'ts in reading, evaluating, and grading student papers is outlined.

WHEELER, FRED. "An Experimental Study of Means to Improve Writing," *Journal of Secondary Education*, LX (November, 1965), 331-335.

This study was designated to test the hypothesis that less frequent writing plus selected readings would result in improvements in writing. Less frequent writing does not necessarily result in a lack of ability to write. Experiment results show that time given to in-class writing might well be devoted to critical reading and thinking. More research is needed to discover better ways for teaching writing.

WILSON, ELLEN K. "Systematizing the English Reader," *English Journal*, LV (March, 1966), 350-351+.

A properly developed lay reader program is recommended. With such a system, all involved-teachers, students, lay readers-can benefit from such a program.

ZIVLEY, SHERRY. "A Cautious Approach to Student Grading," *English Journal* LVI (December, 1967), 1321-1322.

Student grading was attempted. Students read and commented on papers of others and their own papers in a highly critical manner. This approach helped students to understand that the teacher does indeed use some identifiable standards rather than his own subjectivity.

B. PAMPHLETS AND BOOKLETS.

BRADDOCK, RICHARD, et. al. *Research in Written Composition*. Champaign, Illinois: NCTE, 1963.

The findings of a group of investigators who set out to discover what is known about writing and learning to write make up this booklet. Information found on evaluation deals with student correction, frequency of writing, student revision, and the nature of marking.

BURKE, VIRGINIA M. *The Lay Reader Program in Action*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: WCTE No. 1, 1960.

In general, the lay reader program is favored. It allows for frequent writing, criticism from another viewpoint; it helps prepare students for more rigid writing. Grades remained a teacher responsibility. The program improved the effectiveness of the brighter students.

BURTON, DWIGHT L. and LOIS V. ARNOLD. *Effects of Frequency of Writing and Intensity of Teacher Evaluation upon High School Students' Performance in Writing*. Tallahassee, Florida: Florida State University, 1963.

The results of the study on frequency of writing and intensity of evaluation showed that no significant differences in writing were found connected with either factors named.

JUDINE, SISTER M. *A Guide for Evaluating Student Composition*. Champaign, Illinois. NCTE, 1965.

The booklet contains a compilation of twenty-four articles on composition evaluating by educators such as Lou La Bront, S.I. Hayakawa, and William Dusel. The articles are divided into four groups.

McCOLLY, WILLIAM and ROBERT REMSTAD. *Comparative Effectiveness of Composition Skills Learning Activities in the Secondary School*. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 1963.

A study was conducted to discover the relationship between teacher evaluation of compositions and other factors. The results revealed that (1) more writing did not make for better writing, (2) tutoring did not

produce significant results, and (3) learning activities that consisted of practical study, group discussion, self-instruction, and conventional teacher correction can help improve writing ability.

STEVEN, A.K. (ed.). "Evaluating a Theme" Newsletter: Michigan Council of Teachers of English. 1958.

A single theme was evaluated by twenty-five college English teachers. Number, length, and emphasis of the comments varied.

THOMAS, EDNA S. *Evaluating Student Themes*. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1966.

Three groups of themes of varying quality made up this booklet. Each theme is followed by terminal comments with details on content, paragraphs, sentences, mechanics, tone.

William Shakespeare and Richard III

By Joseph P. delTufo

"Upon what meat does this our Caesar feed,/ That he is grown so great?" asks Cassius sarcastically about Caesar, and a similar question can be raised seriously about every great man and about the creator of Cassius too. How is it that one William Shakespeare, born in an insignificant little town, Stratford-on-Avon, in a then rather unimportant, little island country, a man moreover who never had the advantages of a University education and who presumably fled his home in disgrace to a lowly theater job in London, — how is it that such a man should now "bestride the narrow world/ like a Colossus," and why do all educated men recognize him as among the very few literary geniuses of all time; perhaps the greatest dramatist who ever lived?

There are many possible answers to this question: some undoubtedly would point to Shakespeare's luck. For he was lucky. England became great; the English language became in time the most widely disseminated language in the world. Shakespeare himself was a tolerant man and tolerance luckily became a much respected virtue. Moreover, Shakespeare chose (perhaps because of the tastes of his times) to portray man as a free moral being and to portray those human traits which do not change with time. In all of this he was lucky. But luck played a very small part in Shakespeare's success.

I suppose that the majority of Shakespearean critics would agree that Shakespeare's position as monarch-without-rival of English letters depends mainly on his portrayal of man, and of human nature — his canny insight into what each of us is, his ability to set ourselves before our own eyes. Richard III, Hamlet, Othello, Lear, Romeo, Rosalind, Viola, Portia, Imogen, Miranda, and a score of lesser characters continually force our admiring "Yes, this is man. Yes, this is I." John Dryden, the great critic of the Neo-Classic period once said, "He was the man who of all modern and perhaps ancient poets, had the largest and most comprehensive soul." Shakespeare can reach into and portray a human in anguish and a human in joy. For almost any human situation which we can think of, he has created an echoing episode in his plays. He knows and has revealed on stage the heart of the hero and the heart of the coward, the jealous man, the idealist, the lover, the pedant, the old and the young, the male and the female, those who feel inferior and those who feel superior; every type of man walks across Shakespeare's stage and reveals man to himself.

One of the reasons we all enjoy poetry is because the poet has put our moods, our aspirations and our fears into words for us, and when we can express these in words we have in a way conquered them. Shakespeare is at hand endlessly with the words for our everyday living; he seems to have said

it all so very long ago. And so he is the most quoted of poets — quoted not merely for show, but more often for comfort, (and frequently out of context) because his words express and so comfort our hearts. How many a weary-boned man has found satisfaction in lifting Macbeth's words out of context and applying them to his own life, "Tomorrow, and tomorrow, and tomorrow,/ Creeps in this petty pace from day to day," and books of quotations bear witness to the popularity of Shakespeare in this regard.

Some of the reasons for Shakespeare's astounding success can be summarized in a series of paradoxes. He is at once easy and difficult; particular and universal; one and various; moral and seemingly immoral; realistic and romantic.

Shakespeare is easy and difficult. Once the language problem has been overcome with the aid of a well-footnoted text, anyone can appreciate Shakespeare's stories. He is easy. Compare Yeats or Eliot with Shakespeare. Any teacher would rather explain Shakespeare than either of the other two. Yet he is also difficult. Read Macbeth once. It is a murder story. A second and a third and a fourth reading and you find Shakespeare has plumbed the depths of human evil; he has laid bare the soul of a good man who thought to do one foul murder for his own ends and remain the good man he had been. Read *Hamlet* once. "An interesting character Hamlet. Too bad he couldn't make up his mind." Read it over and over and the over-lapping possibilities of what makes this man tick leave you in a maze that grows out of a conundrum and has roots in a murky puddle. Then all of a sudden you realize that your puzzlement about what makes Hamlet tick is just like your puzzlement about what makes you yourself tick. Read *Richard III* once. He is a villain pure and simple. Read him again. Fascination grows. Why? Is it his energy, his daring or his plain and simple love of a challenge? You never are really satisfied that you have gotten all there is to Richard.

Shakespeare is particular and universal. No character ever dominates a play without being an individual. Bottom is like no other, any where, any time. Hamlet? He is as really individual as a brother or a best friend. Macbeth? Lady Macbeth? Othello? Will anyone call these type-characters? They live and breathe and walk with more individuality than the man we think we know next door. And yet flowing out from them, or to change the comparison, mirrored behind them is everyman and I. Othello, exotic blackamoor, fierce in jealousy, and murderous, yet shows me, and shows everyman a small, mostly hidden reach of his own soul. Richard III setting up an impossible challenge — the wooing of Anne or the winning of Elizabeth — an individual, like no one in life or any other drama, is yet *man* to whom accepting a challenge is almost as characteristic as being able to laugh.

Shakespeare is one and various. One, because every trait of every character is echoed in all mankind; various, because we find every type of

man represented in his plays: the fool and the wise man; the king and the drunkard; the prisoner and the judge; the angelic and the vicious. We find Lear and Edmund; Claudius and Hamlet; Portia and Cleopatra; Romeo and Othello — an endless variety of human individuals, yet all found in miniature in each human heart.

Shakespeare is moral and seemingly immoral. Evil is never presented as good in Shakespeare's plays. He judges as Christ might judge when treating of the objective morality of any person's action. And yet across his stage march murderers, adulterers, the violent and the cruel. Bawdy language and coarse jokes; plots which reveal man's basest corruption; hypocrites, thieves drunkards, the incestuous — all can be found in the pages of his plays. Actually, of course, these do not make Shakespeare immoral, but to some at least it makes him seem immoral, and for all, curiosity about evil men is satisfied.

And finally Shakespeare is at once realistic and romantic. Within the scope of one play we find such realistic characters as Shylock and Antonio juxtaposed with such romantic nonsense as the three-casket story at Belmont. Mercutio and Juliet's nurse might be our neighbors, they are that real; but Romeo and Juliet move in a world that never was except in the unending dream of youthful lovers. What is, what ought to be, and what man wishes could be; the facts and the aspirations; the sordid reality and the human dream; both sides of man find dramatization in Shakespeare's plays as they do in the minds and hearts of all men.

These are some of the reasons why William Shakespeare after four hundred years commands our attention and our admiration. As Ben Jonson, his contemporary said, "He was not of an age, but for all time."

RICHARD III

Richard the Third, Shakespeare's first great character creation appeared on stage probably in 1592 and Richard Burbage made an astounding success of the role.

As a character Richard is not really human like Hamlet, nor as well-motivated as Othello, but on stage, from the very first, Richard has commanded his audience. His energy, his astounding audacity, and his cleverness in manipulating others mesmerizes an audience.

Sometimes Richard is painted as a thorough out-and-out villain, a Machiavel, one for whom evil is good and to whom the doing of evil gives as much joy as the doing of good would to others. At other times, Richard's machinations are explained as an effect of his physical deformity. Some would have it that Richard's ambition drives him on from bloody deed to

bloody deed, and others see him as delighting in coming as close to destruction as possible without falling in. All of these pictures of Richard can be justified from the text of the play. For example, in the early part of the play Richard is seemingly motivated by his physical deformity to become a villain; he tells us so himself. And yet when we watch him woo and win Anne, whose father, father-in-law, and husband he has killed, we are inclined to disbelieve him. Yet in the later part of the play, Richard is not motivated at all. He seems to act ruthlessly and wildly, not to care for consequences. For example, at one point he openly asks a page to find him a murderer.

I find the key to Richard's character in the famous line "A horse, a horse, my kingdom for a horse." Richard is well aware that the tide of battle has been against him. He is urged to escape, but he wants to get back into battle. For him the battle is everything. War delights him. The clash of combat sees him a giant, master of every enemy. In time of peace he still delights in combat; he sets himself almost impossible goals and delights in their fulfillment only long enough to think up a new challenge. The saddest thing for Richard is his coronation. There seem to be no more challenges — but he creates new ones. He rids himself of Anne and takes on the seemingly impossible task of winning Queen Elizabeth's consent to his marriage with her daughter, his own niece. That we are meant to suppose that the Queen's consent was real seems clear. Had Bosworth Field turned out differently, Richard in the play at least would have married his niece and gone hunting — for new challenges. His very carelessness seems motivated by his love for a challenge: how far can he go and still get away with it.

Had Richard III, the real king, won the battle of Bosworth Field, we would not have had our present play. The real Richard was far from the villain presented in this play. In fact it is not even certain that he was villain at all. Henry VII and a skillful management of history may have hidden a truly good king under a monstrous legend and a truly wicked king under a lying myth.

In addition to the creators of the Tudor myth, and St. Thomas More and Polydore Vergil who passed the myth on, Shakespeare's *Richard the Third* has debts to many other persons: Holinshed and Hall from whom Shakespeare inherited St. Thomas More's tale; Christopher Marlowe whose *Edward II* influenced the structure of *Richard III*, whose blank verse and soliloquies Shakespeare imitated, and whose *Jew of Malta* featured the Machiavel, Barabas; Seneca, as he was played in England, from whom Shakespeare inherited the ghosts, the rhetorical speeches and the aura of foreboding; the writers of Morality plays, in which we find the patterns for Shakespeare's incantatory scenes and less clearly the Vice-like characteristics of Richard; and finally Greek tragedy, from which Shakespeare took some elements of structure and the general idea of *nemesis*, retribution inherent in evil.

By comparison with Shakespeare's more mature plays, *Richard III* is not great literature. It raises no great human issue. It is not really a tragedy, except in the sense that its main character dies in the end. There is no good hero whose death deserves pity or could arouse terror. And yet *Richard III* is good theater; it entertains from beginning to end. We are fascinated by the man and it is not merely the fascination of evil; it is Richard's good characteristics (though warped to evil), which fascinate us. His energy, his skill, his love of danger, his daring and his courage — these hold us. Though it is not a critical question, one is tempted to ask, "Did Shakespeare create *Richard III* by imagining himself had he turned his genius to machination?"

Neither is *Richard III* great poetry. Actually it has far more rhetoric than poetry in it. Set speeches and argumentation make up much of the play, and yet if one compares it to *Gorboduc*, the first English verse tragedy, it becomes clear that Shakespeare has brought the rhetorical play to a point of perfection; later on, having exhausted rhetoric he would turn to poetry and find a better medium for drama.

A FOOTNOTE ON MY LAST DUCHESS

In Browning's *My Last Duchess*, what does the Duke mean when he says, "I gave commands, Then all smiles stopped together"? Does he mean that he ordered his wife killed? By the laws of plausibility, the answer must be "no." Clearly it would not be plausible that the Duke boast openly of murder, and even were that plausible, he certainly would not have made such a boast to the agent who was supposed to provide him with his next wife (and who listened but to carry every word to her father.)

But Professor Hiram Corson asked Browning himself what the line meant and received this answer, "the commands were that she should be put to death . . . or he might have had her shut up in a convent."

Browning's answer is surprising in two ways: first, that he would allow the implausibility of the Duke's revealing murderous guilt to the agent, and second, that he would offer an alternative. For by offering an alternative, he indicates that he did not know what he intended when he wrote the line. This seems extremely unlikely. My own solution is that Browning was caught off guard with the questions and answered without remembering clearly what he had intended.

If the interpretation that the Duke was boasting of murder is accepted, then the entire poem takes on a different referent. Not only is the Duke made more obviously vicious, but the agent and the Count he represents seem inhuman to the point of incredibility. I conclude, therefore, that Browning could not have intended that the Duke confess to the murder of his wife . . . Joseph P. del Tufo

THE DEGREE OF CONCOMITANT VARIATION BETWEEN PRECONCEIVED NOTIONS AND ACTUAL SITUATIONS ENCOUNTERED IN STUDENT TEACHING

Edited by John Robert Price

Research by Mary Lou Joseph
(A former student majoring in Business Education)

INTRODUCTION

With today's emphasis upon education, there is a greater demand than ever before for teachers. United with the demand for teachers is a desire for good teachers. We are aware that in the preparation of teachers for elementary and secondary education that the prospective teachers in their disciplines must almost universally take a course in student teaching. At times the course is practice teaching, but the trend today is to refer to it as student teaching because the student is not practicing but really engaged in teaching under the supervision of another teacher.

The initial experience in teaching encountered while student teaching can often leave an indelible mark upon a future teacher. If it is not good, it may lead him to abandon his chosen profession at a stage where he is culminating his undergraduate education. Thus, he might complete his work, obtain his degree, and take a position in another field because of the great availability of positions for persons with degrees today. The teaching profession then will have lost a future candidate. Looking at the antithesis of the unpleasant student teaching experience, we see the student teacher in a situation where the atmosphere is near ideal to him, the students, and all concerned. Under this arrangement, much can be achieved. It does not mean that everything will be perfect; however, we are assured that a future teacher is being developed.

Preconceived notions play an important role in our daily lives. With the student teacher these notions are of utmost importance. Until one begins student teaching, he is learning about his profession. Much of the learning he receives is theoretical. He is usually exposed upon entering college to liberal arts courses or general education. As he advances he gets into his professional courses and subject area courses. These are geared to provide him with the resources he will need for student teaching. It is conceded that many reasons exist for student teaching. However, the primary purpose of the professional student teaching program is to provide a planned, carefully supervised learning activity for the student teacher which allows him not only to demonstrate but also improve his resourcefulness as a teacher in a real school setting.¹

STUDY OF PRECONCEIVED NOTIONS ABOUT STUDENT TEACHING

During the spring semester of a recent school year, research concerning preconceived notions about student teaching was undertaken with 45 senior undergraduate students who were doing their student teaching at Delaware State College, Dover, Delaware. Also used for research were 58 business students at Dover High School, Dover, Delaware.

A questionnaire was passed out to the student teachers. The questionnaire contained 15 questions constructed to measure the variation between the students' preconceived notions about student teaching and the actual situations which were encountered in their experiences.

A numerical value ranging from 1 to 5 was assigned to 14 of the 15 questions in order to compute the data and graph it. The values were assigned according to the degree of importance of the question, based on stress given to the particular area during preteaching training. One question was an opinion question of such a magnitude that it was not used for scoring purposes. The scores were computed by giving the numerical value of the question to an answer which indicated no change in feelings or confirmed the preconceived felling.

The questionnaire and related charts are as follows:

Data for Research Paper Entitled, THE DEGREE OF CONCOMITANT VARIATION BETWEEN PRECONCEIVED NOTIONS ABOUT STUDENT TEACHING AND ACTUAL SITUATIONS ENCOUNTERED.

Instructions: Please answer the following question yes or no — any further comments you wish to make will be appreciated. It is not necessary to put your name on the paper.

Thank you very much for your help in gathering this information.

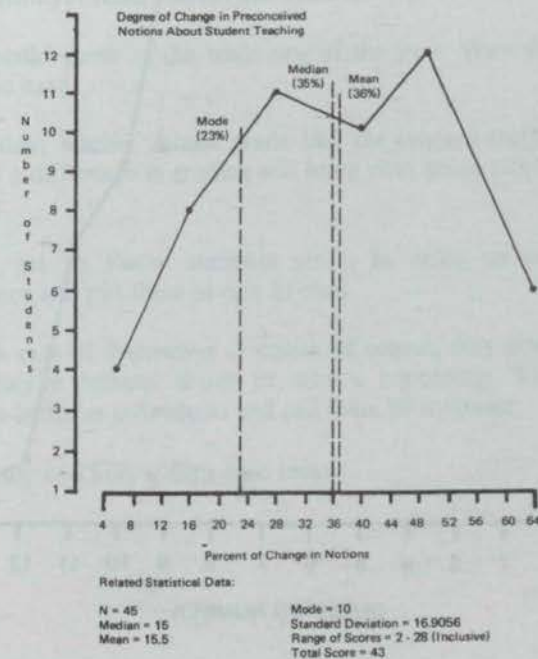
VALUES

- (5) 1. Prior to student teaching did you question your mastery of your subject matter?
 - a. Did this prove to be valid?
- (5) 2. Did you fear standing before a class prior to student teaching?
 - a. Did you have these fears at the beginning of student teaching?
 - b. As time went on did they leave?

- (4) 3. Did you lack confidence in your ability to plan a lesson before going out to student teach?
- Did these fears prove to be valid?
 - Did you do better or worse than you had thought you would in this part of student teaching?
- (4) 4. Did you lack confidence in your ability to present a lesson before student teaching?
- Did these fears prove to be valid?
 - Do you now lack confidence in your ability to present a lesson?
- (3) 5. Before student teaching did you question your ability to evaluate your students fairly and objectively?
- Did this present a problem?
 - Do you feel you did a good job in this area?
- (2) 6. Before student teaching did you feel sure of your ability to hold the attention of your class for an entire period?
- Did this present a problem?
- (2) 7. Were you concerned about any discipline problems which you might not be able to handle in student teaching?
- Did you come up against any?
 - Were they resolved satisfactorily?
- (4) 8.*Did you fear the pressures of your cooperating teacher — as to material to be presented, lesson plans, method of presentation, etc.?
- Did this hold to be true?
- (1) 9. Did the presence of another teacher in the room worry you before student teaching?
- Did this bother you when student teaching?
- (2) 10. Do you believe most cooperating teachers grade fairly? (Thoughts before student teaching)

- Do you believe you did?
- (2) 11. Do you believe eight weeks is adequate time for student teaching?
- Would you have liked to continue for a longer period?
- (5) 12. Before student teaching did you plan to teach in September?
- Has student teaching changed your mind on this matter? Explain:
13. *Briefly* explain what you believe to be the merits and/or demerits of student teaching as part of your education program.
- (2) 14. Do you believe student teaching has been more or less beneficial to you than you thought it would be?
- (2) 15. Do you believe you had adequate knowledge and training in the needs, behaviorisms, and ability of the age group with which you were working?
- Do you have any suggestions on this phase?

*Question showing greatest percent of change in preconceived notions.



Survey Made At Dover High School

In doing a survey at Dover High School, Dover, Delaware, a questionnaire was passed out to 58 students taking business courses. They were asked five questions concerning student teachers in general and four questions concerning the student teacher that had just completed her assignment with them.

Eight of the questions were answered either "yes" or "no." The results of these questions are graphed on the following pages.

The last question was: "What specific recommendations would you make for student teachers in general?" Following are some of the answers given by the students:

They shouldn't drastically change the program the students are used to before they came. If they do this, the students must keep readjusting to methods of teaching which could cause confusion.

To try to reach an understanding with the students — to become one of them yet retain respect and control.

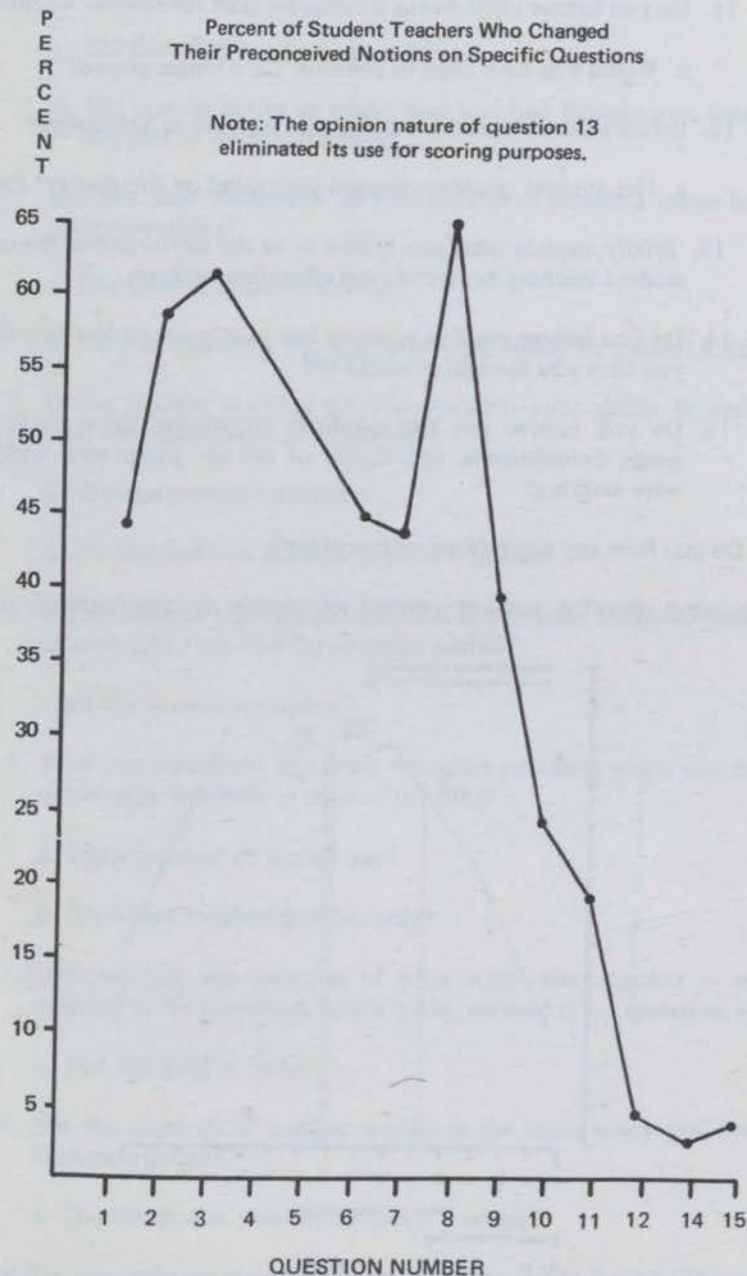
They should come in the beginning of the year. They shouldn't grade too hard.

The student teacher should grade like the original teacher. Too much of a difference in grading will bring your grade either higher or lower.

Try to get to know students more, in order to win their confidence and put them at ease in class.

Be more sure of themselves — unless, of course, they don't know what they're talking about or what's happening. Know the students better as individuals and call them all by name.

Be friendly and follow their own ideas.



They shouldn't try too hard. They should teach at the students' level of ability and not at any speed they so desire.

Try to grade the students easier and try to form a bond between the students and themselves.

To stay for a marking period. Give extra help and give some kind of extra credit for those failing.

They really seem like a regular everyday teacher!

Take it easy — we're only human.

Not be too easy going with students.

To be able to explain things satisfactorily without looking at the book too much. To be a little lenient and not too harsh with grades.

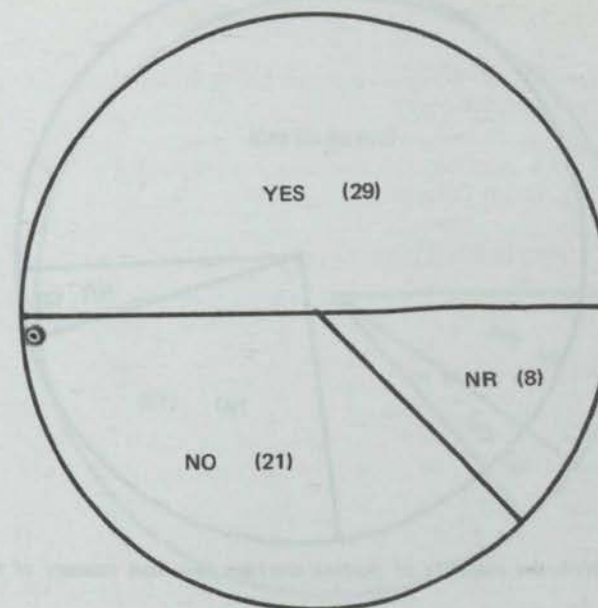
They are okay and a change in the routine, but I think it throws everyone off. When they get a new teacher in the middle of a course, whom they are not used to. But as a student, I don't mind having them teach as long as they know what they're doing.

I like student teachers as much as the regular ones.

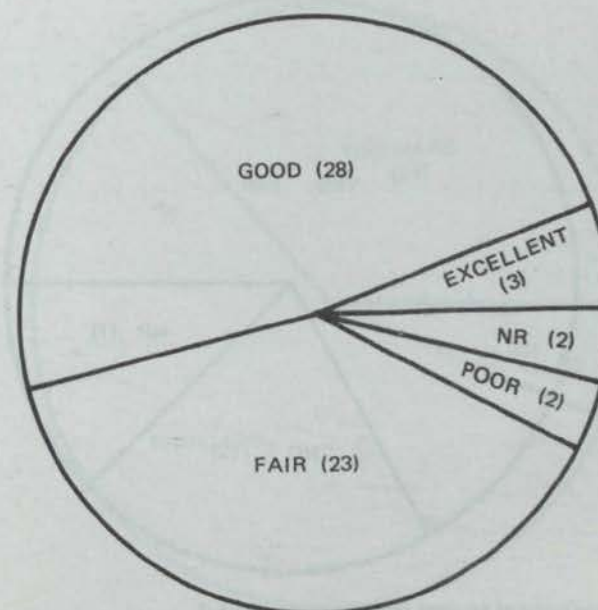
I really don't know what is expected of a student teacher in general. Whether we should consider her a *student* teacher or a regular *everyday* teacher.

One general recommendation would be for a student teacher to have more understanding with a student, because it's hard for a person to get used to someone else's teaching. I feel that they are doing a good job and it gives them experience that will help them when they have a class of their own.

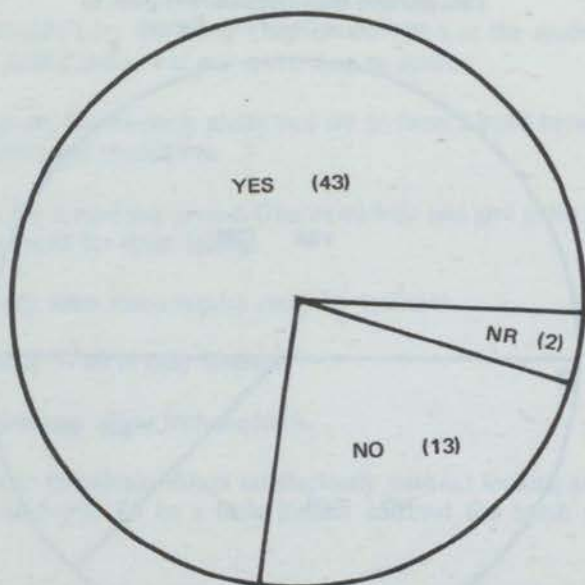
Data gathered from Questionnaire given to students at Dover High School



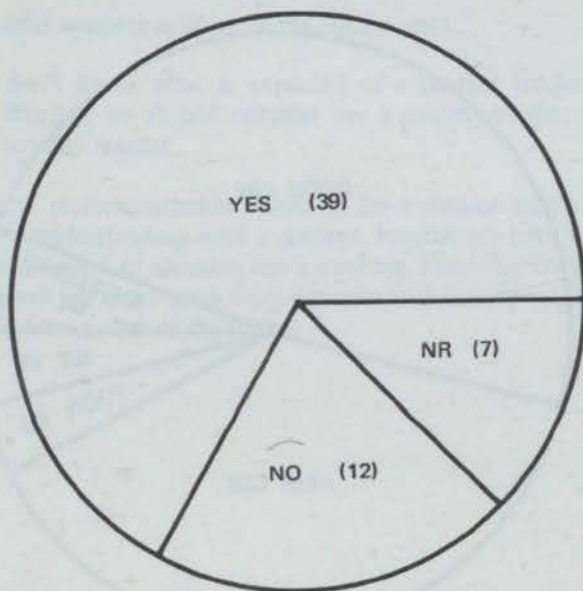
1. Do you look forward to having a student teacher?



2. In the majority of cases has your experience with student teachers been: (a) excellent (b) good (c) fair (d) poor

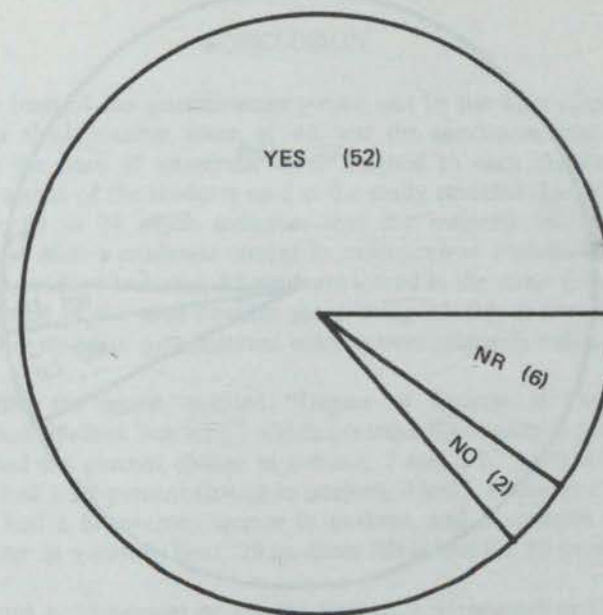


3. Do you think the majority of student teachers have had mastery of their subject matter?

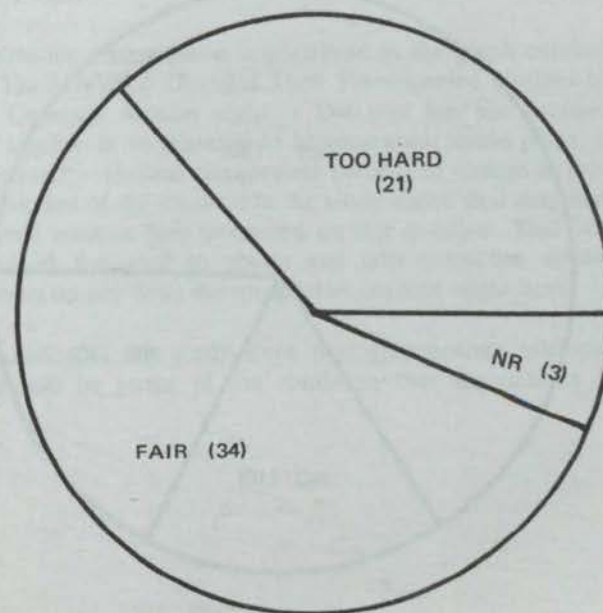


4. Have the majority of student teachers graded fairly?

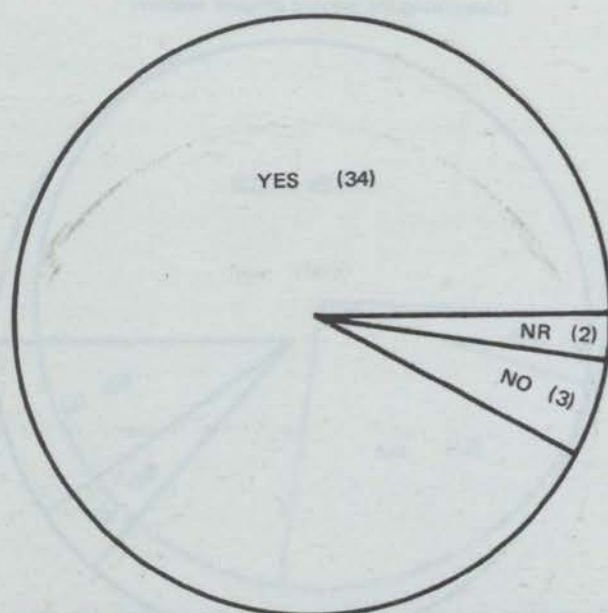
Concerning the present student teacher:



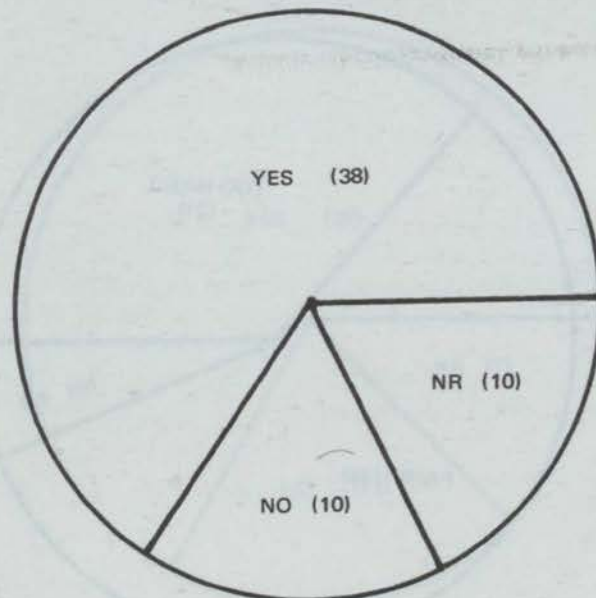
5. Do you feel she had mastery of her subject matter?



6. Did you consider her grading: (a) too hard (b) too easy (c) fair



7. Did she have control of the classroom situation?



8. Do you feel she had an empathy with the students?

CONCLUSION

On the basis of the questionnaire passed out to the 45 students used in the study, a total possible score of 43 was the maximum that could be achieved on the basis of numerical value assigned to each question of the survey. The scores of the students used in the study revealed that 30 students scored from 10 to 24 which indicates that the majority of the students experienced at least a moderate change in preconceived notions after actual experience in student teaching. 33 students scored in the range from 0 to 21. With a midpoint of the total possible score being 22, this indicates that the majority of the students' preconceived notions were relatively valid.

Regarding the graph entitled "Degree of Change in Preconceived Notions About Student Teaching" which portrays the results in percentages, 3 students had a 6 percent change in notions, 7 had a 17 percent change in notions, 10 had a 29 percent change in notions, 9 had a 41 percent change in notions, 11 had a 50 percent change in notions, and 5 students had a 64 percent change in notions. Thus, 29 students fell below the 50 percent mark.

The mode is 23 percent or 10, the median is 35 percent or 15, and the mean is 36 percent or 15.5. Thus, the majority of the students fall below the 40 percent mark indicating that the majority of the preconceived notions were relatively valid.

An interesting phenomenon is portrayed in the graph entitled "Percent of Student Teachers Who Changed Their Preconceived Notions on Specific Questions." Question number eight – Did you fear the pressure of your cooperating teacher as to material to be presented, lesson plans, method of presentation, etc.? – showed the greatest percent of change in preconceived notions. 65 percent of the students in the study stated that they had a change in preconceived notions they possessed on this question. This factor points out to educators the need to obtain and take corrective action prior to student teaching on any fears the prospective student might have.

The statistics of this study show that preconceived notions do exist. Educators should be aware of the condition that the notions exist. Also

educators should start early enough with a prospective student teacher to learn about any negative notions that the future student teacher might have. When the problem is no longer latent, then and only then can corrective action be taken. If it is ascertained early enough, the task of a cure is greatly enhanced. One will readily say that to carry out such an assignment will require close personal contacts with each student teacher which is not possible with the number of persons to be trained today. Yet, one can only conclude by saying that teaching is a profession which is paramount in shaping the lives of the decision makers of the future. It is thus, very important that the future teacher be properly trained.

¹ Merrill, Edward C. Jr., *Professional Student Teaching Programs*, (Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1967), p. 28.

BATCHELDER, HOWARD T., et al. *Student Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

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Black Americans on Stamps of the World

By Robert Obojski

In the *Faculty Journal* for 1971-72, we discussed those world postage stamps portraying Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., civil rights leader and Nobel Peace Prize winner for 1964. During the past year we've continued looking for new stamps portraying Dr. King—there have been many—and in this search we've found that nations throughout the world have philatelically portrayed other famous black Americans, both past and present.

Louis Armstrong, one of the founders of modern jazz and certainly one of the outstanding personalities in the entire history of show business, was honored on the stamps of several countries after his death on July 6, 1971, two days beyond his seventy-first birthday. Among the countries are the Chad, Mali, Niger and Senegal Republics.

Duke Ellington, Errol Garner, Nat "King" Cole, and Sidney Bechet are other prominent American musicians who have been philatelically portrayed various countries of the world in recent years. Duke Ellington, who appears on the stamps of both the Chad and Togo Republics, unquestionably ranks as one of the most versatile of all modern musicians. A warm witty and urbane gentleman, the Duke organized the first jazz band in 1924, and he has been in the business ever since. George T. Simon commented in his excellent book *The Big Bands* (New York: The Macmillan Co., revised edition, 1971):

"Ellington has often credited his sidemen with the success of his band. But those who knew Duke and his music best—and this includes those very sidemen—will invariably tell you that what has set the Ellington's apart from, and almost always above other bands, is just one thing—the brilliant conductor—composer—arranger—pianist—bon vivant and leader of men, Duke Ellington himself."

Willie Mays and Roy Campanella, two of the greatest National League baseball players during the postwar era, are shown on a Ras al Khaima set issued in 1971 as a tribute to "Baseball Friendship" between the United States and Japan. Ras al Khaima is one of the seven Arab Trucial States on the Persian Gulf.

We also expect countries around the world, including the United States, to issue stamps soon honoring Ralph Bunche, the late Under-Secretary General of the United Nations. Dr. Bunche is best-remembered for having won the 1950 Nobel Peace Prize for almost single-handedly negotiating an end to the Arab-Israeli War of 1948-49. Dr. Bunche also organized and supervised the United Nations Emergency Forces which eased tensions during the Suez and Congo crises of 1956 and 1960.

If Ralph Bunche is portrayed on a U.S. stamp, he will join four other black Americans who have been so honored in the past: Booker T. Washington (1940, "Famous Americans", 10¢ issue); Dr. George Washington Carver (1948 "Famous Americans", 3¢); Frederick Douglas (1965-68, "Prominent Americans", 25¢); and W.C. Handy (1969 "Father of the Blues," 6¢).



Martin Luther King is portrayed on a recent multicolored issue of St. Vincent. (St. Vincent, an English Colony in the Windward Group, is one of the most scenic islands in the Caribbean.) By mid-1972, nearly forty nations of the world had portrayed Dr. King on their stamps.



Nat "King" Cole, Errol Garner and Louis Armstrong are featured on the Mali Republic's 130, 150, and 270 francs set of three issued in 1971. Nat Cole, one of the smoothest singers of the 1940's and 1950's, saw his recordings sell into the tens of millions. Errol Garner, born in Pittsburgh in 1923, is still at the peak of his career as one of the finest pianists of the modern era.



The Niger and Senegal Republics issued these stamps in late 1971 portraying Louis "Satchmo" Armstrong with his trumpet. Armstrong, who had no peer as a trumpeter, became almost as famous for his singing as he did for his instrumental work. (Note Armstrong's ever-present white handkerchief on the 150-franc Niger stamp).



Sidney Bechet, Duke Ellington and Louis Armstrong are seen on this set of three stamps honoring "Great Musicians of North America" issued by the Chad Republic in 1971. Bechet (1897-1959), a native of New Orleans, played saxophone with Duke Ellington's band in the 1920's and went on to become one of the world's really great jazz soloists. He spent a great part of his career in Europe, becoming extremely popular in France during the 1940's. During this period, his popularity as an entertainer and personality ranked almost on a par with that of Maurice Chevalier.

Current Research and Studies

Department of AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES*

THE EVALUATION OF LIVESTOCK FEEDING AND FEED PRODUCTION SYSTEMS IN DELAWARE

Investigators: Edward R. Jones, Associate Professor Agriculture and Natural Resources, (B.S., Ohio State University; M.S. and Ph.D, Pennsylvania State University), Kenneth W. Bell, Instructor of Agriculture and Natural Resources, (B.S. and M.S., Tennessee State University), and Richard Fowler, Assistant Professor, Animal Science Department, University of Delaware, (B.S., Pennsylvania State University; M.S. and Ph.D., University of Maryland).

Support: Cooperative State Research Service (United States Department of Agriculture).

Cooperation: University of Delaware.

This is a program consisting of several supporting projects. The justification of this program is:

New sources of income for rural Delaware must be found; this is especially important since poultry production has decreased. A grain deficit state could become a grain surplus state if the poultry industry continues to decline and new markets for feed grains are not found.

Research dealing with livestock that could utilize feed grains is therefore important. Programs need to be developed that will afford both small and large farmers the opportunity to utilize feed grains produced in Delaware.

Delaware dairy farms could provide a source of dairy steers for feedlot operations, but suitable rations must be determined for the dairy type animal when fed for meat production.

There is a need to investigate livestock feeding systems that will supplement current farm enterprises by offering a better market for crops, a low capital investment for buildings and equipment, and more complete utilization of labor. Additional information is needed regarding agronomic and animal husbandry practices that complement each other. The development of practices useful for small producers is especially needed.



Duke Ellington, who is portrayed on these 15 and 30 franc stamps issued by the Togo Republic in 1967 to mark the 20th anniversary of UNESCO (United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization), is still very active as a musician at the age of 73. Ellington, a great pianist, is shown here with a saxophone, trumpet and drums. The Duke is in good company on these Togo stamps for Bach, Beethoven and Debussy are honored in the same UNESCO set!



Willie Mays and Roy Campanella are seen on these 70 and 80 dirhams Ras al Khaima stamps issued in 1971 as a tribute to "Baseball Friendship" between the United States and Japan. (Also pictured are Futashi Nakonishi and Katsuya Nomura, two of Japan's most noted ballplayers.) Mays, who begins his 21st year in the major leagues in 1972, has hit 646 home runs (a figure second only to Babe Ruth's) and has amassed nearly 3,200 base hits. Campanella, heavy hitting catcher for the Brooklyn Dodgers from 1948 through 1957, is now a member of baseball's Hall of Fame.

Postage stamps, courtesy Gimbels Stamp Department, New York City.

THE RESPONSE OF DAIRY STEERS TO VARIOUS ENERGY LEVELS

Investigators: Edward R. Jones, Kenneth W. Bell, and Richard Fowler.

Support: Cooperative State Reserach Service (United States Department of Agriculture).

Cooperation: University of Delawaare.

Objectives:

1. To determine the growth response of dairy steers to various energy levels.
2. To relate carass merit to various energy levels.
3. To determine cost of gain for each ration.
4. To predict body composition by use of Reid's equation (1955).

AN EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF VARIOUS COAGULANTS IN CLEARING TURBID POND WATER AND THE FIELD APPLICATION OF THE MOST PROMISING CLEARING AGENT

Investigators: Ralph Pisapia, student majoring in biology and natural resources, (B.S., Delaware State College, 1972), and Anthony Bodola, Professor Agriculture and Natural Resources, (B.S., Fairmont State College; M.S. University of West Virginia; Ph.D., Ohio State University).

Support: Green Giant Company.

Objectives:

1. To determine for each coagulant to optimum dosage to clear turbid pond water within certain time limits.
2. To find an inexpensive, non-toxic substance which can be easily applied and is relatively rapid in clearing pond waters.

*This report was prepared under the direction of Professor Ulysses S. Washington, Jr.

CURRENT RESEARCH REPORTED PREVIOUSLY*

EVALUATION OF WILD SHRUBS FOR POSSIBLE USE IN HABITAT MANAGEMENT FOR SUBURBAN SONGBIRDS. John T. Howell and Norman H. Dill.

THE INFLUENCE OF HARVEST MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS ON THE YIELDS OF SEVERAL ALFALFA (MEDICAGO SATIVA, L.) VARIETIES. Edward R. Jones.

THE RESPONSE OF SOYBEAN VARIETIES TO NITROGEN FERTILIZATION. Kenneth W. Bell, Edward R. Jones and Ulysses S. Washington, Jr.

THE YIELD AND GROWTH OF SOYBEANS AS AFFECTED BY MODIFICATIONS IN THE SOIL PROFILE. Ulysses S. Washington, Jr., W. Richard Wynder, and Frederick R. Jones.

EFFECTS OF THE PERIODIC CICADA ON FOREST COMMUNITIES. Norman H. Dill and Eric L. Pennell

(FOOTNOTE)

*Faculty Journal, Delaware State College 2: 52-57 (1971) (These projects have all been continued into 1972).

CURRENT RESEARCH AND STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF BIOLOGY

Evaluation of the procedure used in measuring bacterial titers in urine samples by the luciferase assay for ATP.

Investigator: Valerie N. Bush, Instructor of Biology Support: National Aeronautics and Space Administration (Goddard Space Flight Center)

Abstract of Current Research:

A close correlation exists between bacterial titers as determined by the luciferase assay for ATP and the pour plate technique when bacteria are in pure culture. Lack of correlation between the two methods occurs when determining bacterial titers in urine samples. This current research is concerned with the evaluation of some of the procedures used in the measurement of bacterial titers by the luciferase assay for ATP.

Triton X-100 is used to disrupt mammalian cells thereby releasing their ATP before measurement of baceterial ATP occurs. The effectiveness of this agent in disrupting all mammalian cells and in not disrupting bacterial cells will be investigated. Pathogenic yeast cells may be present in urine samples. This current research is investigating whether the ATP present in these cells is being released with mammalian ATP or with bacterial ATP. An examination of the effect of metabolites produced by urinary pathogens on the luciferase assay for ATP is also proposed.

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

The following papers were presented at the 7th Middle Atlantic Regional Meeting of the American Chemical Society, February 14, 1972 at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

(1) USE OF POTASSIUM DIHYDRO-BIS-(1-PYRAZOLYL) BORATE AS A CHELATING AGENT FOR DETERMINING THE CONCENTRATION OF DIVALENT TRANSITION METALS.

Dr. Donald R. Wilkinson & Roland A. Waters
Chemistry Department

The chelating agent, potassium dihydro-bis-(1-pyrazolyl)borate offers a method for determining the concentration of divalent transition metals in dilute solutions by atomic absorption spectroscopy. The chelating agent was synthesized using pyrazole and potassium borohydride as starting materials. The purified product was used to complex cobalt (II), nickel (II), and zinc (II) ions, in an ammonia-ammonium ion buffer solution, using methylene chloride as the solvent. The absorbance and concentration of the metal ion in a sample of each solution were measured by the use of an atomic absorption spectrophotometer. Approximately 0.1 M aqueous solutions of cobalt (II), nickel (II), and zinc (II) ions were prepared and standardized by direct titration with EDTA. The absorbance of each metal ion solution was measured by spectrophotometric methods at four different concentrations. A comparison was made of the data obtained by plotting the logarithm of the concentration of the respective metal ions versus the absorbance.

(2) DETERMINATION OF THE BIOLOGICAL HALF-LIFE OF BENZOCAINE IN THE BLOOD OF YOUNG ADULT LABORATORY RATS.

Dr. Donald R. Wilkinson & Barbara E. Williams
Chemistry Department

A study of the biological half-life of benzocaine in the blood of young adult laboratory rats was made by treating a number of the animals with the test compound at different dosage levels and observing the results at varied

intervals of time after treatment. The test compound was synthesized using ethyl alcohol and p-amino-benzoic acid as starting materials.

(3) ISOLATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF ORGANICS IN MUD SAMPLES.

Dr. Donald R. Wilkinson & Gerald E. Jordan
Chemistry Department

The major organic compounds, including pesticides, in mud samples collected from the Delaware River were isolated and identified by employing chromatographic and spectroscopic methods. The organic components were extracted from the samples in a Soxhlet extractor using a 59:41 mixture of acetone and n-hexane. After condensing the extracts, in a Kuderna evaporator, the organics were separated by gas chromatography and thin-layer chromatography. The organic components were identified by the aid of an infrared spectrophotometer and a gas chromatograph using thermal conductivity, flame ionization, and electron capture detectors. The results show that a number of organics contaminate the mud layer of the Delaware River and contribute to water pollution.

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