

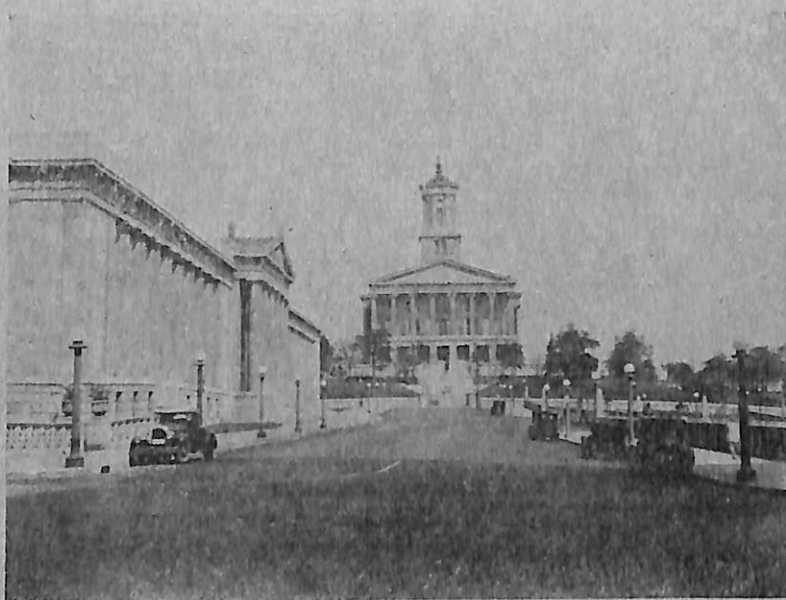
The Broadcaster

Official Journal of the Tennessee State Association of Teachers in Colored Schools

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No. 5



TENNESSEE EDUCATIONAL HEADQUARTERS

Ninth Annual Session, July, 13-15 1931, A. and J. State College,
Nashville

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THE BROADCASTER

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INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES PRIOR TO 1860

By James A. Atkins, Graduate Student University of Chicago and member of faculty at A. and I. State College

Integrity

By Henry Allen Laine

I have regard of the highest, for a man, any man,	For he cannot change his features, and he cannot change his skin,
If he's honest, and does what he says,	The honest man, who does what he says,
If he stands for truth, and honor, and is doing what he can,	For his skin is just the color, of the house he's living in,
To so live, each day, that what he says,	The honest man, who does, what he says.
Is rated at par value, stamps him honorable, and true,	If his character's not faulty, if he's kind, and just, and true,
With a lofty sense of honor, as he strives each day anew,	If his word's his bond, held sacred, and he stands upon it, too,
To do the thing whatever, he promises to do,	Stand aside, thou, who opposes, for the man is coming thru,
The honest man, who does, what he says.	The honest man, who does, what he says.

His face may be as dusky as the shadows of the Hades,	I feel like taking off my hat, when that man passes by,
The honest man, who does, what he says,	The honest man, who does, what he says,
And his features may be homely, classed among the common grades,	With his honest face, determined, and with fire in his eye,
The honest man, who does what he says,	The honest man, who does, what he says.
Be he Nordic fair, or Negro, if his aims in life are right,	But the fire bodes no evil, nothing low, or mean, or base,
In esteem, the world will hold him, if his heart within, is white.	Just the man's enthusiasm, shining in his eyes. His race
Armed with truth, for life's a battle, he will win in the fight	Matters not; but what a man is, Nature stamps upon his face,
The honest man, who does what he says.	Whether true, and will do, what he says.

I. Earliest Old World Antecedents of Industrial Education in America

Industrial education in the United States is just as old as European civilization here. It has not always been a school subject in this country, nor has it always borne the same label, but it has been here nevertheless. It has shared in the long historical evolution of general education. Much of its theory and practice has come from distant lands and ages. And, though it has passed through a modified form of the European system of class education, it is, in the main, American; for it has grown out of the social, economic and industrial needs of the American people.

To the ancient Hebrew Talmud may, perhaps, be traced one of the oldest and most valued indorsements of industrial education. The following statements from the Law reveal very clearly the religious motive behind the manual training of the Jews. "As it is your duty to teach your son the Law, teach him a trade." "Great is the dignity of labor; it honors man." "It is well to add a trade to your studies; you will then be free from sin." 1.

From the days of Socrates until the final collapse of their city-states, the Greek attitude toward manual training was one of scorn. Since the menial labor in Greece was done by slaves, the free citizen held the craftsman in utmost contempt. "Even the artists who worked for pay and whose work depended on handicrafts were put in the same class with shoemakers, bakers, and smith." 2. But among their skilled workers themselves all training was purely vocational, and their apprenticeship practices were the same as those of the ancient Hebrews, Babylonians, and Egyptians, i. e., an apprentice was virtually a son.

Labor became so highly specialized among these craftsmen that a system which could have served as model for our modern factory

systems was developed. Xenophon (350-475 B. C.) reports: "In the great cities, because there are numbers that want each particular thing one art suffices for the maintenance of each individual;....one man makes shoes for men, another for women; sometimes... one gets a maintenance by merely stitching shoes, another by cutting out uppers...."—3. Needless to say, this system resulted in an increase in the slave population.

Whether the attitude of the free citizens of the ancient Greek cities toward industrial training was transmitted to western civilization through the instrumentality of the classical curriculum is an open question. Before the French Revolution Rousseau is said to have warned the young aristocrats of France that a revolution was approaching and that those who had a trade would be taken care of. The plantation owners in our own Southland seem to have held the handicrafts in scorn until after the Civil War.

St. Benedict, founder of the Roman Catholic order "The Benedictines," in emulation of the example of Jesus Christ, the carpenter of Nazareth, made manual labor one of the cardinal principles of his order. "In order to banish indolence, which he called the enemy of the soul, he regulated minutely. The employment of every hour of the day according to the seasons, and ordained that, after having celebrated the praises of God seven times a day, seven hours a day should be given to manual labor and two hours to reading."—4. The daily routine of the early Spanish schools for the Indians show traces of St. Benedict's formula.

II. The Beginnings in Colonial America

The first of these schools were the Franciscan Mission schools of New Mexico. As early as 1630 there were "over 60,000 Christian natives in 90 pueblos, grouped in 25 missions, many of these missions having schools." The reports of these schools remain unverified as the records of them "were destroyed in

1. Charles Alpheus Bennett, "The History of Manual and Industrial Training up to 1870," pp. 14-15, Manual Arts Press, Peoria, Illinois, 1927.

2. *Ibid*, p. 20.

3. L. F. Anderson, "Some Facts Regarding Vocational Training Among the Ancient Greeks and Romans," School Review. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1912.

4. Bennett, *op. cit.*

the rebellion of 1680." It is supposed that "up to nine years of age, the children were taught reading, writing, the catechism, singing, and playing on musical instruments. From nine years of age on, the work of the pupils was almost wholly industrial. The common arts and trades of the civilized world formed the curriculum—tailoring, shoemaking, blacksmithing, brick making....The girls were taught to spin."—5. The first teachers were the padres. Later the most skilful of their proteges became instructors in the manual arts. The objectives of industrial training in these industrial schools were religious, disciplinary and to a minor extent sociological. Turning now to a study of industrial training in the colonies on the Atlantic seaboard, we shall observe an enlargement of the aims and objectives of industrial training.

Of all the American colonists, the Puritans of New England possessed the highest degree of social unity. They were of the same race, the same nationality, and, in the main, the same industrial class. Moreover, they spoke the same language, held the same political and religious beliefs, and were motivated by the same purpose in coming to America, i. e., to escape religious intolerance and persecution in England. Placed in an inhospitable physical environment with a harsh climate and stony soil to subdue, they responded with a degree of thrift and industry not shown by any other colonists. These factors early determined that New England should become an industrial section "and it is therefore to the apprenticeship practices of the New England colonies that we must look for the colonial background of American industrial education."—6. On the other hand, social diffusion—differences in nationality, class, political and religious beliefs, fundamental motive—added to their favorable environment for agriculture caused the southern, and to a large extent, the middle colonies to specialize in agriculture. These colonies, then, furnished a ready market for articles made in New England and thus stimulated the handicrafts there and made necessary a continuous supply of trained craftsmen.

The English people in 1562 passed an act known as the Statute of Artificers which af-

fects three important changes: (1) made apprenticeship national, (2) revived and remodeled the dying guilds, (3) regulated trade nationally rather than locally. The Statute of Artificers did not retard the "Commercial Revolution" as it was supposed to do, so the Poor Law was passed in 1601. By it church wardens and overseers were empowered to apprentice pauper children.

The New England colonists adapted the English apprenticeship law, broadened its scope, and made it "the most fundamental educational institution of the period."—7. To them it became a method of furnishing (1) common education, which was predominantly religious—as the function of the common school was to teach the children to be able to read the Scriptures, and other profitable Books printed in the English Tongue and the Knowledge of the capital laws, (2) preventing pauperism, (3) training mechanics. "Colonial indentures, while differing very little from earlier English models, indicate a more democratic spirit, and court records seem to indicate a much more equitable and thorough enforcement of their terms than appears in English practice. The oversight of the colonial children was wholly a responsibility of the colonial and town governments and apprenticeships seems to have been an important item in the work of courts and legislatures. Out of the requirements for the education of apprentices grew the American evening school which played an important part in colonial education."—8.

III. Seventeenth Century Theories of Industrial Education

While the Puritans of New England were continuing the best features of English apprenticeship as a practical necessity, European philosophers were advancing theories and making proposals for transferring manual training from the workshop (the home of the master) to the school. During this period of reform in educational thought, "two of the fundamental ideas upon which modern instruction in the manual arts appeared. The first of these is that sense impressions are the basis of thought, and consequently of knowledge. The second is the related idea of learning by doing."—9.

7. Robt. Francis Seybolt, *Apprenticeship and Apprenticeship Education in New England and New York*, p. 22, Col-
8. Mays, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

The trend of educational thought in the period is shown in the works of such thinkers as "Comenius, Becher, Morhof, Rabelais, Descartes, Weigel, Leibnitz and others on the continent; Locke, Hartlib, Petty, Cowley, and Dury in England, and in the educational projects of Hoar, Budd, and Rush in America."—11.

One of the first of these educational philosophers and reformers to propose to include industrial education in the curricula of the schools was John Amos Comenius. In his chief work, "Great Didactic, he includes industrial training as a subject in the programs of three of the four schools which constitute his system."—12. Children of pre-school age, he suggests, "will receive a training in mechanics if they are permitted or are actually taught to employ their hands continually....to move something from one place to another, to arrange something, to construct something, to pull something to pieces....the very things children of this age love to do."—13.

In another section of his work Comenius stated that pupils of the vernacular or elementary school should engage in manual and industrial work to "learn the most important principles of the mechanic arts, both that they may not be too ignorant of what goes on in the world about them, and that any special inclination towards things of this kind may assert itself with greater ease later on."—14. Thus he foreshadowed the twentieth century theory that manual training in the elementary school has general and prevocational value.

In his curriculum for the Latin School Comenius included "a part of medicine, of agriculture, and of other mechanical arts" under the head of physics."—15.

In 1641 Samuel Hartlib, a rich philanthropist interested in social and educational reforms, invited Comenius to England to direct the affairs of an institution which Hartlib had planned to operate along the lines suggested by Comenius' writings.

John Dury, a leader in the seventeenth century movement for church unity in England, proposed a curriculum providing for

technical training for the aristocracy, and industrial training for the young men of the working classes.

Leibnitz (1644-1716), German rationalistic philosopher, in his "Plan for the Education of a Prince" suggested "the establishment of trade schools for that fairly large class of boys who are not fitted by nature for those intellectual pursuits to which the regular schools devoted exclusive attention."—16.

John Locke (1632-1704), English rationalist, was one of the first advocates of handicraft training for the improvement of upper-class education. Locke recommended that the English gentleman be trained in gardening and woodworking chiefly for recreational purposes, and that the sons of the middle class receive industrial training for vocational purposes.

In 1672 President Hoar of Harvard after a long stay in England wrote his friend Boyle that he was planning for his students "a large, well-sheltered garden for planting" and "an Ergasterium for mechanic fancies."—17. This quotation shows that the influence of English and continental educational philosophers was already at work in America.

Another striking example of this influence is to be found in the pamphlet "Good Order Established in Pennsylvania and New Jersey in America" written by Thomas Budd, an American Quaker in 1685. This plan which provided for schools in all the cities and towns included in its curriculum both the useful arts and sciences and the handicrafts. The boys were to spend two hours in the morning at the academic subjects: "reading, writing, and bookkeeping, etc., and the other two hours at work in some trade or mystery such as the making of mathematical instruments, joynery, turnery, the making of clocks and watches, shoe-making, etc."—18. After two hours for dinner and recreation they were to work at their trade in the afternoon. The girls, who had the same schedule as the boys, were to be taught knitting of gloves and stockings, needlework, the making of straw hats, etc.

9. Bennett, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

11. Lewis F. Anderson, *History of Manual and Industrial School Education*, p. 12, D. Appleton and Co., N. Y., 1926.

12. *Ibid.*, p. 13.

13. *Ibid.*, pp. 13, 14. Quoted from J. A. Comenius, *The Great Didactic* (London 1896), ch. 28, sec. 12.

14. *Ibid.*, ch. 29, sections 6, 7. Quoted by Anderson, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

15. *Ibid.*, ch. 30, sec. 2 (VIII). Quoted by Anderson, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

16. Anderson, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

17. *Ibid.*, p. 28. Quoted from Robert Boyle's Works, Vol. VI, 653.

5. J. A. Burns, *The Catholic School System in the States*, p. 42, Benziger Bros., N. Y., 1906.
6. Arthur B. Mays, *The Problem of Industrial Education*, p. 46, The Century Co., N. Y., 1927.

IV. Industrial Education in American Schools in the Eighteenth Century

President Hoar's plan and John Budd's scheme for the establishment of public schools were merely side currents of seventeenth century European educational theory. The first American school to carry an industrial program was a public school established (1754-1755) in a semi-communist colony on the Lehigh River about 50 miles north of Philadelphia, Penna. A description of the colony written in 1778 says "...The children remained with their parents until about twelve years of age and were sent to a public school where they were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, they learned languages and other parts of literature, according to their abilities, and the business they are designed for. Here likewise they were instructed in the elements of religion....At twelve the boys were sent to live at the house of the single men where their lives were regulated by strict discipline....The elder single men were nearly all artisans and worked at their trades, and the boys of twelve and upward were instructed in the particular trades or arts they were intended to pursue." In a similar way the single women lived together and instructed the girls in household economy—19. While this school did not apply to any great extent seventeenth century educational theory, it did anticipate the modern method of combining school instruction and industrial training.

On April 30, 1778, the famous old Andover (Mass.) Academy, "a public free school established for the purpose of instructing youth... but more especially to learn them the Great End and Real Business of Living"—20, was opened. In addition to giving instruction in the subjects of the usual classical and English curricula of the eighteenth century academy, the master was supposed "to encourage scholars to perform some manual labor, such as gardening, or the like; so far as is consistent with cleanliness and the inclination of their parents."—21. Perhaps the purpose of this clause was to encourage the training of the whole man, and perhaps it was a concession to John Locke's philosophy, then very popular, that industrial training is recreational for a gentleman.

Another of the early experiments in industrial education was the one at Cokesbury College, Abingdon, Maryland. Says Steiner (U. S. Education Bulletin 2, 1894), "For eight years beginning in 1787 a type of gardening and carpentry work was done at Cokesbury College in Maryland which seems to have been the prototype of the work done under the impulse of the Manual Labor Movement which began in America forty years later."—22. This college near Baltimore was the first established by the Methodists in America. "In explanation of this manual work, the prospectus sent out by the college in 1785 states 'we prohibit play in the strongest terms....The employments, therefore, which we have chosen for the recreation of the students such as are of greatest public utility'."—23.

Bennett in his original sources includes a letter written by Dr. Benjamin Rush, celebrated Philadelphia physician, in the *Columbian Magazine*, a Philadelphia publication, in 1787. This article sets forth in detail a plan for educating superior farmers and farmers' wives. Ten years after this letter was written, in 1797, Dr. John de la Howe, of Abbeville, South Carolina left a will providing "for the endowment of 'an agricultural or farm school in conformity, as near as can be to a plan proposed in *The Columbian Magazine* for the month of April 1787', for educating, lodging, feeding and uniformly clothing twelve poor boys and twelve poor girls (all preferably orphans) whose parents have resided in Abbeville County not less than six years."—25. Out of Dr. de la Howe's provision has grown the De la Howe State School of South Carolina, one of the oldest agricultural institutions in the United States.

V. Nineteenth Century Movements in Industrial Education

With the coming of the new century came fresh drafts of European educational philosophy. Came doctrines of Rousseau, emphasizing the psychological value of manual education, and the theories of Pestalozzi, who had taught paupers to live like men, stressing "learning by doing"; but the idea which was

(Continued in July issue)

18. Anderson, *op. cit.*, pp. 28, 29.
19. Samuel Hueston, "New York Monthly" 1849, V. XXXIV, 122. Quoted by Bennett, *op. cit.*, p. 90.
20. Elmer Elsworth Brown, *The Making of*

Our Middle Schools, p. 20. Longmans, Green, & Co., N. Y., 1902.
21. *Ibid.*, p. 193.
22. Bennett, *op. cit.*, p. 92.
23. *Ibid.*, p. 92.

PRESENT TRENDS IN EDUCATION

By T. R. Davis, Professor of sociology and Director of rural life studies, A. and I. State College, delivered before the Middle Tennessee Teachers Association, April 3, 1931.

While this subject has been changed from that which was assigned Dean George W. Gore, Jr., in whose stead I now speak, yet my subject might not be quite so large as the one referred to recently by a speaker from our chapel rostrum. He said he heard of a man who spoke to an audience on the subject, "The Universe and Its Contents." Instead of "Pertinent Trends in Public Education" may we consider, very briefly and in a very general way, the subject, "Present Trends in Education."

When we think historically over the organization and purpose of education in our country, invariably we receive the impression that in these features not so much change has been made. From the beginning of college and university training in America, we have stressed the fulfillment of so many courses—credits—hours requirements for completion of divisions of our educational system. Those of us who went through college strove mainly to secure the prescribed number of credits. —And we truly went through college, too, at that rate. The time has come, however, when our educational institutions are feeling that something else more fundamental than credits should be stressed and made to use up our major endeavor. While the work of a number of institutions exhibit this trend, the most recent and conspicuous effort in this direction is the new plan of the University of Chicago. In addition to other significant changes, the plan requires no certain number of years, credits or courses for graduation from one of the departments; the ability of the student will be the determining factor. In this effort, the University has "dared to tear away from custom and standardization" in interest of more promising organization and worthwhile purpose.

This trend toward something more efficient in method and more fundamental in objective may be observed in several colleges for Negroes. Tennessee A. and I. State College, for instance, under the guidance of President W. J. Hale, is in the process of curriculum-reconstruction and equipment, teacher and building additions which, very likely,

will present something unique in the education of the Negro race.

In the next few years, therefore, we may expect American education, in the college, university, elementary school or high school, to break away from traditional form, organization and purpose more in the interest of the student than of credits and hours.

Very evident is it that, at present, there is taking place in an unprecedented manner a re-evaluation of the so-called liberal education and practical education. On every hand, the liberal arts college is taken to task. Professor Joseph K. Hart of Vanderbilt University, one of the outstanding educators of America, leads in the philippics against the liberal arts college. The pronounced trend is that education should serve more the needs of the people; using Dr. J. H. Dillard's stock proper name, Why shouldn't George be able to do something definite by way of making a life or a living after he has been educated?

In view of this insistent trend, the present emphasis on practical education seems to indicate a probable swing to this extreme. The resultant, safer and more discriminating trend, however, is toward guidance both educational and vocational in order that the student might be "helped to help himself" according to his or her tendencies, capacities, interests and needs. Today, then, as we look around in our educational system, from the elementary school to the college, we see fairly universal practice in the use of directors and counsellors of guidance with more or less elaborate equipment and technique by way of assisting in a more real and less aimless education.

The standardization movement, also, constitutes a much-felt trend in our education today. It is thought by many that we are having an over-dose of standardization. Dr. Thomas Alexander of Columbia University, while working recently relative to the new plan with the faculty of Tennessee A. and I. State College, said that often colleges which are doing genuinely effective work are the colleges which are far out of the way, not

given very much attention and not disturbed and distracted by standardization. He intimated that that is the reason a goodly number of Negro colleges do exceedingly effective work—because they are not pestered and prevented in doing their work by being standardized. And yet, conservative and objective appraisal of the standardization movement reveals, in the main, that it is in the right direction.

This movement of standardization gives impetus to several subsidiary tendencies. Emphasis, now as never before, is placed upon the preparation of teachers. State, county and city systems of education are rigidly demanding higher degrees, certificates and preparation on part of the teachers. And why should this not be, when the teacher is engaged in the most delicate, essential and influential work in the world? It may well be observed that in our quest for this higher preparation, a goodly number of us are striving so rigorously and ruthlessly for the certificates and the degrees that we more often miss the preparation. All too often, the M. A. or the Ph. D. is quite unfit for teaching anything definite; for as the proverbial phrase goes, he has been "learning more and more about less and less." Once, I saw a Ph. D. thesis subject which ran like this: "The Giant Nerve of the Earthworm." Now who could that Ph. D. teach and who would he have to teach? Nevertheless, we all know very well that we can get along better with the degrees than without them.

Experience, also, is not lost sight of in this increased emphasis upon preparation. Consequently, as a general rule, the teacher-training school now maintains the practice school for its students. Peabody, for example, has its demonstration school, and one of the prominent units of the Tennessee A. and I. new plan will be the new teacher-training practice school. For some time, attention has been called to the fact that our greatest educational shortcoming has been our lack of experienced and prepared teachers in the elementary school, but now it is pointed out that the weakest feature of our entire educational effort is the wide-spread and complacent inefficiency of our teachers in the college. We practically have no institutions and scarcely any courses anywhere for the training of college teachers. When we consider this condition, coupled with our knowledge

of the immense amount of college teaching done in America, we have ample occasion for alarm. In the elementary school, high school and college, too extensive has been our practice of employment of young, inexperienced teachers. Then, sometimes, our school systems hold on too long to the over-aged ones of us. The best trend in this connection is toward having a school faculty, ever revitalized with youth, held steady with age and piloted by preparation.

In concluding this statement on this epochal trend of standardization, which has given impetus to these several constituent trends in American education today, attention may justly be called to the influence of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. Not only, is the Association just now re-emphasizing improvement of education throughout the South, but also, including for the first time in its eventful history consideration of education for Negroes. A movement, on part of the Association, is now on classifying Negro colleges, and information is in circulation that the movement will yet include in its scope Negro high schools of the southern states. So, all education in the South may well expect, at most anytime, through the direct or indirect influence of this regional standardizing agency, surveys and improvements of one kind or another. In this connection, it is noteworthy that we have just had a survey of our own public school system of Nashville; it is significant to that Peabody College has made a survey, also, of the high school libraries of the South. These efforts certainly presage a better day for education of the people in this section.

Perhaps the most telling trend in education today is one whose proper treatment would certainly involve a discussion of greater length than the entire present effort. This trend concerns itself with the improvement of method and technique of teaching. The child or the student is fast becoming the center of educational interest and endeavor; activity on part of the child rather than on part of the teacher is stressed anew; we now teach the child or student rather than the lesson or subject; the problem child is fathomed and cared for; and individual ability is given more of a chance for development.

One additional tendency is pre-eminently worthy of note,—the tendency to using the

radio in education. For some years, now, we have been taking our physical education over the radio. Several states already make use of the radio as an integral part of their educational systems; and it is now ordinary information that universities broadcast courses of studies. In fact, the fullfledged radio university appears in the immediate future. Already, we transmit photographs successfully

by radio and soon the transmission of photographs, accompanied by sound, or television will be so perfected as to enter general use. The radio in education, therefore, holds imminent possibilities almost beyond our imagination.

These tendencies, in American education today, may well provoke thought and receive our consideration.

PREVISIONING AND ITS RELATION TO ACHIEVEMENT

By Clydie M. Bradshaw

One of the most outstanding demands made of one, before he makes an attempt to accomplish anything of real value, is that he has very thoroughly weighed the situation, pro and con, with all its assets and its hold backs, and, by doing so, has discovered what is required of him in order that he may make the most of the situation in which he is to place himself. This process is not only for his individual good but is beneficial to all concerned.

The same is true in the case of educators. In this respect, then, the English teacher is no exception to the rule, since English is fundamental to all other branches of learning, both literary and technical. If, before entering the teaching field, the prospective English teachers would stop long enough to consider the great responsibility that is to be undertaken, they would, no doubt, be fewer in number but more efficient and better prepared to perform the great tasks which confront them.

If one would only stop to think that the very first lesson a child learns when he enters school is rudimentary English, and that the subject is never dropped during his school career, one would have some conception of the importance of the subject, as such. It is, therefore necessary that the prospective teacher, before going into the field as an instructor, should go through a deliberate process of severe questioning and introspection to determine whether or not he understands how great is the task he is about to undertake, whether or not he is willing to pay the price of shouldering such a responsibility, and whether or not he has the ability to put the problem over in a wholehearted manner as it

should be done. The teacher should, however, assure himself that teaching has its advantages for him as well as it exacts certain sacrifices.

One of the first questions may be, "Why should English be in the curriculum?" If he fails to know the answer to this, it is quite obvious that he should never attempt to assume the role of English instructor. There is no logic in doing the things for which one cannot give reasons. The answer may be stated briefly, that real living, not mere existence, calls for a knowledge of one's "Mother tongue," which in this instance is English. The attainment of the vital necessities of life is dependent upon one's ability to speak or write. In order to communicate one's desires, and to be able to answer the demands of others effectively, one must know how to express himself agreeably, sincerely, interestingly, and convincingly to others. This intercommunication of thoughts, demands, and ideas require the application of the various uses of language through letters, talks, speeches, books, newspapers, journals, in the theaters and during other leisure time occupations.

The teacher of English should realize that he has in his power the means by which labor is dignified to a great degree, and by which leisure is made far more enjoyable. If, in looking ahead, the prospective teacher sees his situation from these angles, and feels himself capable of rendering such a great service, his task will not prove an irksome one, but a source of real pleasure to him and to those whom he will teach. This should at

(Continued on page 89)

Editorials

Education: A Challenge to Youth

Woodrow Wilson has well said that the college aims to stimulate in a number of men what would be stimulated in only a few men if left to nature and circumstance alone. In a lesser degree the same is true of secondary education. The opportunity to secure high school and collegiate training is a challenge to youth to expand and develop to his maximum. The effects of seizing and using this opportunity are, in most cases, beyond the wildest reaches of the imagination.

To the boy or girl just on the threshold of adolescence the siren call of industry is loud and to immature ears may sound sweet. But to mature experience such a call is mockery and a delusion. Industry, to say nothing of business and the professions, has no worthwhile rewards for youth untrained. The youth who dares enter without high school or college training is both foolhardy and desperate. The chances are a million to one against his success. The entire resources of the American nation are cast against him. The machinery of the educational system continually is raising for him the keenest type of competition.

The admonition "Go-to-college; Go-to-high school" is altruistic and benevolent. It comes from those who have gone through the mill, who have played the game and are in a position to know. It is not just some more idle advice from sophisticated age to youth. It is backed by statistics, proven by the lives of America's foremost citizens, and is the foundation of the civilization into which youth must enter and play its role.

The youth who does not go to high school cuts himself off from the main line of progress before he has left the yards of the home station. If he does not go to college, he allows himself to be side-tracked at the half-way mark. If he goes to college, he remains on the main line, the shortest distance between the start and the goal, and his chances of arriving depend solely upon the industry with which he applies himself to his task. Lost motion is minimized and the road is plainly marked.

Annually the first week in May Alpha Phi Alpha fraternity, servants of all, bids the American youth to follow the torch of knowledge to high school and through college, for "the philosopher, the saint, or the hero, the wise, the good, or the great man, very often lie hid or concealed in a plebian, which a proper education might have disinterred, and have brought to light."

A Parent's Creed

I believe in the American child and in his ability to work out a safe democracy for the future. I believe the home, the school, and the church share the responsibilities of developing his ability. I believe that my first duty is to my own child in my own home. I believe that my next duty is to other children in my community. I believe that my duty reaches to the children of my own state, my nation and my world. I believe that only through the working together of all patriotic people can better child conditions be brought about. I believe the parent teacher association makes possible a cooperation of all patriotic people. I believe that I can help it come.

—Martha Sprague Washington Journal of the N. E. A.

Is Alpha Phi Alpha trying to make college graduates of every boy and girl? We have heard this question asked. Alpha Phi Alpha insists that every boy and girl be equipped with as much knowledge and training as is possible in order that each may fit into the scheme of life with greatest usefulness.

The need for effective work to reduce illiteracy among the Colored people is very great and manifestly it can be accomplished chiefly through the equipment of members of the Colored race to do educational work among their own people.

WARREN G. HARDING.

Of the population of 10 years of age and over, the percentage of illiteracy shown by the census of 1920 was 5.9 (7.7 in 1910). Of this—

Native white, 2% were illiterate

The foreign born, 13.1% were illiterate

The Negro, 22.9% illiterate.

Previsioning and its Relation to Achievement

(Continued from page 87)

the same time awaken in him a keen realization of his responsibility to the pupil and his opportunity for real service to humanity.

There are so many avenues of approach to the presentation of English in its numerous and varied phases that the teacher must, essentially be wide awake, alert, and open minded for the reception of new ideas and methods in order to remain efficient.

It may be said that one of the first steps in previsioning is one of introspection, that is, in order to determine whether or not the teacher realizes his potentialities and his various abilities. To begin with, the teaching of English should take not only the aspect of a trade, but of a sport in which the teacher lays the foundations and rules for the game and remains close at hand to supervise it. This means there must be a suitable personality in the teachers, if the game is to be put over in an interesting, nonstereotyped manner. It is true that, considering the number of teachers in proportion to the number of students, there are as many various types of teachers as of pupils.

In observing the situation as it exists, the teacher will come to realize that there are three major factors in the learning process,—the teacher, the trained guiding force; the textbook, the mechanism; the pupil, the raw material to be developed into a finished product. The last named is the most important as it is he who is being trained for citizenship. It is necessary that the teacher be convinced of the pupils' ability. For this reason the instructor must of necessity be somewhat of a child—psychologist, in order that the emotions, imaginations, intelligence and creative ability of the child will not be underestimated. By application of personality here the teacher, in the first contacts and relationships with the class, will be able to "draw the pupil out," find out their various attitudes, and, by such discoveries, will be able to show to them the value of being well informed, intelligent, reading and thinking citizens. This is one of the real tests of a teacher's personality, and, in order to do this tactfully, long, intense thought is required. One can readily see the necessity for this. To become too

familiar with the pupil means that the respect due the teacher will be lacking, and it, thus, becomes the problem of the teacher to study and to devise the best means of personal contact with students, and, at the same time, hold their respect, and maintain predominance not of the domineering type. These conferences give an insight into what the pupils admire, what they intend, and what they see. Still another means of determining, or rather of discovering characteristics of pupils is by the reading of school publications, in which clear cut attitudes and responses are distinctly depicted. Very often this may be done previous to the beginning of the teacher's experience in that particular school. The person who is thoughtful enough to take advantage of this usually has a better understanding of the students, and is, therefore, more sympathetic and tolerant.

The responsibility for class spirit and class attitudes rests on the teacher. From this arises the necessity of previsioning so that barriers and partitions of traditions and beliefs may be broken down and replaced by new ideas. In looking ahead one finds that the process of learning is an adaptation of old material to the new child, and the addition of new material to an old structure.

We come now to some of the more definite facts that grow out of the previsioning process. The prospective teacher finds that he himself must have the ability to use good English, both in speaking and writing, and should seek to cultivate this by extensive reading of simple prose. He should be well read in English literature and English literary history. He likewise finds that there is a steady growth of materials which are very helpful if used to supplement the prescribed course of study. The field of English is too broad in its scope and embraces such a large number of subjects that one who wishes to qualify as a teacher must have a broad general knowledge, specific knowledge in some few phases, and should possess judgment sufficiently sound to.

The advantages of the open-minded teacher over one of the formal type may be observed by a comparison of such teachers of one's own personal acquaintance. A comparative study of the results of the various types is

often an aid in determining the kind of teacher one is to become.

By way of summary it may be said that, in order to achieve the best results from teaching, it is very essential that one look ahead. By so doing he will gain self knowledge, that is, knowledge of his own powers and limitations, how much he knows and how much he has to learn, his defects and virtues, and he will be more able to make the most of

his opportunities. At the same time he will become more resourceful; he will draw his illustrative matter and supplementary aids from a broader range and will make his subject of greater value to the minds which he is helping to mold; he will grasp more readily and adapt more easily the new theories of the teaching of his subject. For these reasons it may be said that previsioning has a very vital relationship to achievement.

THE INFLUENCE OF DRAMATIC CLUB

By Lucile M. Scott

The Dramatic Club is organized and officered by the students with faculty sponsors. The club should be controlled by the department of English and the sponsors should be members of the English department, and should have time allowed for dramatics as a part of their teaching schedule.

Membership is usually determined by oral testing. Membership is also limited to members of the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. No student should be allowed to join who is deficient in his class work.

It is often helpful to have degrees of membership. One excellent method is to give an award of some sort for dramatic service, comparable to a "letter" in athletics. A point system is sometimes useful. For example, having a major part in a performance, or being manager of some sort, might count two points, while a minor part might count one. An accumulation of a certain number of points, would give membership to a higher club. Those having this award, would make it obvious by having the right to wear a pin or an emblem of some sort. They may also have special voting privileges or the right to attend certain special meetings.

The organization includes a stage-manager, stage crew, electrician, business manager, and reporter. The objectives of this club are:

To encourage the dramatic instinct which many students have and give them an opportunity for self expression.

To promote appreciation of dramatic literature.

To study drama as a means of interpreting life.

To play for the pure joy of playing.

The word "dramatic" comes from a Greek

word meaning to act. Hence, whatever is dramatic refers in some sense to action. Action implies a motive or a cause, and a conscious result or effect. Dramatic action as usually understood refers to the interpretation of character by the manifestation of human feelings, motives and aims.

Action is the highest and most direct revelation of character, and dramatic action is the means adopted by which one human being interprets the character of another, or manifests the character imaginatively in some specific situation.

The term "dramatic" however is not merely applied to the expression of character, it applies also to the expression, ideas and feelings. The word "dramatic" is broader than the word "drama." Drama signifies a form of literature which deals with the dramatic, but anything is dramatic that reveals the relation of experience to thought or gives ideas, or events in such a way as to move or act as in nature.

So much for the word "dramatic." What is meant by "instinct?" Instinct has been called "unconscious reason." It refers to a spontaneous action of the mind; hence, dramatic instinct means the realization of ideas in living relations, and of motive and manifestations of character. It is innate in some form common to every nation and individual. It is the little child's first means of getting outside itself.

There are usually considered to be two elements in the dramatic instinct, imagination and sympathy. Imagination gives insight into another's point of view, creates situations, penetrates to the aim and motive spring of character, while sympathy enables us to identify ourselves with these.

The nature of the dramatic instinct will help us to appreciate dramatic literature. Take for example, the character of Shylock. A reader may analyze his character; he may decide upon his age, he may deliberately bend his back and assume an artificial throaty voice; but such conscious acts have nothing to do with dramatic instinct. True dramatic instinct penetrates to the heart of Shylock, sees his point of view, feels his hate, and realizes something of the results of ages of the persecution, of which Shylock is the outcome. There are of course changes of voice, of melody, of body, of walk, but there is no patch-work. The very texture of the muscles of the body are modulated; the personality of the speaker in short, has entered into an instinctive assimilation of the character.

According to Professor A. W. Ward possibly the highest English speaking authority on the subject of drama, "The art of acting is an indispensable adjunct of the Dramatic Club. Properly speaking, no drama is such until it is acted. By dramatic action, however, is not meant gesticulation. True expressive actions in nature are very subtle.

These objectives are gained through weekly meetings; the presentation of plays and stunts; the review of plays; and lessons in make-up, stage craft and the fundamentals of public entertainment. The Dramatic Clubs afford the student a suitable opportunity for the expression of any historic talent he may have. It helps to discover and develop that talent. The student learns to express himself clearly, vividly, adds many words to his vocabulary, enunciates more clearly, gains confidence and poise. It gives the student a fuller life by enabling to understand other lives through acting them. Mackaye says, "The development of the dramatic instinct does not tend to make actors but imaginative human beings."

The imagination is a creative faculty, whose subtle processes defy analysis, still it must have material with which to act. There must exist in the mind ample store of ideal forms and beautiful forms, as a basis of knowledge.

Such material imagination cannot create for itself. It must come from experience, from a sympathetic and careful observation of nature, art and science.

Nature is one source from which it may be drawn. Admiration and wonder is born

in each child. When wonder is lost, all teachableness, all receptivity, all hope and faith are lost. The first objects upon which the imagination is exercised is wondering admiration for trees and flowers, birds and brooks, skies and clouds. The imagination makes them live and move.

Hence, to develop imagination, to secure a true appreciation of any literary work, there must be earnest study and practice to render the highest products of the artistic nature by voice. The most natural language, that of voice, must be exercised to give expression to the noblest forms of literature.

Imagination must have a large store of materials on which to work as we have already said, this it cannot create for itself. From other regions it must be gathered,—from wealth of the mind; from large experience of life and knowledge of nature; from the exercise of the heart, judgment, reflection and the whole being.

The dramatic club might be classified under the heading of "arts." Voice culture, declamation, oratory and debate lead up to work in dramatic art as one of the forms of interpreting literature.

There are four facts that will be brought to bear upon pupils belonging to this club in matter of acting. The first one is the control of breath, the importance of proper breathing can hardly be overestimated. Emotion must especially affect the breathing, or the muscles regulating breathing. The reverse is true, breathing affects emotion. Laughter, gasping, weeping, and many other emotions are aided by appropriate breath control.

The second point that must always be noted is the way the whole body is used. Harshness, hatred, and anger usually bring about a feeling of tenseness and tightness, and the assumption of these feelings helps portray these emotions. Small aimless motions suggest irritation or impatience. The very act of drawing the body up to its full height, and moving slowly and with dignity, brings about a sense of regalness and nobility. A lightness of body suggests youth and health, while heaviness suggests age and illness.

The eyes are another important factor in dramatic action. It is an old rule of pantomime, that the "eyes always lead." Shiftiness is universally understood to denote treachery or insincerity; while steadiness of

gaze implies directness and honesty. Humility, scorn, thoughtfulness, and many other emotions are portrayed with greater ease if the eyes are used correctly.

Master gestures are perfected too. Just when and how gestures should be made, gestures that come naturally and not stilted.

This club has proved itself of great value to the pupils entering it, to the school and to the community at large.

Of course the school should receive its share of benefits from the Dramatic Club. An ever important problem in modern education is that of motivation. How can we get the students to become really interested in dramatics? The use of the Dramatic Club is at least one step in this direction of an answer to this perplexing question.

Nearly every department may profitably help the Dramatic Club. Play and scenario writing will give practice in English Composition. Dramatizing stories and events in history make them more vivid and the best of these may be given by the Dramatic Club.

The Manual Training department may help provide necessary equipment and fixtures; the home economics department can assist in the arrangement of the settings and costuming. The art department can assist with scenery and posters; the commercial department can help with the advertising and sale of tickets; the music department can furnish the music; the physical education can furnish dance numbers and other departments and individuals around the school can help in any one way or the other. This not only utilizes the more expert knowledge and technique, but makes the affair a "school" affair, and thus strengthens the morale.

The pupils by the use of Dramatic Club are able to direct that dramatic urge, inherent in everyone into constructive activities. It is so obvious that the Dramatic Club affords a wholesome outlet for the abundant energies of youth.

The Dramatic Club gives one the ability to present their thoughts agreeably and effectively to an audience; the ability to act with more ease, grace and precision; the ability to discern the motives actuating human behavior; the ability to maintain a proper appearance and the ability to do productive, creative or interpretative work in the field of fine arts.

Last but not least of the influences, (pupil, school) the community. The Dramatic Club is also beneficial to the community. The parents become interested in the play given by the club and thus become more critical of legitimate stage and of the movie. The plays produced by the club should have literary and dramatic value. Cheap farce and melodrama are a waste of time. The school can do much to bring about a public demand for better pictures and higher types of dramatic production, certainly it should assume a measure of responsibility for the literary tastes and standards of the community.

The field of the Dramatic Club is a large one and its influence is far reaching. It may be used in helping to develop and bring out the best in each department of the school by cooperation and unity. The members of the club must put the best they have into the work, give their time and services unstinted if they wish the Dramatic Club to be a real influence.

GO TO HIGH SCHOOL, GO TO COLLEGE CAMPAIGN

The Go To High School, Go To College Campaign was created by act of the Twelfth Annual Convention of Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity in 1919. This convention marked a turning point in the history of education among our people in America. The movement has been the means of stimulating the ambitions of thousands of boys and girls for learning and the enjoyment of and participation in the higher and finer things of life.

Until 1919, Alpha Phi Alpha like most Greek letter college fraternities lived in a world all its own. Reactions from the World War, increased industrial opportunity and migration were producing great changes among our people. Leading minds of Alpha Phi Alpha insisted that the fraternity should do more than merely insist upon the personal progress of its own members. It was held that the great amount of ability within the organization should be set to work for our group.

In casting about for a program of service, resort was made to statistics on Negro Education. These revealed startling facts. For example, there was a certain city of 800,000 population of which about 30,000 were Negroes. Of this 30,000 Negroes, there were but SIX Negro girls and only ONE Negro boy

graduated from the city high schools in June, 1919. Upon further investigation such examples were found neither to be isolated cases nor exaggerations but were representative of conditions prevalent along the same proportions throughout the country, excepting, of course, certain of the so-called educational centers. Thus with the facts on these conditions, Alpha Phi Alpha decided to interest itself in the youth of our Race and for this purpose created the Go To High School, Go to College Campaign. This campaign is one of the several activities carried on by the Department of Education of Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Inc.

Educatograms

THE JEANES FUND, 1908-1931

The Jeanes Fund has been cooperating during these years with public school boards and superintendents of fourteen states in the employment of supervising teachers for Negro Rural Schools. Three years ago a change was made in the method of handling the money contributed by the Fund. The appropriations are now sent to the State Department of Education, and the checks are made out there. But the work goes on as before. Each year the Jeanes Teachers make visits to more than ten thousand country schools and raise over half a million dollars for school improvement.

The business of these traveling teachers, working under the direction of the county superintendents, is to encourage and aid in any possible way the teachers in the small schools scattered through the county. They introduce simple home industries, thus helping to make the school become a real part of the life of the neighborhood. They promote the improvement of school houses and grounds, and give lessons, as opportunity is offered, on sanitation and cleanliness. As need arises, they frequently organize clubs for the betterment of school and neighborhood.

The good which the Jeanes Teachers do depends mainly upon three facts: First, they have freedom in their activities. They are not bound to red-tape rule. Some are more active in one way, others in other ways. Second, they value doing things for actual improvement more than talking about such

things. Third, they believe in and are devoted to their work.

Box 418,
Charlottesville, Va.

J. H. Dillard,
President.

COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS 1912-1929

Beginning with the Session 1911-12, at the request of four County Superintendents, the Slater Fund aided in establishing County Training Schools in these four counties. There was evident need for at least one good Central Public School in each county. The plan almost immediately met with the approval of State and County Superintendents. Fuller information about these schools will be found in the Annual Reports of John F. Slater Fund, which will be sent on application. (Box 418, Charlottesville, Va.)

Many of these Schools have now become four year High Schools. Another interesting fact is that many private and denominational schools have voluntarily, by arrangement with the county school authorities, become County Training Schools.

The progress in 15 years is shown by the following figures:

In 1914 there were 8 schools: 1 in Ala.; 1 in Ark.; 1 in Ga.; 2 in La.; 2 in Miss.; and 1 in Va. These received for salaries \$4,000 from the Slater Fund and \$10,696 from public tax funds.

In 1928-29 there were 368 in 13 states. The amount contributed through the Slater Fund (largely aided by the General Education Board) for salaries and equipment was \$135,866, while public tax funds spent \$1,886,852. The total expenditure in the 368 County Training Schools in 1928-29, including contributions from the Smith-Hughes Fund, the Rosenwald Fund and various local sources, was \$2,201,407.

The Social Work Year Book recently issued by the Russell Sage Foundation, New York, contains an article on the Negro and Negro social work by James H. Robinson, State Supervisor of Negro Welfare for Tennessee. In the large compendium referred to, Mr. Robinson's is the only contribution from the pen of a Negro writer. That he was selected to write this important topical article for this new encyclopedia, which is to appear biennially, is considered a signal recognition of his authority in the field of social work.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The N. E. A. Journal for March listed 18,500 teachers in Tennessee in 1931. Of this number 9,300 were members of a state teachers association, slightly more than 50%. Among the forty-eight states Tennessee's percentage of enrollment ranked the state as forty-fifth. Only North Dakota, Texas, Maryland, ranked lower. Utah ranked first, followed in order by Maine, South Dakota, New Jersey and Louisiana.

The percentage of enrollment in the Tennessee State Association of Teachers in Colored Schools for 1930-31 is about 25%. What shall it be in 1931-32?

It is alleged that membership in educational organizations is an index of professional efficiency. That this belief is growing may be shown by quoting from The Journal "The percent of teachers enrolled in state associations in 1929 was 91.66; 1930 74.03; and in 1931, 74.27."

**ACCOMPLISHMENTS IN TENNESSEE
OF THE ROSENWALD FUND,
SINCE JUNE 30, 1929
BUILDINGS ERECTED**

Type	Number
One Teacher	Five
Two Teacher	Three
Three Teacher	Two
Six Teacher	One
Eight Teacher	One

ADDITIONS

One Teacher	One
Two Teacher	Two
Busses in Operation	Eleven
Libraries Ordered	Sixteen
Radios Purchased	Four
H. E. Rooms Equipped	Two

**TENNESSEE'S RANKS AMONG THE
FIFTEEN SOUTHERN STATES**

Buildings, 11; Busses, 6; Libraries, 3; Radios, 2; H. E. Rooms, 2.

Let us all strive to raise these ranks between this time and July 1, 1930.

The Colored Inter-scholastic Literary League of West Tennessee has been quite active during the past few months. Under the able direction of Miss Mary Will Dortch, of the Community Center, Paris, it has held a series of district contests and enlisted the aid of the Tennessee Congress of Parents and Teachers, Inc., which organization has voted \$25.00 for prizes.

The League sponsors dramatic readings, debates, oratory, declamations, humorous readings. Its constitution follows:

Article I.—Name.

The name of this organization shall be The Colored Inter-Scholastic Literary League of West Tennessee.

Article II—Purpose.

The purpose of the League shall be to encourage pupils in the grade and high school in the study of masterpieces of literature and research that they may be trained in clear, quick, accurate analysis and reasoning in extemporaneous discussion, to promote declamatory work, original orations, and effective public speaking in the schools of the state, to cultivate an interest and study in great literature of speech, to promote a wider interest in Negro writers.

Article III—Membership.

Any grammar or high school whether public or private may become members by paying dues and submission of application membership fees shall be \$1.00 a year. The same to be sent to the corresponding secretary.

FORM AND SCHEDULE

Each school shall hold its local contest, the winning contestant will be eligible for the county-wide contest.

The winning county contestant will be eligible to the district contest. The winning contestant of each district will be eligible to the section contest. The winning contestant of the section will be eligible to the state contest held in State College, Nashville, Tennessee, under the auspices of the state association of Colored Teachers in July.

Each district shall hold its final contest before April 24.

Each section shall hold its final contest before May 15.

A Reading Circle for the study of Negro literature is one of the new activities at the Community Center, Paris, Tennessee. A Book Review from Dr. Sutton E. Griggs is being considered for the present month each Thursday evening. Professor A. E. Nesbett, principal of McLemores School, McLemoreville, Tennessee, held his local contest February 2, under the auspices of the West Tennessee Inter-Scholastic League. There were seventeen contestants: Misses Mary Will Dortch, O. L. Seats, and Prof. Dodds acted as judges. Three prizes were awarded.

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