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Strategies For Engagement And Motivation In The Online Classroom

Jessica G. Alvarado, National University, USA
Kristina Bodamer, Edinboro College, USA
Jennifer Zaur, The University of Arizona Global Campus, USA

ABSTRACT

This brief practice-based paper discusses the importance of retaining adult learners by engaging, motivating and retaining them in the online classroom environment. More specifically, the major focus is on research-based and practitioner supported strategies that prove to be successful. Motivation theory and Rovai’s model of persistence will be covered, as well as a discussion of what attributes successful online learners possess. Self-confidence, time management, locus of control and self-efficacy will be covered. A connection to Andragogy (adult learning theory) will be integrated along with a discussion of research-based strategies for the support of adult learners in ensuring they are engaged, motivated and retained in the online learning environment.

Keywords: Strategies, Engagement, Motivation, Online Learners, Technology, Persistence, Adult Learners, Student Success, Higher Education, Andragogy, E-Learning, Technology, Teaching Methods, Theory, Distance Learning
Collaboration In University Graphic Design Education
Lorrie Frear, Rochester Institute of Technology, USA

ABSTRACT

Designers are problem-solvers. Designers are resourceful. This unforgettable year has challenged all faculty, regardless of discipline or program level, to create new opportunities for their students to obtain professional experience during their education.

While formal internship opportunities may have decreased during the pandemic, our faculty has reestablished and reimagined a student-run design studio concept where students create design solutions for clients. The structure of this design studio is similar to that of professional practice where students have strict deadlines and budgets.

Research

Several faculty members correspond with area companies and non-profits who have reached out to our department for design and marketing assistance. The faculty select the most promising projects for the students to work on for the next semester.

Relate

Faculty then select upper-level undergraduate students to work individually or in teams as is required by the number and complexity of projects undertaken for the semester. Faculty serve as account executives; working with clients and students to identify deliverables and to enforce deadlines.

Resolve

Faculty and students meet on a weekly basis, currently on Zoom to check-in and discuss progress. In the post-Covid-19 world, faculty and students will meet weekly in the student design studio space on campus. Students follow design thinking strategies as they conduct research, create concepts, prepare client presentations, participate in feedback sessions and critiques, confer with vendors and experts, conduct testing, and execute their solutions for professional implementation.

Represent

This poster will highlight some of the professional projects undertaken by the student design team during Spring Semester 2021 with emphasis given to the project briefs and expectations, deliverables, and outcomes.
Fashion Sustainability And Business
Almerinda Forte, St. John’s University, USA

ABSTRACT

Ethics in business strengthens the global economy and the environment. With the pressure from media, and the increasing awareness of sustainable fashion, the fashion industry has been forced to develop more sustainable patterns of production and consumption (Han, Seo, & Ko, 2017). Our environment is taking exceptional strain as a result of the manufacturing processes of several industries, with the fashion industry ranking as one of the worst industries when it comes to ethical manufacturing (Mukendi et al., 2020). Governments, regulatory bodies, businesses, communities, and consumers must work together to increase the practice of corporate social responsibility in firms.
Towards Elimination Of Students’ Misconceptions In Science: Case Of Drama And Concept Mapping Strategies On Chemical Bonding In Nigeria

Inibehe Sunday Etokeren, Rivers State University, Nigeria
Jane I. Alamina, Rivers State University, Nigeria.

ABSTRACT

Misconceptions constitute a major problem to teaching and learning of science. Apart from hindering assimilation and accommodation of knowledge, it provides a barrier to students’ conceptual understanding. This study therefore, focused on eliminating students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding by application of drama teaching strategy. Mixed method design, specifically, exploratory mixed method design was adopted with the sample of 174 SS2 Students. The instruments were Chemical Bonding Misconceptions Diagnostic Test and Interview Schedule. The reliability coefficient of 0.87 for the Chemical Bonding Misconceptions Diagnostic Test was determined by test retest method. Careful piloting of interview schedule was carried out to ensure validity. Percentages were used to answer research questions and hypotheses tested with Analysis of Covariance at 0.05 level of significance. Findings showed that, drama teaching strategy caused substantial reduction in high extents of students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding. Similar substantial reduction in high extents of students’ misconceptions was obtained on teaching with concept mapping strategy. This implies that students’ misconceptions were corrected. There was no significant difference in misconceptions of students that were taught chemical bonding with drama strategy and those with concept mapping strategy. However, there was gender related difference in misconceptions of students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy. It was recommended that teachers should use drama strategy to teach concepts such as chemical bonding. Also, students’ misconceptions should be identified and corrected during the lesson.

Keywords: Drama, Misconceptions, Chemical bonding and Science

1. INTRODUCTION

Science pedagogy entails optimum blending of teaching resources and methodologies to move the learner from present level of understanding to scientifically acceptable view point. Ideally, learners possess personal understanding of every events in the natural world which is “unique” and originate from interaction with components of the environment. These ideas are registered in the mind of learners and maintained as “the truth” but differ from generally acceptable point of view. During teaching, these personal ideas interfere with scientific concepts presented by teacher, prevent proper understanding and prompt students to construct ideas that are different from the acceptable point of view. These recent “unacceptable ideas” are called “misconceptions” (Scott, Asoko & Driver, 1992; Bodner, 1986). Misconception are idea, concept and subjects’ thought that differ from scientific conception (Ardiansah, 2018). Generally, misconception refers to learners’ incorrect knowledge that is different from the expert perspective of a concept. Other names for the term misconceptions are naive beliefs, preconceptions, alternative frameworks, children’s science, naive conceptions, intuitive beliefs, and learners’ science (Driver, Guesne, & Tiberghien, 1985; McCloskey, 1983). Students’ misconceptions in science are personal constructed understandings which in many cases differ from universally acceptable scientific knowledge (Alamina, 2018). Misconceptions constitute a major problem to teaching and learning of science concepts. Apart from hindering assimilation and accommodation of knowledge which provide a barrier to students’ conceptual understanding, misconceptions are very resistant to change since they are well-embedded in students’ cognitive structure. They are stored in the memory of learners for long time and have the potentials of manifesting in the future to cause a decline of the way of thinking or knowledge of learners which
represents their cognitive processes. (Fadillah & Salirawati, 2021; Milligan & Wood, 2010). Misconceptions in science can be traced to different causes which may be related to the student or teacher. Some of the causes are: inappropriate teaching strategies, abstract nature of scientific concepts, analogies, over-simplified models in textbooks, students’ personal experience and everyday language (Hanson, 2015; Unal, Bayram & Ayas, 2010; Kazembe, 2010).

Learning is meaningful when students’ misconceptions are confronted with appropriate teaching strategies and are guided to construct new ideas which are “scientifically acceptable” (Taber, 2011). One of such strategies is constructivist teaching strategy which consider an individual as being responsible for acquiring his/her knowledge. Also, knowledge construction is seen as inherent in individual and what is constructed depend ultimately on the individuals’ cognitive structure (Scott, Asoko & Driver, 1992). Concept mapping teaching strategy is a constructivist-based teaching approach which utilize concept maps in form of graphical tools to organize and present individual’s mental model or knowledge structure by creating relationship between a single concept and others in the same category in the form of prepositions (Stioca, Moraru, & Miron, 2011). Drama according to Saricayir (2015) is a creative activity performed with the personal experiences of individuals. Drama provides essential elements that the teacher can use to fashion learning tasks that are engaging and effective in improving students’ understandings of scientific concepts (McGregor, 2012). Drama facilitate meaningful learning in students, improve students’ understanding of science concepts and sharpen their aesthetic experience. It encourages active participation of students in classroom activities and provoke positive attitudes of students toward chemistry (Najam, Huggerat, Khalil & Hofstein, 2019; Abed, 2016).

Chemical bonding is a fundamental concept in chemistry that provide basic information for interpretation and understanding of interactions that occur at the three levels of chemical phenomenon - the macro, sub-microscopic and symbolic levels which are connected to each other in such a way that none is superior, rather they complement each other. (Taber, 2011; Johnstone, 1991).

Different teaching approaches have been adopted to address students’ misconceptions in various science concepts. Hanson and Kwarteng (2016) used concept mapping to remediate chemistry teacher trainees’ understanding of chemical phenomenon. The sample comprised 29 first year chemistry teacher trainees of University of Education Winneba in Ghana. Results showed that concept mapping was useful in remediating chemistry teachers’ trainee understanding of chemical phenomenon. There were differences in conceptual frameworks between trainees with high and low levels of content knowledge. Ihuarulam (2014) used intervention discussion learning model to remedy students’ misconceptions in learning chemical bonding and spontaneity of final year students in three Colleges of Education in Kano State. Pretest posttest quasi experimental design was adopted, and the sample comprised 80 final year NCE students. The instruments were General Chemistry Misconception Test (GCMT) and General Chemistry Achievement Test (GCAT). Results showed that before treatment, students in both the experimental and control groups held relatively high percentages of identified misconceptions between 42% to 80%. After treatment, students’ in the experimental recorded drastic reduction in misconceptions while that of the control group were minimally reduced. Students in the experimental group had higher post-test misconception score and higher mean difference as well as higher post-test achievement than the control group.

Adzape and Akpoghhol (2015) found that, teaching with constructivism in relation to analogy caused a significant improvement in achievement of students by correcting their misconceptions. There was no significant gender difference in achievement. This study was carried out in Jos North Local Government Area of Plateau State, Nigeria using the sample of 66 SS2 students and Chemistry Assessment Test (CCAT) as instrument. Alamina and Etkeren (2018) attempted to correct SS2 students’ misconceptions about particulate nature of matter in Rivers State, Nigeria using quasi-experimental design and a four-tier Particulate Nature of Matter Misconception Diagnostic Test as instrument and found that imagination stretch teaching strategy caused a significant reduction in students’ misconceptions about particulate nature of matter than lecture teaching method. Significant difference in students’ misconceptions about the particulate nature of matter in experimental and control groups was established while no significant gender related difference in students’ misconception was found.

Fatokun (2016) used concept mapping blended with cooperative learning todetect and correct various misconceptions in chemical bonding retained by some pre-service chemistry teachers in Nassarawa State University. Action research design was adopted using Chemical Bonding Comprehension Test as instrument. The sample comprised 64 pre-service chemistry teachers. Results showed that, some of the pre-service teachers’ misconceptions were removed during group’s interaction with the aid of concept maps. They were enabled to apply their knowledge of concepts and
interrelations, as well as formulate appropriate theoretical explanations for the observed changes they viewed. As their misconceptions were detected and dissolved, a remarkable change in conceptions and improvement in the knowledge base of the prospective teachers was attained. Kazembe (2010) used portfolios to correct alternative conceptions and enhance learning using 40 first year primary school student teachers at a training college in Masvingo Province, Zimbabwe and action research design with interview, observation and portfolio served as instruments. Findings revealed that portfolio was an effective tool for correcting students’ alternative conceptions in chemical bonding and other concepts in chemistry. Also, monthly test scores improved significantly as the study progresses indicating correction of students’ misconceptions by the use of portfolios. There was an improvement as students got more familiar with the use of portfolios as a result of the disappearance of the alternative conceptions.

1.1 Statement Of The Problem

Teaching and learning chemistry at different levels of education has been beleaguered by the problem of misconceptions which contribute to students’ difficulty in understanding of various fundamental concepts such as chemical bonding, chemical reaction, electrolysis and extraction of metals (Jimoh, 2010; Etokeren & Ikwutt, 2018). This clearly infer that the current lecture method of teaching science in our secondary schools has been proven to be defective in providing solution to the problem of misconceptions and concept difficulty. There is therefore, a need to provide alternative teaching strategies that are useful in minimizing or possibly eliminating students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding. Efforts by researchers in this direction are still ongoing for various science concepts. Nevertheless, there is no substantial evidence on the use of drama pedagogy in any of these studies. Therefore, there is a gap in knowledge that needs to be addressed. This study is an attempt to fill this existing gap.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What is the extent of misconceptions for students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy and those taught with concept mapping teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State?
2. What is the extent of misconceptions for male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State?

1.3 Hypotheses

HO1: There is no significant difference in the mean scores on misconceptions of students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy and those taught with concept mapping teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State.

HO2: There is no significant difference between the mean scores on misconceptions of male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State.

2. METHODOLOGY

Mixed method design, specifically, exploratory mixed method design was adopted in this study. Mixed method design combine qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single or multiphase study (Aryl, Jacobs Sorenson & Razavieh, 2010). One hundred and seventy-four Senior Secondary two (SS2) Chemistry Students were used as sample. A four-tier misconception diagnostic test called “Chemical Bonding Misconceptions Diagnostic Test” (CBMDT) with reliability coefficient of 0.98 and non- directive interview schedule adapted from Ünal, Bayram and Ayas (2010) were the instruments. Careful piloting of the interview schedules was carried out to ensure validity. Data from qualitative and quantitative sources were analyzed separately and triangulation done at the end of the study to draw common conclusion. The research questions were answered using percentage while the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA).
3. RESULTS

3.1 Research Question 1

What is the extent of misconceptions for students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy and those taught with concept mapping strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State?

Table 1: Percentage Pretest and posttest misconceptions of students taught chemical bonding using drama and concept mapping strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Misconceptions</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DTS</td>
<td>CMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>All chemical bonding involves transfer or sharing of electron(s)</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Atoms with incomplete electron in their outermost shell only undergo chemical bonding</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td>51.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Chemical bond is just an ordinary force that holds atoms together</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>There are only two types of chemical bonding - covalent and electrovalent</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>76.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Coordinate covalent bond and Vander Waals are strong forces of attraction</td>
<td>79.1</td>
<td>80.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Covalent bond is the shared pair of electrons contributed by the two atoms</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Covalent bonding is formed between atoms of group 1 &amp; 2 elements</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>87.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Electrovalent bonding is formed between atoms of group 6 &amp; 7 elements</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The properties of covalent and dative compounds are usually different</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Hydrogen bonding does not affect the properties of the compound</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Electrovalent bond is the only bond that electrostatic in nature</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DTS = Drama Teaching Strategy, CMS = Concept Mapping Strategy

From Table 1, Figures 1& 2, before treatment, students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy and those taught with concept mapping held misconceptions to a very high extent (90.7% - 37.2%) and (87.2 % - 51.8 %) respectively. Nevertheless, there was remarkable reduction in the high extent (90.7% - 37.2%) and (87.2 % - 51.8 %) of misconceptions for students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy and those taught with concept mapping strategy to a low extent (21.3% - 5.7%) and (24.5% - 5.3%) After treatment.
3.2 Research Question 2

What is the extent of misconceptions for male and female students taught chemical bonding with drama teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State?

Table 2: Percentages of misconceptions of male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Misconceptions</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>All chemical bonding involves transfer or sharing of electron(s)</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Atoms with incomplete electron in their outermost shell only undergo chemical bonding</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Chemical bond is just an ordinary force that holds atoms together</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>There are only two types of chemical bonding - covalent and electrovalent</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>57.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Coordinate covalent bond and Vander Waals are strong forces of attraction</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Covalent bond is the shared pair of electrons contributed by the two atoms</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Covalent bonding is formed between atoms of group 1 &amp; 2 elements</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>58.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Electrovalent bonding is formed between atoms of group 6 &amp; 7 elements</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The properties of covalent and dative compounds are usually different</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Hydrogen bonding does not affect the properties of the compound</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>75.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Electrovalent bond is the only is bond that electrostatic in nature</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 2 and Figures 3 & 4, before treatment, male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy held misconceptions to a very high extent (86.4% - 41.3%) and (91.7% - 25.4%) respectively. After treatment, there was a remarkable reduction in the high extent of misconceptions for male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy to a low extent (29.4% - 8.8) and (25.7% - 12.3%) respectively.
3.3 Pre-treatment Interview Results

Conception 1 & 2

Researcher 1 - In your own thinking, what is the meaning of chemical bonding?
Student 1- It is the process which involves the transfer or sharing of electrons between two atoms to be stable.

Researcher 2 - What do you really mean by transfer or sharing?
Student 2- By this, I mean the process which atom donates electron(s) and another atom accepts the electron or they contribute and share.

Researcher 3 - Does it mean that the only condition required for bonding is transfer or sharing?
Student 3- Yes, no chemical bonding can occur without transfer or sharing of electrons, there must be transfer or sharing of electrons. Without this process, it is not possible to have bonding

Researcher 4 - I heard you mention transfer or sharing of electrons always in your explanation. What happens after the sharing or transfer?
Student 4- The atoms are now stable because they have duplet or octet electron configuration

Researcher 5 - What do you mean by the term duplet or “octet” electron configuration
Students 5- That is the maximum of 2 or 8 electrons in the outermost shell required for atoms to be stable

Researcher 6 - Could you explain further?
Student 6- Sir, I mean that it is only atoms with incomplete electrons in their outermost shell that can undergo chemical bonding because they are not stable.

The responses of students’ in above example revealed that, students understanding of the process of chemical bonding is only limited to the process of electron transfer or sharing and attainment of the stable octet or duplet configuration” (S2, S4). From the above conception, chemical bonding that does not involve sharing or transfer of electrons such as hydrogen bonding, metallic bonding and Vander Waals forces are not regarded as bonding (S6).

3.4 Post-treatment Interview Results

Conception 1

Researcher 1 - In your own understanding, what is the meaning of chemical bonding?
Students 1- I think chemical bonding is the process in which a chemical bond is formed. That is how chemical bond is formed.

Researcher 2 - I heard you mention bond in your answer, what do you really mean by bond?
Students 2- It is the electrostatic force of attraction that holds ions, atoms and molecules together.

Researcher 3 - from your answer, is there any difference between bond and bonding?
Student 3- Yes they mean different thing

Researcher 4 - What then is the difference?
Student 4 - Bond is the force while bonding is the process in which the force of attraction is formed

Researcher 5 - What do you really mean by this? Explain further?
Student 5- By this I mean for example, when an atom donates electron and is called electron donor and another atom accept electron and is called electron acceptor. They come together and remain together. That is the process is called bonding which is different from bond that is the force
The responses to above shows that the students now possess a good knowledge of the electrostatic nature of chemical bond by using “electrostatic” in defining bond (S2). Furthermore, the student can clearly differentiate bonding and bond(S3) with suitable explanation. This conception is consistent with the scientific conception and confirms a change in conception form the preconceived idea to scientific idea.

**Conception 2**

Researcher 1- From your answer, how many types of chemical bonding do we have?
Student 1- There are many types of chemical bonding

Researcher 2- Can you mention them?
Student 2- ionic, covalent, coordinate covalent, hydrogen and others

Researcher 3- Now let’s look at “ionic bonding” as a type of chemical bonding, what really hold them together?
Student 3- I think what holds them together is the force of attraction

Researcher 4- Why do you think so?
Student 4- Well, it is because positive and negative ions are formed. The opposite charge then attracts each other so that they cannot separate.

Researcher 5- From your answer what is electrovalent bond?
Student 5- I have told you before that bond is the force of attraction here.

Researcher 6- In your example where?
Student 6- As I said earlier, the positive sodium ion attracts the negative chlorine ion, so the force is between the two ions and can be found between two of them.

The responses of the student above suggest a good knowledge of the basis of classification of chemical bonding (S1). The knowledge is not founded in the octet rule and electron transfer but tends to be broad accommodating other types of bonding that do not involve electron transfer or gain such as hydrogen bonding mentioned in the example (S2). Also, electrovalent or ionic bond as the force of attraction (S4 and S5). This conception is the same with scientific conception and confirms a change in conception form the naïve idea based on octet rule.

**3.5 Hypothesis 1**

**H01:** There is no significant difference between the mean score on misconceptions of students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy and those taught with concept mapping teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State.

**Table 3:** Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of misconception scores of students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy and those taught with concept mapping strategy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>1300.660*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>650.330</td>
<td>4.066</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1030.458</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1030.458</td>
<td>64.427</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>1297.375</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1297.375</td>
<td>8.112</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>14.036</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.036</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>18391.450</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>159.926</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>425861.000</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>19692.110</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .066 (Adjusted R Squared = .050)
From Table 3, \( F (1, 115) = 0.088, P > .05 \), therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. This infer that there is no significant difference between the mean misconceptions of students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy and those taught with concept mapping teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State.

3.6 Hypothesis 2

**H02:** There is no significant difference between the mean score on misconceptions of male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy and those taught with concept mapping teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>3831.340(^a)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1915.670</td>
<td>16.024</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>16955.490</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16955.490</td>
<td>141.824</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>354.228</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>354.228</td>
<td>2.963</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>2258.170</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2258.170</td>
<td>18.888</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>20443.516</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>119.553</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>537399.000</td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>242748.856</td>
<td>173</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( a. R^2 = .158 \) (Adjusted \( R^2 = .148 \))

From Table 4, \( F_1, 171 = 18.888, P < .05 \), therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference between the mean misconceptions of male and female students taught chemical bonding using drama teaching strategy in Senior Secondary Schools in Rivers State.

4. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Convergence of results of diagnostic test and interview schedule by triangulation showed that, the high extents of misconceptions for students taught chemical bonding using drama strategy before treatment (pretest) were remarkably reduced to low extent after treatment (posttest). Also, the high extents of misconceptions for students taught chemical bonding with concept mapping before treatment (pretest) were remarkably reduced to a low extent after treatment (posttest) (Table 1, Figure 1&2). The observed remarkable reduction in high extents of students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding in drama learning environment suggests a significant a change in students’ preconceived ideas which are “erroneous” and “unacceptable” to scientifically acceptable conceptions. This was accomplished by constructing scientific ideas or replacing misconceived ideas with scientific conceptions. The observed change in conceptions of students could possibly be accredited to the fact that, as students acted or watched the drama and enjoyed scenes in a relaxed atmosphere, their interests were aroused and ability to relate scenes to chemical bonding processes enhanced. Also, there was collaboration of ideas and social interaction which makes learning fun, interesting, stress-free and motivates them to learn with proper understanding. Similarly, in the concept mapping classroom, active participation of students in the process of linking concepts with prepositions, promotes critical thinking, development of divergent way of thinking and enlarge their network of knowledge which enhanced understanding and make learning easy. Through these processes, students were actively involved in the process of knowledge construction and making meaning. Their knowledge were products of personal construction, since each student constructs personal idea and in line with acceptable scientific conceptions. Consequently, their misconceptions were corrected. Further evidence revealed no significant difference in students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding on the use of drama and concept mapping teaching strategies (Table 3). This validates the effectiveness of drama in eliminating students’ misconceptions compared to proven strategies like concept mapping.

Findings of this study corroborate that of Hanson (2015) where students’ alternative conceptions of teacher trainees in University of Winneba Ghana were corrected through multimedia and pictorial representation. Trainees developed scientific reasoning when asked similar questions that had been asked before interventions after treatment. This results
further agree with findings of Ihuarulam (2014) in Kano State where high percentages (between the range of 42% to 80%) of NCE students’ misconception about chemical bonding and spontaneity in experimental group were drastically reduced after treatment using intervention discussion learning model (IDLM) of conceptual change strategy while those of students in lecture still persisted. This results further corroborate that of Fatokun (2016) where use of concept maps caused removal of misconceptions of pre-service chemistry teachers about chemical bonding. They were enabled to apply their knowledge of concepts and interrelations as a result of attainment of significant conceptual change which results in the corresponding improvement in knowledge base of students. Nassarawa State University. Furthermore, convergence of findings form diagnostic test and interview schedule showed that the high extents of male and female students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding before application of drama strategy (pretest) were remarkably reduced to low extent after lessons with drama teaching strategy (posttest) (Table2, Figure 3 & 4). This implies that drama strategy is effective in correcting students’ misconceptions about chemical bonding. Furthermore, gender consideration showed male and female students’ misconceptions were corrected on application of drama and concept mapping but, there was gender related significant difference in misconceptions of students (Table 4). This finding disagree with that of Adzape and Akpoghol (2015) on a study that sought to correct students’ chemical misconceptions using constructivism in relation to analogy in Jos North Local Government Area of Plateau State where no significant gender related difference in achievement of chemistry students was found.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Teachers should embrace drama teaching strategy for abstract chemistry concepts such as bonding among others.
2. Students’ misconception should be identified by teachers in the course of lesson and effort made to correct them during lessons.
3. Teachers should always focus on facilitating students’ construction efforts towards correction of misconceptions.

6. CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

1. The knowledge of efficiency of drama teaching strategy in correcting students’ misconceptions provides another “lead way” in research advances for proven strategies to address the problem of students’ misconceptions in science.
2. The use of drama provides alternative strategy for effective teaching of some science concepts.
3. This study expands the existing knowledge on applications of drama in teaching and breaks the limitations of its usefulness.

REFERENCES


school students using a two-tier test. AIP Conference Proceedings,
Navigating Through The Waters Of Informational Text: A Journey For All Students
Lisa Midcalf, Francis Marion University, USA

ABSTRACT

This interactive workshop will introduce attendees to numerous reading strategies to help their students navigate through informational text. Students need more than read the chapter and answer the questions at the end especially if they are struggling readers. Attendees will learn how to prepare their students to read the text, what students should do while they read the text, and most importantly, what the students should do after reading the text. Attendees will leave this session with ready-to-use strategies that will increase their students’ understanding of informational text.
Digital Identity In Canada For Public Services: Implications For The United States
Cynthia Conrad, University of New Haven, USA

ABSTRACT

Beginning in January 2021, the Province of Ontario began the implementation process for the Digital Identity Project. Following the examples of the Provinces of Alberta and British Columbia, who have already put such a program in place, Ontario plans to provide citizens with a digital “wallet” in which all their information may be accessed for purposes of accessing government services. Much of the push behind this program derived from the disruption and lack of access to services during the Covid-19 pandemic, in which face to face service requests and delivery were not possible. Digital identity will allow citizens to have verifiable and easy access to government services.

The mechanism of the digital identity is a “digital wallet.” Smart phone users are familiar with this type of app and may use it for purchases with retained credit or debit cards, or for things such as airline boarding passes. The government digital identity in use in Canada provides citizens with a specific mobile app that goes much further. It will also hold important information for interfacing with government such as health cards, driver’s licenses, birth certificates, military identifications and more. (McCarthy Tétrault Blog: snIP/ITs, Toronto: Newstex. Nov 2, 2020.)

The Canadian provinces adopting digital identity programs have entrusted their security to a private company providing “block chain” technology, which is the same approach used in digital currencies. It is policy makers belief that using such technology will minimize or eliminate identity theft and maintain all the information securely.

Digital identity is a much more efficient and expedient way of managing access to government services as demonstrated in Estonia, the Canadian provinces and other places where it has been deployed. However, it raises concerns about equity and inclusion of those who do not use such technological advancements as smart phones or computers. It also raises concern for United States citizens for overt government intrusion. Such an idea may not gain much support in the United States, regardless of its efficiency and effectiveness. This study explores the implications for digital identity in the United States, examining the stake holders, considerations for social change, and potential future impacts.
Strategic Partnering: Developing The Dissertation
Matasha MurrellJones, University of Phoenix, USA
Imani Akin, University of Phoenix, USA
Erika Burton, University of Phoenix, USA

ABSTRACT
Attrition from doctoral programs has consistently remained high over the last 50 years, even with advances in technology and resources to support student success. 50% of all doctoral students drop out of their programs before completion (Lafrance, Lafrance, & Melton, 2020; MELS, 2012; Shavers & Moore, 2014). The problem is that doctoral students struggle to complete their doctoral program without adequate support from their Dissertation Chair. The relationship between the Chair and candidate impacts the success and effectiveness of doctoral research completion (Black, 2017; Leijen, Lepp, & Remmik, 2016; Litalien & Guay, 2015).

The Chair and candidate relationship also impacts the emotions and well-being of the candidate (Cotterall, 2013; Flora, 2017; McAlpine & McKinnon, 2013). The purpose of this study is to find effective tools, models, and strategies to build the relationship between the Chair and the Candidate in an effort to enhance the doctoral candidate’s research experience. The variables studied will include the candidate’s experiences and emotions, their relationship with their chair, as well as their successful completion of the doctoral study.

Research Questions
RQ1: How does the Doctoral chair and Doctoral candidate relationship impact the doctoral learner successfully completing their research project and program?

RQ2: How does the Doctoral chair and Doctoral candidate relationship impact the doctoral learners’ emotions throughout the doctoral research process?

H1: The Doctoral chair and the Doctoral candidate relationship contributes to the Doctoral candidate successfully completing the doctoral program

H1A: The Doctoral chair and the Doctoral candidate relationship does not contribute to the Doctoral candidate successfully completing the doctoral program

H2: The Doctoral chair and the Doctoral candidate relationship contributes to the Doctoral candidates’ emotions throughout the doctoral research process?

H2A: The Doctoral chair and the Doctoral candidate relationship does not contribute to the Doctoral candidates’ emotions throughout the doctoral research process?

Methodology
A quantitative research method may be used for this proposed study. A Likert-type survey is proposed. The dependent variables are the doctoral candidate and the successful completion of the doctoral program. The independent variables are the doctoral candidates’ emotions and the Doctoral Chair relationship, which influence or have an effect on the dependent variables, the doctoral candidate and the successful completion of the doctoral program.
Significance of the Study

All stakeholders of doctoral programs can benefit from the shared experiences of those who have participated in the doctoral journey. Research can impact societal change when a call to action is identified and implementation occurs. Studies indicate a partnership approach is instrumental to the candidate building the attributes and skills needed for future research projects (Deeley & Brown, 2014). Conducting this research will aid in developing a model of support that the chair and candidate can use to create a process for working to develop the dissertation. The model can be used as reference for the candidate and the chair.

REFERENCES


Auditing The Federal Reserve:
The Implication Of The FORM Act Of 2015 On U.S Monetary Policy
Fassil Fanta, Brenau University, USA

ABSTRACT
This research investigates the monetary policy implication of the new bill passed in the House on November 2015-Fed Oversight Reform and Modernization Act of 2015 (the FORM Act). Considering the new proposed bill, the paper also presents the ongoing debate on rule vs. discretionary monetary policy. It specifically asks the following research question: Which policy regime results in a better macroeconomic stability? To answer this question, I compare the volatility index generated from major macroeconomic variables in these two monetary policy regimes in U.S for the period 1960-2020. To construct a standardized measure of volatility index, I first run GARCH (1, 1) model for inflation, real GDP growth rate, short-term interest rate and exchange rate, and then standardized each series using its own mean and standard deviation. By assuming equal weight for each standardized series and by adding them together, I generate the volatility index for the whole study period. Comparing the macroeconomic volatility under the two monetary policy regimes conducted by the Fed would give policy makers and investors a clear understanding of the implication of a monetary policy choice and macroeconomic performance.
U.S. Congressional Election Uncertainty And Stock Market Volatility
David Bowes, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA

ABSTRACT

Uncertainty about the economy can affect financial market returns. One potential source of uncertainty is the outcome of an upcoming national election. This paper uses a GARCH model to estimate the effect of uncertainty surrounding U.S. Congressional elections on the level and volatility of U.S. stock market returns from 1992-2016. Uncertainty in these elections is measured using asset prices from the Iowa Electronic Market (IEM), an on-line futures market based on real-world events including U.S. elections. Empirical results will indicate how U.S. stock market returns and volatility are impacted by uncertainty regarding which political party will control the U.S. Congress after the result of an upcoming general election.
The Federal Reserve’s Zombie Companies
Charles F. Beauchamp, Mississippi College, USA

ABSTRACT

The Federal Reserve has pursued an accommodative monetary policy of historically low interest rates and excess levels of liquidity since the Great Recession. It doubled down on this policy during the recent worldwide COVID-19 pandemic. This has had a significant impact on financial markets as documented in existing literature. Absent from the literature is the effect and contribution of this policy towards zombie companies, i.e. unprofitable businesses with low stock market valuation and only able to service the interest obligations of their debt. This paper illustrates how the Federal Reserve has contributed to the increase in the number of zombie companies and the implications of this increase.

JEL Classification: D22, D24, E43, G33

Keywords: Zombie Companies, Federal Reserve, Monetary Policy, Firm Behavior
Leading Global Virtual Teams Beyond Known Levels: A Quantitative Study
Matasha MurrellJones, Herzing University, USA

ABSTRACT

Research supports the importance of the global virtual team leader and team member relationship in the productivity success of the global virtual team (GVT) as more organizations are emphasizing the use of GVTs (Derven, 2016). There is a notable shift in global organizations choosing to create and use global virtual teams to complete projects. In a study conducted by Ferrazzi (2014), 79% of participants either always worked or frequently worked in virtual teams. Virtual team leaders are challenged to create effective collaboration and productivity that rivals those of the best collocated teams despite facing everyday business challenges (Kerber & Buono, 2004). The virtual global team leader is tasked with the responsibility of not only meeting team goals, but exceeding them as well, by pushing team members beyond their known levels.

THE PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

A gap exists in the literature as it relates to understanding the global virtual team leader and team member relationship from the perspective or productivity, increased performance, and effectiveness. Research conducted in the area of GVTs has focused on the challenges of leading the GVT, however, clear strategies have not been explored and recommended for the leader of the GVT (Rainbolt, 2019). The problem is the lack of research supporting the strategies needed to increase performance beyond the known levels of team members. The purpose of this study is to identify strategies that can be used by global virtual team leaders to lead virtual teams beyond their known levels.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The research questions for this study and hypotheses were developed to align with the initial purpose of the study, derived from the guiding research question, and aligned to the High Performance GVT’s Research Model.

Research Question 1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between global virtual team leaders and the productivity of virtual team members?

Research Question 2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between global virtual team leaders and the increased performance of virtual team members?

Research Question 3: Is there a statistically significant relationship between global virtual team leaders’ communication and trust and the increased performance and productivity of virtual team members?

Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant relationship between global virtual team leaders’ goal setting and the increased performance and productivity of virtual team members?

Research Question 5: Is there a statistically significant relationship between global virtual team leaders’ focus on team collaboration and the increased performance and productivity of virtual team members?

HA1: The global virtual team leader and team member relationship does significantly impact the productivity of virtual team members

H01: The global virtual team leader and team member relationship does not significantly impact the productivity of virtual team members

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HA2: The global virtual team leader and team member relationship does significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

H02: The global virtual team leader and team member relationship does not significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

HA3: The global virtual team leader’s communication and trust does significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

H03: The global virtual team leader’s communication and trust does not significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

HA4: The global virtual team leader’s goal setting does significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

H04: The global virtual team leader’s goal setting does not significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

HA5: The global virtual team leader’s focus on team collaboration does significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

H05: The global virtual team leader’s focus on team collaboration does not significantly impact the increased performance of virtual team members

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A review of the literature provides a foundation for the study and included the GLOBE’s culturally endorsed theory. Deconstruction of GLOBE’s theory creates a framework to support the study. Limited studies on the impact of the global virtual team leader and team member relationship as it relates specifically to productivity provided content for the examination of the global virtual team leader and team member relationship aligned to excelling beyond known levels.

High Performance Global Work Teams

High performance work teams operate at their highest production and proficiency levels. High performance teams combine individual talents and abilities into a high performing whole with capabilities that exceed those of its most talented member (Ross, 2008). High performance work teams evoke trust and creativity at their core (Moura, Domingos, and Varajão, 2019; Ross, 2008; Wing, 2005). Leaders of high-performance work teams add value to knowledge workers (Wing, 2005).

High performance GVTs may attain consistent results by recognizing the challenges of working in GVT and creating strategies to address those challenges. High performance GVT work toward improving team performance, improving customer satisfaction, improving the time to market, and improving project success rates (Nguyen, 2013). Figure 1 below outlines the High Performance GVTs Research Model. The model outlines the connection the variables that contribute to high performance GVTs, including the team, leading, management, technologies, workplace factors, and the standards of excellence. Each variable plays a role in the growth and development of high performance GVTs.
Leaders of GVTs are imperative to the productivity of the GVT. Leaders must not only be aware of the challenges but understand the strategies that successful GVTs have used to ensure that team members are not only working at productive levels but are working beyond their known abilities. The GVT leader is managing the interdependencies of the team process while sustaining and building relationships among team members (Hoefling, 2016; Nguyen, 2013; Rainbolt, 2019). This done while focusing on the goal of the team and accomplishing the goal effectively. Communication is certainly vital to this process (Hoefling, 2016; Nguyen, 2013; Rainbolt, 2019). It is important to create strategies that leaders of GVTs can implement to support the continuous improvement and development of high performance GVTs (Binder, 2007).

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

A quantitative correlation approach was chosen to conduct the study. A quantitative methodology is appropriate for the study to discover the impact of the interactions between global virtual team leaders and virtual team members. Quantitative research is unbiased and allows for the selection of specific variables to be studied and specific questions to be asked (Creswell, 2014). The correlational design of the study will enable statistical tests to be used as a measure (Katz, 2003). The correlational research design will be implemented to find relationships between the variables and answer the research questions.

The data for this correlational quantitative research design will be obtained from a survey. The data collection is in the form of a 17-statement, Likert-type survey to be distributed to virtual team members (see Table 1). A survey is appropriate for this study as it “allows the researcher to survey a sample of a population of people in order to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of the population” (Creswell, 2014). The survey questionnaire allows for the determination of relationship between global virtual leaders and global virtual team members as it relates to productivity and increased performance. The use of a survey in this study allows for best practices to be determined as it relates to the productivity and increased performance of global virtual teams.
Table 1: Likert-type survey questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert-type Scale Survey Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neither Agree or Disagree (3), Disagree (4), Highly Disagree (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader was challenging to reach throughout virtual team project which hindered the timely success of the project and team productivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader communicated on a consistent basis throughout the entire virtual team project which led to a successful result of the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global virtual team leader communicated in various mediums such as Skype, Zoom, etc. throughout the entire virtual team process which assisted with a timely completion of the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader communicated on a consistent basis throughout the entire virtual team project which led to the team exceeding project goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader communicated on a consistent basis throughout the entire virtual team project which led to an increase in my productivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader communicated with the team on a consistent basis throughout the entire virtual team project which led to the team exceeding project goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My team leader focused on individual team member skill sets to assist with the team collaboration throughout the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The collaboration that I had with my virtual global team leader led to me producing results beyond my known levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader encouraged collaboration amongst team members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The team collaboration encouraged by my global team leader led to me being more productive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The team collaboration encouraged by my global team leader led to my performance increasing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader used goal setting techniques that enhanced my performance during the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader used goal setting techniques that enhanced my productivity during the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader emphasized the use of goal setting techniques to increase performance and productivity of the team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of the goal setting techniques implemented by the global team leader led to the team being successful, more productive, and increased team performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader built trust with the team throughout the entire virtual team project which led to the team producing results beyond known levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader built trust with the team throughout the entire virtual team project which led to the team having increased productivity results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader evoked creativity within the team throughout the entire virtual team project which led to the team producing results beyond known levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My global team leader evoked creativity within the team throughout the entire virtual team project which led to the team having increased productivity results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The support that the team received from my global team leader led to the team producing results beyond known levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The support that I received from my global team leader led to me producing results beyond known levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was able to be more productive and produce higher results than I planned based on the guidance of my leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My team was able to be more productive and produced higher results than expected based on the guidance of our leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was not only able to meet goals, but exceeded them consistently throughout the project and this is attributed to approach taken by the leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My team was not only able to meet goals, but exceeded them consistently throughout the project and this is attributed to the approach taken by the leader.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The population for the study is global virtual team members. A purposeful sample method will be used to select virtual team members from a pool of teams across various global organizations. Criteria for selection of the sample population from the total population include participants who have worked on a GVT for at least 6 months for a global business. Electronic resources will be used to contact a participant. Participants will be contacted individually and the participants who agree to complete the survey will be informed of the study’s purpose. The participants will complete a Likert-type survey. The survey results will be compiled and the results analysed to identify the strategies necessary for global virtual team leaders to promote the productivity and effectiveness levels of team members beyond known levels.

CONCLUSION

In today’s global society, GVTs are becoming more common. The virtual environment allows global teams the opportunity to be more efficient and accomplish goals quicker than expected. In addition, organizations have access to the best team members across the globe. Having global access also introduces the need for strategies to assist with
the challenges for GVTs. This proposed study will introduce strategies that leaders of GVTs can implement to assist with maintaining high performance GVTs while focusing on building relationships with team members and assisting team members with producing results beyond their known abilities.

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J. Vern Cromartie, Contra Costa College, USA

ABSTRACT

This paper examines fountainheads of sociology that include Karl Marx, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Jane Addams, and Harriet Martineau. It explores the pioneering contributions of Marx, Weber, Durkheim, and their status as the three main fountainheads of sociology. This paper also explores the pioneering contributions of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, Martineau, and their status as four peripheral fountainheads of sociology. It covers some of the things that are being taught about the sociological contributions of Marx, Weber, and Durkheim. Likewise, it covers some of the things that are taught about the sociological contributions of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau. This paper addresses some implications of the research. It utilizes the case study method, and the research technique includes content analysis of primary and secondary source documents.

Keywords: Issues in Higher Education, Teaching and Learning, Curriculum, Sociology of Education

INTRODUCTION

Sociology is a dynamic discipline in that it emerged as an outcome of men and women making analyses of human societies and many groups that make up a given society. As a discipline concerned with the macro, middle, and micro levels of analysis, sociology provides people with the systematic study of social conditions. On the one hand, some scholars trace the history of sociological thought back to Ibn Khaldun in the 1400s and August Comte in the 1800s. On the other hand, some scholars trace the analysis of factors essential to a sociological point of view to the priests and physicians to ancient Egypt and other Eastern thinkers, as to the Western thinkers (Sorokin, 1928).

Pitirim Sorokin (1930), a White sociologist who served a professor and chairman of the Department of Sociology at Harvard University, regarded Ibn Khaldun as the founder of sociology instead of Auguste Comte. Khaldun was an Arab African who was born in Tunis, Tunisia in 1332 and died in Cairo, Egypt in 1406. Sorokin said that Ibn Khaldun is “as much any one man, entitled to be called the ‘founder of sociology’” (p. 54). Thus, Sorokin made it clear that he chose Khaldun as the founder of sociology over Auguste Comte, a White man from France, who was the first to use the term sociology in a European language.

In the social world where people have their social interactions, social relationships, and social structures, there are social conditions that impact the lives of people around the world. Since the time of Khaldun, people have been analyzing social conditions and writing about their observations. In the case of Khaldun, he did field research in the legendary Timbuctoo, Mali and published his work. However, Khaldun has not gotten his full due and credit because he was an Arab African and not a European. In other words, he has been pushed to the periphery of the discipline instead of being placed in the center (Khaldun, 1377/2015; Sorokin, 1930; Cromartie, 1993).

As the interest in the discipline soared in the 1800s, men and women stood on the shoulders of Khaldun and others as they began to make their observations of social conditions among various groups of people. Those men and women include Karl Marx, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Jane Addams, and
Harriet Martineau. Marx, Weber, and Durkheim have three things in common: (1) They are all White men from Europe; (2) they were all political activists; and (3) they were all interested in social change at the macro level. The contributions of Marx to the conflict theoretical perspective and the recognition he has received led him to be considered a major fountainhead of sociology; the contributions of Weber to the interactionist theoretical perspective and the recognition he has received led him to be considered a major fountainhead of sociology; and the contributions of Durkheim to the conflict theoretical perspective and the recognition he has received led him to be considered a major fountainhead of sociology.

In contrast to the other three sociologists, Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau have two things in common: (1) They have not gotten their full due and credit because of their race and/or sex; and (2) they were all political activists. Du Bois has not received his full due and credit because he was a Black man. Wells-Barnett has not received her full due and credit because she was Black and a woman. Addams has not received her full due and credit because she was a woman. Martineau has not received her full due and credit because she was a woman. They are considered peripheral fountainheads because racism and/or sexism have pushed them to the margins and kept them from getting their full due and credit.

This paper will examine fountainheads of sociology that include Karl Marx, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Jane Addams, and Harriet Martineau. It will explore the pioneering contributions of Marx, Weber, Durkheim, and their status as the three main fountainheads of sociology. This paper will also explore the pioneering contributions of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, Martineau, and their status as four peripheral fountainheads of sociology. It will cover some of the things that are being taught about the sociological contributions of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau. This paper will address some implications of the research. This paper utilizes the case study method and the research technique includes content analysis of primary and secondary source documents.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature will focus on primary sources related to the life and times of Karl Marx, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Jane Addams, and Harriet Martineau. Karl Marx never wrote an autobiography. However, Wilhelm Liebknecht (1908), a close friend and follower, published a book titled Karl Marx Biographical Memoirs. In that book, Liebknecht provided a close-up look at the life and times of a man called the “MOHR” and the “Negro” because of his dark due. He covered the life of Marx from birth to death.

The life and times of Marx were also covered by Friedrich Engels (1883/1978), his close friend and collaborator, as well as T.B. Bottomore and Maximilien Rubel (1956). Whereas Engels looked at Marx his activities as a revolutionary, Bottomore and Rubel (1956) looked at his activities as a sociologist. Engels delivered a speech at the graveside of Marx wherein he addressed the ideas and actions of his friend. Engels began his speech by stating that, “An immeasurable loss has been sustained both by the militant proletariat of Europe and America, and by historical science, in the death if this man” (p. 681). He added:

*Marx also discovered the special law if motion governing the present-day capitalist mode of production and the bourgeois society that this mode of production has created. The discovery of surplus value suddenly threw light on the problem, in trying to solve which all previous investigations, of both bourgeois economists and socialist critics, had been groping in the dark.* (p. 681)

Engels said that Marx was the type of person who had an interest in merging “theoretical science” with “practical application” (p. 682).

Although he gave Marx credit for being a man of science, Engels (1892/1978) exclaimed that, “Marx was before all else a revolutionary” (p. 682). For Engels, Marx had the following purpose in his life:
His real mission in life was to contribute, in one way or another, to the overthrow of capitalist society and of the state institutions which it had brought into being, to contribute to the liberation of the modern proletariat, which he was the first to make conscious of its own position and its needs, conscious of the conditions of its emancipation. (p. 682)

As a result of his actions with the International Working Men’s Association, Engels posed that, “Marx was the best hated and most calumniated man of his time” (p. 682).

In the introduction to their compilation of some of Marx’s selected, Bottomore and Rubel (1956) related that, “Marx was a social scientist, a political philosopher, and revolutionary” (p. v). Bottomore and Rubel explained that, “His reputation as a scientist has suffered, to some extent, from the combination of these activities and still more from the historical vicissitudes of ‘Marxism’ as a political ideology” (p. v). They proceeded to identify some of Marx’s sociological concepts and methodology. According to Bottomore and Rubel, Marx’s sociological concepts include false consciousness, ideology, alienation, society, socialism, (p. 4, 5). They credited Marx with developing a “theory of value in Capital” (p. 1) and a “theory of class struggle” (p. 3). Likewise, Bottomore and Rubel credited Marx with having the following four themes in his sociology: (1) the economic structure of society; (2) the ideological superstructure; (3) social revolution; and (4) the future of society. For Bottomore and Rubel, a distinction could be made between historical sociology and a philosophy of history. They associated Marx with historical sociology and Hegel with a philosophy of history. Bottomore and Rubel made it clear that Marx had his sociological methodology as well as his sociological theories.

In terms of Marx’s sociological methodology, Bottomore and Rubel (1956) exclaimed that Marx made a distinction between (1) the method of investigation, and (2) the manner of exposition or the method of presentation. They quoted Marx as follows:

Of course the method of presentation must differ formally from the method of investigation. The aim of investigation is to appropriate the matter in detail, to analyse its various developmental forms, and to trace the inner connections between these forms. Not until this preliminary work has been effected can the movement as it really is be suitably described. If the description proves successful, if the life of the subject-matter be reflected on the ideal plane, then it may appear as if we had before us nothing more than an ideal construction.

My own dialectical method is not only fundamentally different from the Hegelian dialectical method, but is its direct opposite. For Hegel, the thought process (which he actually transforms into an independent subject, giving to it the name of “idea”) is the demiurge (creator) of the real; and for him the real is only the outward manifestation of the idea. In my view, on the other hand, the ideal is nothing other than the material when it has been transposed and translated inside the human head. (Marx quoted in Bottomore & Rubel, 1956, pp. 7-8)

Bottomore and Rubel asserted that Marx was concerned with emphasizing the empirical character of his method.

In sociology, the term empirical refers to research that has been conducted in a systematic manner and the researcher uses methodology that can be replicated by another researcher. Bottomore and Rubel (1956) credited Marx with being an empirical researcher and Capital with being the result of empirical research. They exclaimed that:

Marx’s intention was to produce an empirical work, by considering ‘the development of the economic structure of society as a natural historical process,’ and by studying the ‘social antagonisms which arise from the natural laws of capitalist reproduction. (p. 8)

Bottomore and Rubel reported that their examination of Capital revealed that it is “a presentation and analysis of sociological and historical data” (p. 8). They also reported that, “In fact, Capital is, among other things, one of the earliest, and still one of the most valuable, works of social history conceived in a sociological manner, i.e., as the history of social institutions” (p. 8).
Max Weber did not write an autobiography, but his wife Marianne Weber (1926/1988) wrote about his life and times in her book titled *Max Weber: A Biography*. As the title suggests, Marianne Weber set out to tell the life of story of the man she was married to for 27 years. That man was also her cousin. Like her husband, Marianne Weber became a sociologist in her own right. Her book detailed the life and times Max Weber from birth to death. Marianne covered his early education in grade school, his undergraduate studies at the University of Heidelberg, his military service in Strasbourg, and his undergraduate studies at the University of Berlin. Marianne Weber also covered his studies at the University of Gottingen as a referendar (i.e., junior barrister) and his doctoral studies at the University of Berlin. The latter culminated with his dissertation titled “On the History if Trading Companies in the Middle Ages.” Marianne Weber informed us that Max Weber fell in love twice. His first love was Emily Baumgarten, a first cousin through his mother. Helene Fallenstein Weber, the mother of Max Weber, and Ida Fallenstein Baumgarten, the mother of Emily Baumgarten, were sisters. His second love was Marianne Schnitger Weber, a second cousin. Max Weber, Sr., the father of Max Weber, and Karl David Weber, the grandfather of Marianne Schnitger Weber, were brothers.

In addition to many other areas of the life and times of Max Weber, Marianne Weber (1926/1988) discussed the writing of *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. Marianne Weber stated that Max Weber, during 1904, “The first part of this study appeared in the fall issue of the *Archiv*” (p. 279). She also wrote:

> The first part was completed before the American trip, in early summer of 1904; the second part appeared a year later and reveals the influence if his recent experiences. Not the least reason why these had stirred Weber so much was that in America he had been able to observe everywhere the living traces of the origins of the modern capitalistic spirit and this spirit itself in “ideal-type” purity. He had probably had the idea for this work for some time, in any case since the beginning of his recovery. His intensive study of the history and constitution of the medieval monasteries and orders during his stay in Rome may have been a preliminary for it. (p. 326)

Marianne Weber acknowledged a trip that Max Weber and she made to the USA in 1904. They went to the North, South, and far West as Oklahoma. The southern states they visited included Louisiana, Oklahoma, North Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland. They do not appear to have made it to Georgia, but they made it the District of Columbia. Among the Northern and Midwestern states they visited were New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Missouri, and Massachusetts.

The life and times of Max Weber were also addressed by Talcott Parsons (1958) and W. G. Runciman (1978) as well as Hans Gerth and C. Wright Mills (1946a, 1946b). Parsons related that Weber developed a reputation “as e author of the Protestant Ethic and as the author of the comparative studies in the sociology of religion and of the relations of economy and society” (p. xiii). Among other things, Parsons credited Weber with having developed a theory of bureaucracy as well as his concept of the Protestant Ethic. He also credited Weber with being “a diagnostician of the modern industrial order he has been one main architect of what is perhaps the most important alternative to the strict or loose Marxist type of emphasis” (p. xv). Parsons said that Weber was “not merely one of the most eminent empirical analysts of society of his time, but one of the few great original theorists” (p. xvi). He compared the contributions of Weber favorably with those of Emile Durkheim in France, Cooley in the USA, and George H. Mead in the USA.

Runciman (1978) made several generalizations about Weber. He said that Weber “has come to be widely regarded as the most important European social theorist of the twentieth century” (p. vii). Runciman also noted that Weber “has been described as not merely the greatest of sociologists but ‘the sociologist’” (p. 3). Whereas Marx resisted being called a Marxist, Weber, according to Runciman, resisted being called a sociologist. Runciman related that:

> ...for most of his career he would not have described himself as a sociologist at all. His own training was in history, economics and law; he was opposed to the creation of professorships if sociology; and in a letter written at the very end of his life he said that his only reason for being a sociologist was to rid the subject of the influence of the collective - or, as it would now be put, ‘holistic’ - concepts by which it continued to be haunted. (p. 3)
He continued:

Weber’s initial unwillingness to see himself as a sociologist sprang partly from his resistance to holistic concepts and his conviction that sociological explanations must relate to the self-conscious actions of individual people, and partly from his distrust of superficial generalization and his view of typologies as preliminaries to, not substitutes for, the analysis of institutions and events in their own context. (p. 3)

For Runciman, 1910 was a watershed year in the life and times of Weber. During that year, Weber began to work on his sociological treatise titled Economy and Society. That same year, Weber became a co-founder of the German Sociological Society.

Gerth and Mills (1946a) presented what they term a biographical view of Max Weber with an emphasis on the man and his work. They provided details on his life from birth to death. Among the things Gerth and Mills covered is love life. Gerth and Mills stated that his first love was his first cousin Emmy Baumgarten. Their mothers were sister. His second and last love was another cousin named Marianne Schnitger, who eventually became his wife. Weber’s grandfather and her grandfather were brothers. Marianne Schnitger became Marianne Weber after she married Max Weber in 1893.

As Gerth and Mills (1946b) pointed out, Weber wrote a lot in response to Marx in several ways. Gerth and Mills stated that, in one way, “Much of Weber’s own work is of course informed by a skillful application of Marx’s historical method” (p. 46). They said that, in a second way, “Part of Weber’s own work may thus be seen as an attempt to ‘round out’ Marx’s economic materialism by a political and military materialism” (p. 47). Gerth and Mills related that Weber took the position that Marx had made a mistake by “reducing the multiplicity of causal factors to a single-factor theorem” in the form of economic determinism (p. 47). They also charged that Weber took the position that Marx had made a mistake seeing the class struggle as “the central dynamic” (p. 49). In contrast, according to Gerth and Mills, “Weber does not class struggles and their part in history, but he does not see them as the central dynamic” (p. 49). They concluded that both Weber and Marx paid attention to interests and ideologies, and “Weber’s sociology is related to Marx’s thought in the common attempt to grasp the interrelations on all institutional orders making up a social structure” (p. 49).

W.E.B. Du Bois (1940, 1952, 1968) wrote three full-length autobiographies. The first was Dusk of Dawn. It was released during the first 72 years of his life. The second was In Battle for Peace. It was released during the first 84 years of his life. The third and final autobiography was simply titled the Autobiography of W. E. B. Du Bois. It was released posthumously. In Dusk of Dawn, Du Bois (1940) covered his experiences as a sociologist, social movement leader, and political activist. He detailed his life and times as a professor at Wilberforce University, an assistant instructor at the University of Pennsylvania, and a professor at Atlanta University. Du Bois also detailed his leadership within the following social movements: National Afro-American Council; Pan-African Association; Niagara Movement; National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP); and the Pan-African Congress. He addressed his experience as an author and editor. By the time he reached age 72, Du Bois had published many books and articles as well as edited journals and conference proceedings.

As he looked back over seven decades, Du Bois (1940) recalled his Black working-class background. His mother Mary Silvina Burghardt Du Bois worked as a housemaid; his father Alfred Du Bois worked as a barber; and his brother Adelbert Du Bois worked as a waiter and coachman. His uncle Jim Burghardt also worked as a barber. Du Bois related that, “The black Burghardts were ordinary farmers, laborers, and servants” (p. 114). Regarding his extended family, Du Bois wrote:

The economic status was not high. The early members of the family supported themselves on little farms of a few acres; then drifted to town as laborers and servants, but did not go into the mills. Most of them rented homes, but some owned little homes and pieces of land; a few had very pleasant and well-furnished homes, but none had anything like wealth. (p. 11)

He also said that his mother Mary Silvina Du Bois had “limited resources of income through the boarding the barber, my uncle; supplemented infrequently by day’s work, and by some kindly but unobtrusive charity” (p. 13).
Du Bois (1940) pointed out that a colossal event took place when he was freshman in high school. Unfortunately, his mother Mary Silvina Burghardt Du Bois had a stroke shortly after he entered high school. To help the household composed of his mother and himself have food, clothing, and shelter, Du Bois went to work during his first year of high school. He recalled that:

...I was keen and eager to eke out this income by various jobs: splitting kindling, mowing lawns, doing chores. My first regular wage began as I entered the high school: I went early of mornings and filled with coal one or two of the new so-called “base-burning” stoves in the millinery shop of Madame L’Hommedieu. From then on, all through my high school course, I worked after school and on Saturdays; I sold papers, distributed tea from the new A & P stores in New York; and for a few months, through the good will of Johnny Morgan, actually rose to be local correspondent of the Springfield Republican. (p. 13)

Du Bois related that he worked before and after school to help his mother with the bills. With this action, Du Bois was helping his mother take care of them and developing a work ethic that would stay with him for the rest of his life.

Du Bois (1940) experienced another colossal event in his life when he received an offer from the University of Pennsylvania to conduct an empirical study of Black people in Philadelphia. He left Wilberforce University and headed to the South Ward in Philadelphia where he lived and did his research over an 18-month period. Du Bois wanted to teach sociology at Wilberforce University, but was very frustrated because that institution only allowed him to teach classical European languages. Although the University of Pennsylvania hired him to do the research as an assistant instructor, Du Bois jumped at the chance to conduct one of the first empirical studies of a city in the USA. Du Bois said he saw this opportunity “a chance to study an historical group of black folk and to show exactly what their place was in the community” (p. 58).

In August 1896, Du Bois (1940) began his study and completed it in June 1897. During that period, Du Bois used a mixed-methods approach to conduct the research. Reflecting on his research, Du Bois said:

...I made a study of the Philadelphia Negro so thorough that it has withstood the criticism of forty years. It was as complete a scientific study and answer as could have then given, with defective facts and statistics, one lone worker and little money. It revealed the Negro group as a symptom, not a cause; as a striving, palpitating group, and not an inert, sick body of crime; as a long historic development and not a transient occurrence. (p. 59)

As a part of his study, Du Bois conducted a survey with structured interviews of 5,000 Black people as well as direct observation of social interaction, social relationships, and social structures. In addition, Du Bois completed secondary data analysis, completed case studies, and engaged content analysis of primary and secondary source documents.

Du Bois (1940) presented a paper in November 1897 at a conference sponsored by the American Academy of Political and Social Science. It was held in Philadelphia where he was conducting his research. Du Bois began his paper by calling for research that reflects “careful and systematic study” (p. 60). He also let the conferees know that his research involved “historical investigation, statistical measurement, anthropological measurement and sociological interpretation” (p. 61). In addition, Du Bois let the conferees know that he was engaged in the scientific study of Black people by looking at them as a “social group” and by looking at their “social environment” (p. 61).

Between the end of the 1890s and the end of the 1930s, Du Bois (1940), engaged in many empirical studies of Black people by engaging in systematic and careful research. Among that research were 14 studies released as a part of the Atlanta University Publications. There were also the studies that he conducted under the Department of Labor. He claimed that a White man destroyed some of his best work after it was turned over to the Department of Labor. Du Bois remembered:
To complete the study, Du Bois said he received the assistance of “Monroe Work, now at Tuskegee Institute, and R. R. Wright, now a bishop of the AME Church, and a dozen or more local employees” (p. 85). He identified S. S. McClure as the White man who was responsible for blocking and destroying his research on Lowndes County, Alabama.

In 1899, Du Bois (1940) experienced a colossal event with the lynching of Sam Hose. Du Bois said that the lynching of Sam Hose “broke in upon my work and eventually disrupted it.” This happened in two ways. First, Du Bois reached the conclusion that “one could not be a calm, cool, and detached scientist while Negroes were lynched, murdered and starved” (p. 67). Second, Du Bois reached the conclusion that it was idealistic and a false belief that “the world wanted to learn the truth and of the truth was sought with even approximate accuracy and painstaking devotion, the world would gladly support the effort” (p. 68). In the wake of the lynching of Sam Hose, Du Bois made a shift from being a conservative in the “Ivory Tower” to a political activist deeply involved with social movements, namely the Niagara Movement and the NAACP. As a leader in both social movements, Du Bois proceeded to wage struggle against lynching and other forms of racial injustice.

Du Bois (1952) used his book *In Battle for Peace* to address his experiences as a sociologist, social movement leader, and political activist between 1940 and 1951. He covered his life and times as a professor at Atlanta University and his leadership within the following social movements: National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP); Council on African Affairs; Peace Congresses; and the Peace Information Center. Du Bois experience as an author and editor. By the time he reached age 72, Du Bois had published many books and articles as well as edited journals and conference proceedings.

The book *In Battle for Peace* starts out with a chapter titled “About Birthdays” and it closes with a document titled “Some of the 83rd Birthday Greetings” in his appendix. In “About Birthdays,” Du Bois revealed that, “My first real birthday celebration was my fiftieth, when a dinner was given me at the Civic Club in New York City” (p. 1). Du Bois used that chapter to relate that a dinner was held for him when he returned from Europe and Africa in 1924; an elaborate celebration was in honor of his 70th anniversary; and celebrations were held in honor of his 80th, 81st, and 83rd birthdays. His document titled “Some of the 83rd Birthday Greetings” disclosed some of the best wishes he received from people in various countries. Among those people were Mary McLeod Bethune, Leslie Pinckney Hill, Charles H. Thompson, Benjamin E. Mays, Langston Hughes, and Du Bois Williams. The latter person was his granddaughter, a freshman at his beloved Fisk University. The celebration of the 83rd birthday of Du Bois was organized by a committee headed by E. Franklin Frazier.

For Du Bois (1952), the term peace “means the stopping of the slaughter of the weaker by the stronger in the name of Christianity and culture” (p. 15). He also explained that, “The modern lust for land and slaves in Africa, Asia and the South Seas is the greatest and almost the only cause of war between the so-called civilized people” (p. 15). Du Bois characterized that action as colonial aggression and imperial expansion. According to Du Bois, he got involved with the Council on African Affairs after receiving an invitation from Paul Robeson. He was active with the organization from 1948 to around 1955. As a longtime political activist, Du Bois was committed to fighting for justice for Black people via the Council on African Affairs and other organizations. Alongside Robeson, Du Bois served as co-chairman of the Council on African Affairs from 1948 to 1955.

Du Bois (1952) related that his battle for peace led him to get involved with three peace congresses and a conference held between 1949 and 1950. It also led him to get involved with an organization known as the Peace Information Center. Du Bois served as the chairman of the Peace Information Center from 1950 to 1951. He was recruited into the peace movement by O. John Rogge, a former Assistant Attorney-General of the USA. That same O. John Rogge betrayed him and served as the key government witness against Du Bois and five co-defendants in the so-called...
“agent of a foreign principal case.” Du Bois was charged with being an agent of “a foreign principal” along with four other people, namely Abbott Simon, Kyrlie Elkin, Sylvia Soloff, and Elizabeth Moos. The indictment of Du Bois occurred on February 8, 1951. On February 14, 1951, W.E.B. Du Bois married Shirley Graham Du Bois six days later. Subsequently, a trial took place in Washington, DC from November 8, 1951 to November 13, 1951. However, all charges were dropped against Du Bois and his co-defendants by a judge following the five-day trial. The book, In Battle for Peace, contains an informative comment section by Shirley Graham Du Bois in Chapters 1, 4, 7, 8, and 13. It also a short statement by Shirley Graham Du Bois in Appendix D titled “Aftermath - A Postscript.” The statement covers a February 14, 1952 letter from the State Department notifying W.E.B. Du Bois and Shirley Graham Du Bois that their passports were being withheld and retained in “best interests of the United States” (p. 137). The husband and wife had applied for passports to travel to the American a peace conference being held during March 1952 in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil to which they were invited.

In The Autobiography of W.E.B. Du Bois, Du Bois (1968) divided it into three parts. The first part addressed trips he has made to various countries. By the time he turned 91, Du Bois had made 15 trips abroad. Countries he visited included England, Holland, France, Scotland, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Turkey, Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, Russia, India, China, Sweden, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Liberia, Ghana, Nigeria, and Japan. Whereas he met with Prime Minister Nikita Khrushchev in Russia, Du Bois met with Chairman Mao Tse-tung and Prime Minister Chou En-lai in China.

Du Bois (1968), in the second part of the book, repeated some of the facts from his first autobiography. He covered his birth into a Black working-class family and his boyhood in Great Barrington. Du Bois explained that, “In my family, I remember farmers, barbers, waiters, cooks, housemaids and laborers” (p. 63). He also remembered that his mother “worked as a housemaid” (p. 65). That second part also dealt with his student experiences at Fisk University, Harvard University, and the University of Berlin. Du Bois shared his faculty experiences at Wilberforce University, University of Pennsylvania, and Atlanta University.

In the third part of the book, Du Bois (1968) focused on his work for peace, his indictment, his trial, and his summation of 10 decades of life. He discussed his leadership in social movements such as the Niagara Movement, NAACP, Council on African Affairs, and the Peace Information Center. Du Bois made it clear that he thought his interests in the Pan-Africa Movement and the Peace Movement converged. He explained that his interests in Africa were great. He stated:

> When I returned to New York from Atlanta in 1944 to become Director of Special Research for the NAACP, it was in my mind specifically for the purpose of concentrating on study of colonial peoples and people if Negro descent throughout the world, and to revive the Pan-African Congresses. From this plan came the Fifth Pan-African Congress in England, 1945; and my book, The World and Africa, in 1947. I should have liked to join the Council on African Affairs, and expected to be invited, but the secretary, Max Yergan, did not seem to want my cooperation. (p. 344)

After being forced into retirement from his academic post at Atlanta University, Du Bois headed to the headquarters of the NAACP to serve as Director of Special Research. He held that post for four years until getting forced out of the organization by Walter White, who had an autocratic leadership style that clashed with the independent-minded Du Bois.

Following his departure from the NAACP, Du Bois (1968) became involved with the Council on African Affairs and the Peace Information Center. Du Bois first joined the Council on African Affairs. He said:

> When I was dismissed by the NAACP as Director of Special Research in 1948, I was offered the honorary position of Vice-Chairman of the Council on African Affairs, without salary but with an office rent-free, and the services of a secretary to be furnished by the Council. (p. 345)

Du Bois explained that he took his position with the Council on African Affairs for the following two reasons: (1) His belief in the work the organization would do for Africa; and (2) his belief that no person or organization should be denied the right to a career because of political or religious beliefs.
During 1950, Du Bois (1968) joined the Peace Information Center. It was founded by Du Bois and other political activists in New York City after the World Congress of the Defenders of Peace held in Paris, France during April 1950. Subsequently, the Peace Information Center distributed “Peacemgrams” and a “Stockholm Appeal.” The latter was disseminated across the country as a petition to abolish the atom bomb. The petition garnered 2,500,000 signatures. The government of the USA responded by Dean Acheson, the Secretary of State, publishing an attack on the Peace Information Center in the New York Times on July 13, 1950. Some seven months later, on February 8, 1951, the officers of the Peace Information Center were charged with being unregistered agents of a foreign government. In the face of the government of the USA looming as a formidable enemy, the officers of the Peace Information Center decided to disband the organization effective October 1951. Although the organization disbanded, the government continued with the prosecution.

Du Bois (1968) related that the trial started on November 8, 1951 and ended on November 13, 1951. It lasted a total of six days before all charges were dropped against him and the other four defendants. Du Bois expressed that it was a pleasant surprise to be free of the charges. However, the government had confiscated his passport and refused to return it until years later. Thinking about the criminal justice scene in the USA, Du Bois said, “It is not enough to be innocent in order to escape punishment. You must have money and a lot of it” (p. 375).

In looking back at the 10 decades of his life, Du Bois (1968) fondly discussed his 90th birthday. It was celebrated at a party by his family and friends in New York City. The family of Du Bois present at the birthday party included Shirley Graham Du Bois, his wife, and Arthur Edward McFarlane II, his great-grandson. He also mentioned that Kwame Nkrumah invited him to attend his inauguration as the prime minister and leader of Ghana as an independent country. However, the government of the USA continued to withhold his passport and did not allow him to attend the event. Nevertheless, Du Bois wrote a letter to Nkrumah encouraging him to continue to embrace Pan-Africanism and “build a socialism founded on old African communal life, rejecting the exaggerated private initiative of the West” (p. 400).

Ida B. Wells-Barnett (1970) wrote one autobiography. The title was Crusade for Justice. It was published posthumously with her daughter Alfreda Barnett Duster as the editor. At the time of her death, Wells-Barnett was still working on the book. As a matter of fact, the very last sentence of the book stops in the middle. Nevertheless, Wells-Barnett left a document that shows the development of her life from the beginning to the end.

Like the other pioneer sociologists, Wells-Barnett (1970) was a polyglot whose career spanned many fields. She was an educator, journalist, court probation officer, social movement leader, and sociologist. As for methodology in her sociological research, Wells-Barnett engaged in a mixed methods approach. It consisted of the secondary data analysis method, observation method, and case study method. For Wells-Barnett, her sociological research was based on a search for the facts about social conditions.

In her autobiography, Wells-Barnett (1970) explained that she made a railroad train trip from Tennessee to Oklahoma via Kansas City to make direct observations of social conditions in the later. Because of racial oppression in Memphis, people were leaving that location and heading to Oklahoma. She wrote: “When got to Kansas City I told the general passenger agent that I wanted to go down to get the facts for my people so that they would know what to do” (p. 57). Regarding her research on lynching, Wells-Barnett stated that she had “a stern duty to give the facts I had collected to the world” (p. 71). Due to her reports in the New York Age between 1892 and 1895, Wells-Barnett said that, “The Negro race should be ever grateful to T. Thomas Fortune and Jerome B. Peterson of the New York Age that they helped me give to the world the first inside story of Negro lynching” (p. 71). She reported that her research indicated that lynching was “An excuse to get rid of Negroes who were acquiring wealth and property and keep the race terrorized” (p. 64). Wells-Barnett surmised that she used her research to make “a clear, plain statement of facts concerning the oppression put upon the colored people in this land of the free and home of the brave” (p. 117).

According to Wells-Barnett (1970), she wrote her autobiography to provide authentic race history about Black people for the youth. Wells-Barnett explained that, “it is therefore for the young people who have so little of our race’s history recorded that I am for the first time in my life writing about myself” 9p. 4). Looking at Reconstruction, Wells-Barnett wrote:
The history of this entire period which reflected glory on the race should be known. Yet most of it is buried in oblivion and only the southern white man’s misrepresentations are in the public libraries and college textbooks of the land. The black men who made the history if that day were too modest to write of it, or did not realize the importance of the written word to their posterity.

And so, because our youth are entitled to the facts of race history which only the participants can give, I am thus led to set forth the facts contained in this volume which I dedicate to them. (p. 5)

Like W.E.B. Du Bois, Carter G. Woodson, and some other Black writers during the first half of the 20th century, Wells-Barnett believed that if most White people knew the facts about racial oppression, they would oppose it. As a group, Wells-Barnett, Du Bois, and Woodson were optimistic about the power of facts and said so.5

Jane Addams (1910, 1930) wrote two autobiographies. One was titled Twenty Years at Hull-House and consisted of 18 chapters. The other was titled The Second Twenty Years at Hull-House and was composed of 12 chapters. In Twenty Years at Hull-House, Jane Addams shed light on the effects of industrialization in the USA. She provides details about some social conditions that developed into social problems between 1889 and 1909. Addams also provided regarding her social background. Addams explained that she came from a White prosperous family in Illinois, but still suffered from health problems as a child. She had a father who was well connected and a friend of Abraham Lincoln. After grade school, Addams headed to the Rockford Seminary, an institution that was all-White and all-female. Following her graduation, Addams headed to Philadelphia Medical College for Women to study medicine.

According to Addams (1910), her health surfaced again while attending Philadelphia Medical College for Women. As a part of her rehabilitation, a doctor recommended that she take a trip to Europe which she did. One of the places she went to was in England. While in England, Addams made a visit to the Booth House and was deeply impressed with how a settlement house could be used to help the poor. Addams resolved to create a settlement house in the USA to help the poor.

In 1889, Addams (1910) joined forces with Ellen Starr and created Hull-House, a settlement house located in Chicago. Although she was not a racist, the primary mission of Hull-House was to help poor White immigrants by providing them with counseling, job referrals, housing referrals, food referrals, a kindergarten, a day nursery, and cultural enrichment. While operating Hull-House, Addams started a campaign to establish child labor laws, labor unions, garbage removal services, child protective services, and effective educational programs. Also, while operating Hull-House, Addams got involved with sociology as an emerging both outside and inside academic institutions.

On the one hand, Addams (1910) used Hull-House as a community-based institution to bring together like minded people to study and analyze social conditions in the Chicago area. Their efforts led to a book titled Hull-House Maps and Papers. Addams recalled:

At the end of five years the residents of Hull-House published some first found facts and our reflections thereon in a book called “Hull-House Maps and Papers.” The maps were taken from information collected by one of the residents for the United States Bureau of Labor in the investigation into “the slums of great cities” and the papers treated of various neighborhood matters with candor and genuine concern if not with skill. The first edition became exhausted in two years, and apparently the Boston publisher did not consider the book worthy of a second. (p. 153)

She informed us that residents of Hull-House conducted research on social conditions in Chicago for the US Department of Agriculture and the US Department of Labor. On the other hand, Addams became involved with the Sociology Department at the University of Chicago. Adams related that, “I became a member of the university extension staff of the new University of Chicago” (p. 140). She also said: “The University of Chicago, opened only the year before the World’s Fair, was the great institution of learning to institute a department of sociology” (p. 182). Furthermore, Addams exclaimed that during the 1980s “the then new science of sociology had not yet defined its
own field” (p. 182). During the period between 1889 and 1909, Addams met and exchanged ideas with many thinkers and doers, including W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Leo Tolstoy, and many others.

In The Second Twenty Years at Hull-House, Jane Addams (1930) used that book to cover the period between 1909 and 1929. Addams explained that, “The period easily divides the first of which subdivides into five years of peace and five years of war” (p. 6). She added: “The second decade is continuously filled with the effect of the gregarious panic, which inevitably follows war and the rumors of its attendant revolutions” (p 6). Addams detailed her involvement with Hull-House initiatives, national issues, and international issues and how noted she played a leading role in social movements related to all three areas.

In terms of Hull-House, Addams (1930) related that its continuing mission was to serve the needs of poor people in Chicago, especially poor White immigrants. She discussed the development of Hull-House and the growth of its programs. The programs had a scope that was philanthropic and educational. Hull-House and the other settlement houses “in their approach to social problems they call now upon the sociologist, now upon the psychiatrist; the seek the services of artists, economists, gymasts, case-workers, dramatists, trained nurses” (p 411). To this list of services, Addams added that “one day they beg the anthropologist for a clue to a new immigration, and the next they boast that one of their pupils is playing in the symphony orchestra” (p. 411).

Addams (1930) acknowledged that Hull-House and the other settlement houses “issued various studies and fact-finding analyses of the city areas with which they are most familiar” (p. 405). She asserted that, “The settlements had antedated by three years the first sociological departments in the universities and by ten years the establishment if the first Foundations so that in a sense we were the actual pioneers in field research” (p. 405). Addams how addressed how a key relationship between Hull-House and the University of Chicago led to a development of a graduate school program related to social services as the latter institution. She wrote:

“These early efforts of the settlements in research, gradually made for a cordial cooperation between the social workers and the university men. The School of Civics and Philanthropy founded by Graham Taylor of the Chicago Commons, with which Julia Lathrop of Hull-House was early associated, after a useful career of twenty years, was taken over by the University of Chicago, and has developed into a graduate school of “Social Service Administration,” of which the dean, Edith Abbott, and Sophanisba Breckinridge, longtime residents if Hull-House are identified with the studies in social and family welfare carried on at the Northwestern University where Professor Arthur Todd is head if the department in which William F. Byron is also teaching. (p. 407)

Addams pointed out that the early settlements like Hull-House had a custom of “giving radicals in the city an opportunity to debate upon a free floor” (p. 407). According to Addams, Hull-House took this action because it believed that people cannot be “really useful in the long and delicate task of social amelioration” unless they know “the changes being urged by various bodies of people for a world which they honestly believe to be upon the brink of destruction” (p. 407).

As for national issues, Addams (1930) covered and analyzed the women’s movement, suffrage movement, and prohibition movement. Addams was a participant-observer in the women’s movement through her leadership of the National Federation of Women’s Clubs, Federal of Settlement Women’s Club, International Congress of Women, Women’s Peace Party, and the National Peace Federation. Likewise, Addams was a participant-observer in the fight for women to get the right of vote as a leader in the National American Women’s Suffrage Association. Due to her varied interests, Addams also was a participant-observer as a leader in the National Conference of Social Work, Juvenile Protective Association, NAACP, Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom, and the American Civil Liberties Union.

Regarding international issues, Addams (1930) addressed the impact of World War I and immigration. As World War I unfolded, Addams advocated peaceful negotiations instead of war to settle differences at the macro level. She examined the impact of quotas on White people seeking to migrate to the USA for economic or political reasons. Addams said that “the industrial needs of war-time and the immigration restriction following the war, resulted in a great increase of Negroes in the urban populations throughout the country” (p. 396). She stated that this social
condition impacted housing in the form of real estate values, social control, and “a complete segregation of the Negro in definite parts of the city” (p. 396). Addams reported her observations about Black music and commented on “those melodies which we have learned to call the only American folksongs and which have become the basis of the Negroes’ contribution to American music” (p. 399). She continued: “Perhaps because an oppressed people have always been sustained by their dreams the spirituals became the support of their failing spirits’’ (p. 399).

THREE MAJOR FOUNTAINHEADS OF SOCIOLOGY

Pioneering Efforts of Karl Marx as a Major Fountainhead

Social Background of Karl Marx

Karl Marx was a White man who was born in a middle-class family in Tier, Prussia (later Germany) on May 5, 1818. He died on March 14, 1883 in London, England. His father Herschel Marx and his mother Henriette (Pressburg) Marx were both Jewish. The family had to endure forced assimilation and converted to Christianity in the form of Lutheranism (Ritzer, 1983). Wilhelm Liebknecht (1908) stated:

Shortly after the birth of the boy, an edict was issued leaving to all the Jews no other choice but to be baptized or to forego all official position and activity.

The father of Marx, a prominent Jewish lawyer and notary public at the county court, submitted to the unavoidable, and, with his family, adopted the Christian faith. (p. 14)

Twenty years later, when the boy had grown to be a man, he gave the first reply to this act of violence in his pamphlet on the Hebrew question. And his whole life was a reply and was the revenge. (p. 14)

Thus, Marx and his family had to deal with cultural imperialism perpetuated by other White people in Europe. Liebknecht also said that Marx had to deal with the reality of his skin being swarthy and his hair kinky. Looking back at the life and times of his friend, Liebknecht recalled that he “frequented the house of ‘MOHR’ (negro) - like a member of the family. Under these circumstances, one cannot help learning and seeing more than others’’ (p. 7).

Regarding his family of procreation, Liebknecht (1908) related that Marx married Jenny Edgar von Westphalen, who was one of his “earliest friends and companions” (p. 14). Liebknecht credited Jenny’s father Ludwig von Westphalen with inspiring Marx to read the so-called Romantic School of European writers. He explained that “while his father read Voltaire and Racine to him, Westphalen read Homer and Shakespeare to him. And these ever remained his favorite authors” (p. 14). Prior to his marriage to Jenny Edgar von Westphalen, Marx attended grade school in his native Trier. After Marx completed grade school, he headed to the University of Bonn to study law. While attending that institution, Marx became engaged to Jenny Edgar von Westphalen. Marx left the University of Bonn and enrolled at the University of Berlin. At that institution, Marx shifted his studies from law to philosophy. He also became involved with a group of young intellectuals and political activists known as the Young Hegelians. As a member of that group, Marx embraced dialectical materialism as a method with which to analyze social conditions. However, Marx rejected the more metaphysical ideas of Hegel. Marx later transferred from the University of Berlin to the University of Jenna.

In 1843, Marx married Jenny Edgar von Westphalen after a seven-year engagement. Some two years before the marriage, Marx received a Ph.D. from the University of Jenna. His dissertation was titled The Difference Between the Democritean and Epicurean Philosophy of Nature. He dedicated his dissertation to Jenny’s father. Eventually, Marx and his wife had a total of seven children. Of that total, only three made it to adulthood. At least four of his children were females and they were all given the first name Jenny in homage to their mother. One of his sons was given the first name Edgar which was a middle name of hers (Liebknecht, 1908).

Marx made his mark in sociology through five ways. First, Marx conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. He also engaged in survey research, secondary data analysis, and
case studies. Second, Marx demonstrated that a scholar could merge theory with practice as a political activist. Third, Marx served as the leader of a social movement named the First Workingmen’s Association (aka the First International). Fourth, Marx published many articles and books, including volume one of *Das Kapital*, a classic sociological work which appeared in 1867. Following the death of Marx, his comrade Friedrich Engels edited and published volume two of *Das Kapital* in 1885 and volume three of *Das Kapital* in 1894. Fifth, the ideas of Marx led to the development of the conflict theoretical perspective in sociology.

*Groups Studied by Karl Marx*

Two of the main groups studied by Karl Marx (1867/1976) as a sociologist included the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. One group was the bourgeoisie. He also called that group the capitalists and the owners of wealth. Marx took the position that capitalists exploit the labor of the working class to make as much profit as possible. The other group was the proletariat. It was also known by him as the working class. Marx took the position that people in the working class sell their labor to the capitalists to get food, clothing, shelter, etc.

In volume two of *Das Kapital*, Marx (1867/1976) argued that capitalism has engaged “the entanglement of all peoples in the net of the world market” (p. 929). He also pointed to what he called “the international character of the capitalistic regime” (p. 929). Marx took the position that:

> Along with the constant decrease in the number of capitalist magnates, who usurp and monopolize all the advantages of this process of transformation, the mass of misery, oppression, slavery, degradation and exploitation grows; but with this there also grows the revolt of the working class, a class constantly increasing in numbers, and trained, united and organized by the very mechanism of the capitalist process of production. The monopoly of capital becomes a fetter upon the mode of production which has flourished alongside and under it. The centralization of the means of production and socialization of labour reach a point at which they become incompatible with their capitalist integument. This integument is burst asunder. The knell of capitalist private property sounds. The expropriators are expropriated. (p. 929)

On the one hand, Marx made a distinction between the capitalists and the working class. For Marx, the capitalists were the bourgeoisie, and the working class was the proletariat. He also went on record and used the terms petty bourgeois and lumpenproletariat. On the other hand, Marx made a distinction between the “capitalist private property” and “social property” or socialized property (pp. 929-930). Marx posed that, “In the former case, it was a matter of the expropriation of the mass of the people by a few usurpers; but in this case, we have the expropriation of a few usurpers by the mass of the people” (p. 930).

In his perspective, Marx (1867/1976) took the position that it was important to be aware of how capitalism evolved as an economic system based on imperialism, colonization, exploitation, and oppression. He wrote:

> The discovery of gold and silver in America, the extirpation, enslavement and entombment in mines of the indigenous population of that continent, the beginnings of the conquest and plunder of India, and conversion of Africa into a preserve for the commercial hunting of blacks, are all things which characterize the dawn of the era of capitalist production. These idyllic proceedings are the chief moments of primitive accumulation. Hard on their heels follows the commercial war of the European nations, which has globe as its battlefield. (p. 915)

Marx made it clear that White industrial capitalists from Europe developed a mechanism of “primitive accumulation” by oppressing and exploiting non-White people around the world, including the original people of the Americas (i.e., American Indians); the original people of Africa (i.e., Black Africans); and the original people of India (i.e., East Indians). He also noted that Chinese people in Asia faced imperialism, colonization, exploitation, and oppression via the Opium Wars.
Pioneering Efforts of Max Weber as a Major Fountainhead

Social Background of Max Weber

Max Weber was a White man who was born in a middle-class family in Erfurt, Germany on April 21, 1864. He died on June 14, 1920 in Munich, Germany. His mother was a Christian of the Calvinist type. After he completed grade school, Weber headed to the University of Heidelberg. At that institution, Weber studied law. Following a year in military service, Weber transferred to the University of Berlin. In 1889, Weber earned a doctorate of law. He wrote a dissertation on legal history titled The History of Commercial Partnerships in the Middle Ages. Shortly afterwards, Weber became a member of the faculty at the University of Berlin (Marianne Weber, 1926/1988; Ritzer, 1983).

In 1893, Weber married Marianne Schnitger, who was his cousin. Weber and his wife never had children. However, they had a very strong intellectual relationship that continued after his death. Upon his death, Marianne helped prepare some of his works for publication. Marianne also destroyed a chronicle he wrote about his struggle with a bout of mental illness in the form of depression. She thought it might make him look bad and help opponents to discredit his work (Marianne Weber, 1926/1988; Ritzer, 1983).

During 1894, Weber joined Albert-Ludwigs University as a professor of economics. He left that institution in 1896 to take a similar position with the University of Heidelberg. While at that institution, Weber became involved with the so-called Weber Circle, which included Georg Jellinek, Robert Michels, Werner Sombart, Ernst Troeltsch, and his wife Marianne Weber. Between 1897 and 1903, Weber struggled with mental illness and led him to being confined in a sanatorium at one point. After regaining his mental health, Weber resigned his from university position and became the associate editor of the Archives for Social Science and Social Welfare. The following year, in 1904, Weber published The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism. He first published the first half as a separate essay in 1904 and the second half as a separate essay in 1905. Although the material in The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism was initially published as separate essays, eventually they were compiled in one book with the present title (Marianne Weber, 1926/1988; Ritzer, 1983).

Weber made his mark in sociology through five ways. First, Weber conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. He also engaged in survey research, secondary data analysis, and case studies. Second, Weber was the co-founder of the German Sociological Association in 1909 and held the position of its first treasurer. Third, Weber as an associate editor of Archives for Social Science and Social Welfare. Fourth, Weber published many articles and books, including The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, a classic sociological work. Fifth, the ideas of Weber led to the development of the interactionist theoretical perspective in sociology.

Groups Studied by Max Weber

Two of the groups studied by Max Weber as a sociologist included Protestant capitalists and Catholic capitalists. One group was the Protestant capitalists. According to Weber, Protestant capitalists believed in frugality, abstinence, and salvation. Protestant capitalists also believed that salvation could be achieved by reinvesting profits back into the business. The other group was the Catholic capitalists. According to Weber, Catholic capitalists also believed in frugality, abstinence, and salvation. However, Catholic capitalists believed that salvation could be achieved through good deeds such as helping the poor.

In an introduction that appeared in The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, Weber (1920/1958) informed us that his work attempted to explain “the influence of certain religious ideas on the development of an economic spirit, or the ethos of an economic system” (p. 27). Weber also related that he was “dealing with the connection of the spirit of modern economic life with the rational ethics of ascetic Protestantism” (p. 27). He posed that his book treated “only side of the causal chain” (p. 27). Weber related that:

...we have no intention whatever of maintaining such a foolish and doctrinaire thesis as that the spirit of capitalism (in the provisional sense of the term explained above) could only have arisen as the result of certain effects of the Reformation, or even that capitalism as an economic system is a creation of the
In his discussion, Weber covered some important values and norms that played a role in the development of capitalism. Weber exclaimed that there were more Protestant capitalists than Catholic capitalists. Likewise, Weber posed that Protestant capitalists took the following position: “We ought not to prevent people from being diligent and frugal; we must exhort all Christians to gain all they can, and to save all they can; that is, in effect, to grow rich” (p. 175). Weber posed that two other important ideas connected to the Protestant Ethic were “attaining the grace of God,” “salvation,” and “call or calling” (pp. 79, 81, 84-86, 100, 104-106, 111, 117-119, 143, 145, 162). For Weber, Protestant capitalists embraced the notion that “God helps those who help themselves” (p. 115).

Pioneering Efforts of Emile Durkheim as a Major Fountainhead

Social Background of Emile Durkheim

Emile Durkheim was a White man who was born in Epinal, France on April 15, 1858. He died on November 15, 1917 in Paris, France. Durkheim attended a school known as the Ecole Normale Superieure from 1879 to 1887. At various lycees, Durkheim taught philosophy from 1882 to 1887. During 1887, Durkheim joined the faculty of the Universite de Bordeaux (aka University of Bordeaux). By 1896, Durkheim was promoted to professor of social science. During 1902, Durkheim joined the faculty of the Universite de Paris (aka University of Paris). By 1906, he was promoted to professor of sociology and the science of education (Ritzer, 1883).

Durkheim made his mark in sociology through six ways. First, Durkheim conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. He also engaged in survey research, secondary data analysis, and case studies. Second, Durkheim was the first sociologist to serve as a chairman of his own department in France. Third, Durkheim Martinetou conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. He also engaged in secondary data analysis and case studies. Fourth, Durkheim served as the founding editor of a journal titled *Annee Sociologue*. Fifth, Durkheim published many articles and books, including *Suicide*, a classic sociological work. Sixth, the ideas of Durkheim led to the development of the functionalist theoretical perspective in sociology.

Groups Studied by Emile Durkheim

Two of the groups studied by Emile Durkheim as a sociologist included people committing suicide in the urban areas (i.e., cities) and people committing suicide in the rural areas (i.e., cities). One group was people committing suicide in the urban areas (i.e., cities). Weber’s research indicated that the urban areas had less social solidarity and social integration than rural areas. The other group was people committing suicide in the rural areas (i.e., countryside). Durkheim said that rural areas had more social solidarity and social integration than urban areas.

In *Suicide*, Durkheim (1897/1952) stated that “the suicide is applied to all cases of death resulting directly or indirectly from a positive or negative act of the victim himself, which he knows will produce this result. An attempt is an act thus defined but falling short of actual death” (p. 44). On the one hand, Durkheim discussed suicide, psychopathic states, and identified four types of suicide among “insane persons” (pp. 62, 67). They were maniacal suicide, melancholy suicide, obsessive suicide, and impulsive or automatic suicide. He defined maniacal suicide as a social phenomenon wherein a person suffers from “hallucinations or delirious conceptions” and kills himself or herself “to escape from an imaginary danger or disgrace, or to obey a mysterious order from on high, etc.” (p. 63). Durkheim defined melancholy suicide as a social phenomenon wherein a person suffers from “a general state of extreme depression and exaggerated sadness, causing the patient no longer to realize sanely the bonds which him with people and things about him” (p. 63). He defined obsessive suicide as a social phenomenon wherein a person suffers from “a fixed idea of death which, without clear reason, has taken complete possession of the patient’s mind” (p. 64). Durkheim defined impulsive or automatic suicide as a social phenomenon wherein a person suffers from a condition that “results from an abrupt and immediately irresistible impulse” (p. 65).
On the other hand, Durkheim (1897/1952) discussed suicide, non-psychopathic states, and identified four types of suicide among people who may or may not be insane. The four types included egoistic suicide, altruistic suicide, anomic suicide, and stoic suicide. Durkheim explained that egoistic suicide “results from man’s no longer finding a basis for existence in life” (p. 258). He posed that altruistic suicide results from a situation wherein the “basis for existence appears to man situated beyond life itself” (p. 258). Durkheim related that anomic suicide “results from man’s activity’s lacking regulation and his consequent sufferings” (p. 258). He said that stoic suicide results when “egoism and altruism themselves, contraries as they are, may combine their influence” (p. 289). Based on his research, Durkheim (1897/1952) stated that, “Suicide is much more urban than rural” (p. 353). Durkheim also stated that, “Industrial and commercial functions are really among the occupations which furnish the greatest number of suicides” (p. 257). It was further noted by Durkheim that his research found a relationship between suicide and “economic disasters” in the social environment (p. 252).  

**FOUR PERIPHERAL FOUNTAINHEADS OF SOCIOLOGY**

**Pioneering Efforts of W.E.B. Du Bois as a Major Fountainhead**

*Social Background of W.E.B. Du Bois*

W.E.B. Du Bois (1968), a Black man, was born in a Black working-class family in Great Barrington, Massachusetts on February 28, 1868. Whereas his father Alfred Du Bois was a struggling barber and a former enlisted man in the Union Army during the Civil War, his mother Blank Burghardt was a maid who cleaned the homes of White people for a living. The family of orientation that Du Bois was born into consisted of his father Alfred Du Bois, his mother Mary Silvina Burghardt Du Bois, his half-brother Idelbert Burghardt, and himself. When Du Bois was two years old, Alfred Du Bois abandoned his blended family. After that, the family of three struggled to make. They received help from the Black Burghardt extended family who were farmers. When the Othello Burghardt died, the extended family lost its patriarch who kept the farm afloat. The Burghardt extended family experienced downward mobility instead of upward mobility.

When Du Bois (1968) was in the ninth grade, his mother experienced a stroke and lost the use of almost one-half of her body. Mary Du Bois’s health condition made it very difficult to earn a living. To help make ends meet, W.E.B. Du Bois worked before and after school to help pay their rent and put food on the table. Nevertheless, Du Bois managed to excel as the top student and was the valedictorian speaker at his high school graduation. Shortly after he finished high school in 1884, his mother died. A Black man and three White men came together and offered to raise the funds for him to attend college if he would use his education to help others. Du Bois accepted their offer and headed to college.

From 1885 to 1888, Du Bois (1968) attended Fisk University. During the summers, Du Bois taught in the country schools of Tennessee. He also served as the chief editor of the *Fisk Herald*. Following his graduation from Fisk University with a B.A. degree, Du Bois attended Harvard University and earned another B.A. in 1890 with cum laude status. Du Bois proceeded to earn a M.A. from Harvard University in 1892. During 1895, Du Bois became the first known Black person to earn a Ph.D. from Harvard University. The title of his dissertation was *The Suppression of the African Slave Trade to the United States of America, 1638-1870*. It became the first volume to be published in the prestigious Harvard Historical Series.

While putting the finishing touches on his dissertation, Du Bois (1968) took a post at Wilberforce University as a professor of Greek and Latin from 1894 to 1896. Du Bois left that position to take a position as an assistant instructor in sociology at the University of Pennsylvania where he was hired to do an 18-month study of Black people in Philadelphia. That research was eventually published in his book *The Philadelphia Negro*. Following the completion of his research, Du Bois served as a professor of economics and history at Atlanta University from 1897 to 1910. He also served as a professor of sociology and chairman of the Sociology Department from 1934 to 1944.

Du Bois (1968) made his mark in sociology through seven ways. First, Du Bois conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. He also engaged in survey research, secondary data analysis, and case studies. Second, Du Bois was one of the first sociologists to conduct empirical research in the
USA when he completed his study of Black people in Philadelphia. Third, Du Bois served as a professor and coordinated the Sociological Laboratory at Atlanta University wherein he, his colleagues, and students engaged in empirical research; and, coordinated the Atlanta University Conference on the Study of the Negro Problems and served as the editor or co-editor of the conference proceedings. Fourth, Du Bois conducted empirical research under the auspices of the Department of Labor of the USA and published the reports. Fifth, Du Bois demonstrated that a scholar could merge theory with practice as a political activist. Sixth, Du Bois served as the leader of social movements named the American Negro Academy, Niagara Movement, NAACP, Pan-African Congress Movement, Council on African Affairs, and the Peace Information Center. Seventh, Du Bois published many articles and books, including *The Philadelphia Negro*, a classic sociological work.

**Groups Studied by W.E.B. Du Bois**

Two groups studied by W.E.B. Du Bois (1899) as a sociologist included the Talented Tenth and the Black masses. Du Bois used the term Talented Tenth refers to Black men, women, and children who had managed to reach relatively high levels of education, income, wealth, and occupational prestige despite the social policies of the color line and the effects of the Veil. Du Bois took the position that the Talented Tenth had a special obligation and responsibility to help the Black Masses raise their levels of education, income, wealth, and occupational prestige, and wage struggle against the social policies of the color line and the effects of the Veil. The other group studied by Du Bois was the Black Masses. For Du Bois, the Black Masses refer to the other 90 percent of Black men, women, and children who had not managed to reach relatively high levels of education, income, wealth, and occupational prestige as a result of the social policies of the color line and the effects of the Veil. Du Bois took the position that the Black masses should strive to raise their levels of education, income, wealth, and occupational prestige and wage struggle against the social policies of the color line and the effects of the Veil.

In *The Philadelphia Negro*, Du Bois (1899) used identified four classes among the Black population of Philadelphia’s Seventh Ward. Those classes included the well-to-do, the working class; the poor; and the Submerged Tenth. Du Bois said that the well-to-do included:

*Families of undoubted respectability earning sufficient income to live well; not engaged in mental service of any kind; the wife engaged in no occupation save that of house-wife, except in a few cases where she had special employment at home. The children not compelled to be breadwinners, but found in school; the family living in a well-kept home. (pp. 310-311)*

He stated that the working class was composed of people who were “in comfortable circumstances, with a good home, and having steady remunerative work. The younger children in school” (p. 311). Du Bois related that the poor was composed of “persons not earning enough to keep them at all times above want; honest, although not always energetic or thrifty, and with no touch of gross immortality or crime. Including the very poor, and the poor” (p. 311). He reported that the Submerged Tenth was composed of the “lowest class of criminals, prostitutes and loafers” (p. 311). Du Bois related that, “The criminals and gamblers are to be found at such centres as Seventh and Lombard streets, Seventeenth and Lombard, Twelfth and Kater, Eighteenth and Naudin” (p. 311).18 For Du Bois (1899), there were actions that Black people could take to help themselves, actions that the White people could take to help Black people, and actions that the government could take to help Black people. Du Bois proceeded to make recommendations for action steps in each of those areas. He pointed out that racial discrimination against Black people and that there is “no doubt that in Philadelphia the centre and kernel of the Negro problem so far as the white people are concerned is the narrow opportunities afforded Negroes for earning a decent living” (p. 394). Regarding that which Black people could do to help themselves, Du Bois said Black people needed to engage in any legitimate job they could find while pursuing better jobs; engage in preventive and rescue work; engage in spending money wisely; engage in sending children to school, and engage in the well-to-do helping the Black masses. Du Bois related that Black people should take a job that was “menial and poorly rewarded” because it was a “greater disgrace to be idle than to do humblest labor” (p. 390). However, Du Bois also said that, “Against prejudice, injustice, and wrong the Negro ought to protest energetically and continuously” (p. 390). Thus, Du Bois advised Black people to accept any work they could find while trying to find and fighting for better work, including self-employment.
Du Bois (1899) urged Black people to keep minor girls off the street at night; escort young ladies to church and elsewhere; buy homes and other property; listen to lectures and read tracts on health and positive habits; avoid gambling; and respect Black women. He also urged Black people to spend money wisely and establish day-nurseries, sewing-schools, mothers’ meetings, parks, and airing places. In addition, Du Bois said that:

\begin{quote}
Above all, the better classes if the Negroes should recognize their duty toward the masses. They should not forget that the spirit of the twentieth century is to be the turning of the high toward the lowly, the bending of Humanity to all that is human; the recognition that in the slums of modern society lie the answers to most of our puzzling problems of organization and life, and that only as we solve those problems is our culture assured and our progress certain. (p. 392)
\end{quote}

Du Bois would later refer to the well-to-do as the Talented Tenth in his monumental book *The Souls of Black Folk*. He believed that it was in the interest of Black people for the Black masses and the Submerged Tenth to be helped by Talented Tenth.

In terms of that which the government could do to help Black people, Du Bois related that the government could provide better opportunities for Black people to get jobs, educational slots, and contracts by practicing what it preaches. Instead spending more money on jails and prisons, Du Bois reasoned that those funds could be better spent on upgrading public schools, parks, and housing. He also believed that the government could fight to eliminate racial discrimination against Black people. Regarding that which White people could do to help Black people, Du Bois keyed in on racial discrimination. Du Bois said that, “It is the duty of the whites to stop it, and to do so for their own sakes” (p. 394). He argued that:

\begin{quote}
Industrial freedom of opportunity has by long experience been proven to be generally best for all. Moreover, the cost if crime and pauperism, the growth of slums, and the pernicious influences of idleness and lewdness, cost the public for more than would the hurt to the feelings if a carpenter to work beside a black man, or a shop girl to stand beside a darker mate. (pp. 394-395)
\end{quote}

In his view, it was important for business world to realize that racial discrimination was having at least two negative outcomes. On the one hand, it led to talented Black people being passed over. On the other hand, it led to less talented White people getting positions. He wrote:

\begin{quote}
...talent should be rewarded, and aptness used in commerce and industry whether its owner be black or white; that the same incentive to good, honest, effective work be placed before a black office boy as before a white one - before a black porter as before a white one and that unless this is done the city has no right to complain that black boys lose interest in work and drift into idleness and crime. (p. 395)
\end{quote}

Du Bois posed that racial discrimination was causing Black boys to have lost of interest in work and causing them to be idle and commit what is now called crimes of survival. In contrast, that same racial discrimination was causing White people to benefit from White skin privilege.

**Pioneering Efforts of Ida B. Wells-Barnett as a Major Fountainhead**

**Social Background of Ida B. Wells-Barnett**

Ida B. Wells-Barnett (1970), a Black woman, was born into a Black working-class family in Holly Springs, Mississippi on July 16, 1862. She died on May 31, 1931. Her parents were James “Jim” Wells and Elizabeth “Lizzie” Boling Wells (aka Elizabeth “Lizzie” Arrington and Elizabeth “Lizzie” Warrenton). Like both of her parents, Wells-Barnett were born into slavery. In the case of her father, he was the son of a White slaveholder who held him in bondage. Wells-Barnett related:

\begin{quote}
My father [called Jim] was the son if his master, who owned a plantation in Tippah County, Mississippi, and one of his slave women, Peggy... When young Jim was eighteen years old, his father took him to Holly Springs and apprenticed him to learn the carpenter’s trade, which he expected him to use on the plantation. (p. 8)
\end{quote}
Thus, James Wells was a mulatto who was produced through the miscegenation of Morgan Wells, a White slaveholder, and an enslaved Black woman named Peggy.

According to Wells-Barnett (1970), Morgan Wells died in 1862. Upon his death, Polly Wells, who was also known as Margaret Wells, summoned Peggy and had her beaten. Some years after slavery had ended, Ida B. Wells-Barnett heard him say the following to her grandmother about Polly Wells:

Mother I never want to see that old woman as long as I live. I’ll never forget how she had you stripped and whipped the day after the old man died, and I am never going to see her. I guess it is all right for you to take care of her and forgive her for what she did to you, but she could have starved to death if I’d had my say-so. She certainly would have, if it hadn’t been for you. (p. 10)

Following the Civil War, many former White slaveholders fell on hard times with their human property being released from bondage and their farmland losing its property. Polly Wells fell into that category. On the one hand, despite the beating ordered by Polly Wells during slavery, Peggy forgave her and rendered some assistance with food. On the hand, Jim Wells never forgave Polly Wells for what she did to his mother.

In terms of her grade school days, Wells-Barnett (1970) explained that she attended a school in Tippah County which had high expectations. She recalled that:

Our job was to go to school and learn all we could. The Freedman’s Aid dad established [in 1866] one of its schools in our town - it was called Shaw University then but is now Rust College. My father was one of the trustees and my mother went along to school with us until she learned to read the Bible. After that she visited the school regularly to see how we were getting along. (p. 9)

Years after Wells-Barnett attended Rust College, it became a four-year college offering degrees. One of its original missions was to help prepare Black people to become teachers. Rust College has held on to that mission as of the year 2020.

When Wells-Barnett (1970) she was 16 years, a great tragedy struck the Wells family. James “Jim” Wells, Elizabeth “Lizzie” Wells, and their child Stanley Wells died over a short-period of time from Yellow Fever. To keep her siblings from being split up, Wells-Barnett disguised herself to look older and sought a job in another area as a teacher. She got the job and managed to hold the family together as a nurturing sibling. That experience had a profound impact on Wells-Barnett and she continued to nurture others for the remainder of her life.

After working as a teacher in Mississippi, Wells-Barnett (1970) decided to move to Memphis in 1880 with two of her sisters. Her two brothers remained in Mississippi where they had employment. Wells-Barnett got a job in Woodstock, a small town near Memphis. From 1880 to 1892, Wells-Barnett taught at schools in Memphis or Woodstock. To expand her knowledge base while teaching school, Wells-Barnett participated in the Memphis Lyceum, a literary society, to enhance her expertise in reading literature and making oral presentations. Wells-Barnett also began to write for various publications as a journalist and even purchased an ownership interest in a newspaper named the Free Speech and Headlight. In Memphis, there were two colossal events that impacted her life. One colossal event took place on September 15, 1883 when she was headed to work on a railroad train going from Memphis to Woodstock where her teaching post was located. A White conductor told her to get up from the first-class section and head to the Black section in another part of the train. Wells-Barnett refused to move. The White conductor went and got two other men and the three of them physically threw her off the train. Wells-Barnett sued the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad Company and won $500 in damages through a local circuit court. Her win was celebrated in Black newspapers across the USA. However, the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad Company successfully appealed the case to the Tennessee State Supreme Court in 1887 with the notion that Black people had no rights that White people were bound to respect.

During August 1892, Wells-Barnett (1970) reported that three of her friends named Thomas Moss, Calvin McDowell, and Henry Stewart (aka Lee Stewart) got lynched in Memphis because they were more successful as businessmen than a White competitor. The white competitor had a store in a Black section of Memphis known as
the Curve. Because of their interests in business, Thomas Moss, Calvin McDowell, and Lee Stewart opened a store named the People’s Grocery Company across the street from that of the White man. After Black people began to patronize the Black-owned store, the White man became jealous. He threatened the three Black men and told them that he and his other White supporters were going to attack them and destroy their store. Following a conflict in the area between some Black children and White children, the situation became more inflamed. On Blank, the White men attacked and the Black men fought back. A gun battle ensued wherein three White were shot with bullets and wounded.

According to Wells-Barnett (1970), uniformed police officers came after the shooting stopped and they arrested Thomas Moss, Calvin McDowell, and Lee Stewart and placed them in jail. A few days later a White mob went to the jail, snatched up the three men, and lynched them in another location. As a response to the lynching of the three Black men, Wells-Barnett wrote an editorial in her Free Speech and Headlight newspaper that criticized the actions of the White mob. A white mob responded to her editorial by going to the office of her newspaper and destroying the equipment. They also made a threat to kill her on sight if she showed back up in Memphis.

Wells-Barnett (1970) was in Philadelphia, PA attending a conference of the AME Church when the editorial came out and the attack on her newspaper office took place. Her friends in Memphis sent her a telegram about the situation, including the threats against her life. They asked her to remain in the North. As a result of the threats, Wells-Barnett became an expatriate in the North did not return to anyplace in the South until around 30 years later. To defend herself, Wells-Barnett said that she carried a pistol. She wrote:

> Although I had been warned repeatedly by my own people that something would happen if I did not cease harping in the lynching of three months before, I had expected that happening to come when I was at home. I had bought a pistol the first thing after Tom Moss was lynched, because I expected some cowardly retaliation from the lynchers. I felt that one had better die fighting against injustice than to die like a dog or a rat in a trap. I had already determined to sell my life as dearly as possible if attacked. I felt if I could take one lyncher with me, this would even up the score a little bit. (p. 62)

Wells-Barnett believed that Black people had a right to defend themselves against racist attacks by White mobs and other types of White terrorists. She made it very clear that self-defense was fine with her. Wells-Barnett proceeded to develop an anti-lynching campaign which became international in scope. She traveled to Europe several times to raise awareness about lynching as a social problem in the USA.

Wells-Barnett (1970) made her mark in sociology through four ways. First, Wells-Barnett conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. She also engaged in secondary data analysis and case studies. Second, Wells-Barnett was one of the first sociologists to conduct empirical research in the USA when she completed her studies of lynching in the USA during the 1890s and afterwards. Third, Wells-Barnett served as a founder of the Negro Fellowship League as one of the first settlement houses in the USA. Third, Wells-Barnett served as a leader in social movements named the National Afro-American Council and the NAACP. Fourth, Wells-Barnett published many articles and pamphlets, including A Red Record, a classic sociological work.

Groups Studied by Ida B. Wells-Barnett

Two groups studied by Ida B. Wells-Barnett (1895) as a sociologist included Black people who got lynched and White people who lynched Black people. Wells-Barnett took the position that most Black people got lynched for being prosperous, trying to vote, or being seen as uppity by racist or jealous White people. She also took the position that many of the White people lynching Black people came from the upper rungs of society and not just poor White people. Wells-Barnett suspected that a judge took part in the lynching of Thomas Moss, Calvin McDowell, and Will Steward.

In A Red Record, Wells-Barnett (1895) begins it by telling us that, “The student of American sociology will find the year 1894 marked by a pronounced awakening of the public conscience to a system of anarchy and outlawry which had grown during a series of ten years to be so common” (p. 7). She continued: “…scenes of unusual brutality failed to have any visible effect upon the human sentiments of the people of our land” (p. 7).
...the statistics as gathered and preserved by white men, and which have not been questioned by white men, and which have not been questioned, show that during all these years, and for all these murders only three white men have been tried, convicted, and executed. As no white man has been lynched for the murder of colored people, these three executions are the only instances of the death penalty being visited upon white men for murdering Negroes. (p. 7)

Wells-Barnett conducted a secondary data analysis of those statistics to develop her own theory of lynching. She also engaged in a content analysis of reports published in newspaper such as the Chicago Tribune.

Following Frederick Douglass, Wells-Barnett (1895) detailed three excuses that White people used to lynch Black people. One excuse was that “given to the civilized world for the murder of unoffending Negroes was the necessity of the white man to repress and stamp out alleged ‘race riots’” (p. 8). Wells-Barnett stated that, “Between 1865 and 1972, hundreds of colored men and women were mercilessly murdered and the almost invariable reason assigned was that they met their death by being alleged participants in an insurrection or riot” (p. 9). She related that, “No insurrection ever materialized; no Negro rioter was ever apprehended and proven guilty, and no dynamite ever recorded the black man’s protest against oppression and wrong” (p. 9). In contrast, Wells-Barnett found recorded dynamite that White mobs engaged in rioting and lynching to terrorize Black people. A second excuse was that, “The southern white man would not consider that the Negro has any rights which a white man is bound to respect, and the idea of a republican form of government in the southern states grew into contempt” (p. 9). To institute hegemony, Wells-Barnett said White people sought domination using “fraud, violence, intimidation and murder” (p. 10). Wells-Barnett added: “It was maintained that ‘This is a white man’s government,’ and regardless of numbers the white man should rule” (p. 9) A third excuse was that, “Negroes had to be killed to avenge their assaults upon women” (p. 10). Wells-Barnett said that the data revealed that there that were numerous instances were Black men were lynched although “the relationship sustained between the man and woman was voluntary and clandestine” (p. 11). Because she told the truth about lynching in defense of the Black race, Wells-Barnett explained that she was forced to become “an exile; her property destroyed and her return to her home forbidden under the penalty of death” (p. 11).

Pioneering Efforts of Jane Addams as a Major Fountainhead

Social Background of Jane Addams

Jane Addams, a White woman, was born into a White upper middle-class family on September 6, 1860 in Cedarville, Illinois. She died in 1835. Her father John H. Addams was a prosperous mill owner and politician. He served for 16 years in Illinois state senate. John H. Addams also served as a Union officer during the Civil War and had a friendship with Abraham Lincoln. Her mother Sarah Weber Addams was a housewife and died while pregnant with her ninth child (Addams, 1910).

Although she was born into money, Addams (1910) had a congenital spinal defect. It caused her many physical problems early in life. However, Addams was able to undergo surgery which helped to remedy the situation. The surgery was performed after she graduated from Rockford Seminary as Rockford University was then known. She was a student at that institution from 1877 to 1881. It had been attended by two of her sisters and her father was on the Board of Trustees. After graduation, Addams headed to the Woman’s Medical College of Philadelphia. Her goal was to be trained as a doctor. Addams recalled that:

The winter after I left school was spent in the Woman’s Medical College of Philadelphia, but the development of the spinal difficulty which had shadowed me from childhood forced me into Dr. Weir Mitchell's hospital for the late spring, and the next winter I was literally bound to a bed in my sister's house for six months. In spite of its tedium, the long winter had its mitigations, for after the first few weeks I was able to read with a luxurious consciousness of leisure, and I remember opening the first volume of Carlyle's “Frederick the Great” with a lively sense of gratitude that it was not Gray's “Anatomy,” having found, like many another, that general culture is a much easier undertaking than professional study. The long illness inevitably put aside the immediate prosecution of a medical course, and although I had passed my examinations creditably enough in the required subjects for the first year, I was very glad to have a
During her visit to England, Addams turned away from medicine and towards sociology. Addams further related that, “Before I returned to America I had discovered that there were other genuine reasons for living among the poor than that of practicing medicine upon them, and my brief foray into the profession was never resumed” (p. 83). She continued: “The long illness left me in a state of nervous exhaustion with which I struggled for years, traces of it remaining long after Hull-House was opened in 1889” (p. 83).

Upon her arrival back in the USA, Addams (1910) set out to establish a settlement house using London’s Toynbee House as a model. Addams united with a group of other progressive women and set about serving the needs of the poor. She was committed to the idea that those who have a lot on terms of education, wealth, and occupational prestige have a duty to help those who are less fortunate to rise up to their level. From 1889 to her death in 1935, Addams toiled away to meet the needs of poor White immigrants in Chicago. Addams also found the time to collaborate with W.E.B. Du Bois and Ida B. Wells-Barnett on mutual projects. She united with Du Bois and Wells-Barnett to create the NAACP in 1909 to fight against lynching as a social condition. Wells-Barnett also shared a mutual interest with Wells-Barnett regarding settlement houses. Whereas Addams had her Hull-House, Wells-Barnett had her Negro Fellowship League.

Addams (1910) used Hull House and the University of Chicago to make some of her contributions to the development of sociology as a discipline. Hull House became a gathering place of like-minded people to work together on scholarly writings and civic activities. The University of Chicago developed the first Department of Sociology in the USA. White men allowed White women like Addams to teach in that department and publish in a journal it controlled named the American Journal of Sociology. Between 1986 and 1914, Addams published five articles in the American Journal of Sociology.12

Through four ways, Addams made her mark in sociology. First, Addams conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. She also engaged in survey research, secondary data analysis, and case studies. Second, Addams was one of the first sociologists to conduct empirical research in the USA when she completed her studies of poor White immigrants under the aegis of Hull House. Third, Addams served as a leader in social movements named the American Anti-Imperialist League, NAACP, Woman’s Peace Party, International Congress of Women, International Committee of Women for a Permanent Peace, and the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom. Fourth, Addams was the first woman to earn a Nobel Prize for Peace. Fourth, Addams published many articles and pamphlets, including Hull House Maps and Papers, a classic sociological work.

Groups Studied by Jane Addams

Two groups studied by Jane Addams (1895a, 1895b) as a sociologist included prosperous White people and poor White people. Addams took the position that prosperous White people had a special obligation and responsibility to help poor White people adjust to living in Chicago and other urban areas by helping them to raise their levels of education, income, wealth, and occupational prestige. She also took the position that poor White people should strive to adjust to living in Chicago and other urban areas by raising their levels of education, income, wealth, and occupational prestige.

Addams (1895a), in Hull-House Maps and Papers, stated that the mission of Toynbee House, one of the first settlement houses in the world, was to urge “the primal ideal that a group of University men should reside in the poorer quarter of London for the sake of influencing the people there toward better local government and a wider social and intellectual life” (p. vii). Addams pointed out that Hull-House was founded on that same ideal when it was first established in 1889. An importance difference is that Addams saw the need to include both women and men in the efforts of Hull House to help poor White people in Chicago. She said that the book contained the observations of Hull-House residents regarding social conditions in Chicago.
In an essay she wrote for *Hull-House Maps and Papers*, Addams (1895b) put forth the argument that the “social conscience” should be concerned about the plight of the working class and working poor struggling to have a “living wage” in the sewing-trades as shirtmakers and cloakmakers. She further argued that to create a social condition marked by people with a living wage “the most obvious line of action will be organization through the trades-unions, a movement already established” (p. 187-188). For Addams, a settlement house could be a factor in the labor movement by prosperous people helping poor people to improve their social life through the promotion of trade-unionism. Addams reported that, at Hull-House, “The shirtmakers were organized in the spring of 1891” (p. 188). She also reported that, “The cloakmakers were organized at Hull-House in the spring of 1892” (p. 189). It became known as the Woman’s Cloakmakers’ Union. Addams believed that the promotion of trade-unionism was an appropriate endeavor for Hull-House to help poor people attain a living-wage and said so. According to Addams, her and other residents observed the need for trade-unionism due to the fact that, “Hull-House is situated in the midst of the sweaters’ district of Chicago” (p. 184).

**Pioneering Efforts of Harriet Martineau as a Major Fountainhead**

*Social Background of Harriet Martineau*

Harriet Martineau, a White woman, was born into a White upper middle-class family on June 12, 1802 in Norwich, England. She died on June 27, 1876 in Ambleside, England. Thomas Martineau, the father of Harriet Martineau, was a prosperous mill owner and a Unitarian. Her mother, Elizabeth (Rankin) Martineau, was a housewife who had eight children with Thomas Martineau. Harriet Martineau was the sixth of those eight children (Martineau, 1877a; Lengermann & Niebrugge, 1998).

According to Martineau (1877a), her childhood was marked by physical problems although she was born into money. She suffered from problems with her hearing. Martineau also suffered from problems with her sense of taste and smell. By the time she reached the age of 12, Martineau had lost most of her hearing. In 1820, Martineau received an ear trumpet which improved her ability to hear sounds. Nevertheless, Martineau developed a love for reading early on. Additionally, Martineau developed the ability to express herself in writing. As an adolescent, Martineau probably attended a Unitarian academy as well as got exposed to a “Great Books Education.” When she was 20 years old, Martineau published the first of many writings during her lifetime. It was titled “Female Writers on Practical Divinity” and appeared in the Unitarian journal known as the *Monthly Repository*. It was an anonymous essay wherein she did not list her name (Lengermann & Niebrugge, 1998).

As Lengermann and Niebrugge (1998) have pointed out, Martineau published many essays and books with her name until she died. In fact, Martineau wrote a two-volume autobiography shortly before her death and stipulated that it was to be released posthumously. Despite her lack of a college education, Martineau proved to be a profound thinker who could make succinct analyses of the social environment. Martineau was also an abolitionist and a feminist. In 1834, Martineau came to the USA and stayed for almost two years. She traveled in the North and South before returning to England. Upon her return to England, Martineau (1837) wrote her book titled *Society in America*. It was one of her first forays into sociology. Martineau (1838) followed that up with another foray into sociology by writing *How to Observe Morals and Manners*. During the next year, Martineau (1841a, 1841b) published a multi-volume novel titled *The Hour and the Man: An Historical Romance*. That novel covered the life and times of Toussaint L’Ouverture, a Black leader who led a successful 1804 overthrow of slavery in Haiti. Some 14 years after the last of those efforts, Martineau (1853/2009a, 2009b) translated the works of Auguste Comte from French to English so that more people will have access to the ideas of the man who was first European to use the term sociology.

Martineau made her mark in sociology through four ways. First, Martineau conducted observation research in terms of participant observation and unobtrusive measures. She also engaged in case studies. Second, Martineau was the first known female sociologist in the world. Third, Martineau published many essays and books, including *Society in America*, a classic sociological work.

*Groups Studied by Harriet Martineau*
Two of the groups studied by Harriet Martineau (1837a, 1837b, 1837c) as a sociologist were oppressed enslaved Africans and oppressed White women. Martineau took the position that slavery should be abolished and that the founders of this country were hypocrites for holding enslaved Africans in bondage. She also took the position that women should have equality the opportunity to be educated and have professional careers and not just be raised to be breeders of children.

In Society on America, Martineau (1837a, 1837b, 1837c) noted that she visited the USA in the USA from September 19, 1834 to August 1, 1836. While in the USA, Martineau travelled in the North and South making observations about social conditions. Martineau observed the plight of the enslaved Black people and concluded they were faced with oppression from the White people. She also said White women were also oppressed because they were treated as the property of their husbands because sexism and often denied careers for which they had the aptitude. Upon her return to England, she published her observations in Society in America.

In a chapter subtitled “Morals of Slavery,” Martineau (1837b) explored the oppression suffered by Black people under enslavement. She wrote:

This title is not written down in a spirit of mockery; though there appears to be a mockery somewhere, when we contrast slavery with the principles and the rule which are the test of all American institutions: - the principles that all men are born free and equal; that rulers derive their just powers from the consent of the governed; and the rule of reciprocal justice. This discrepancy between principles and practice needs no more words. But the institution of slavery exists; and what we have to see is what the morals are of the society which is subject to it. (pp. 106-107)

Martineau also wrote that, “The personal oppression of the negroes is the grossest vice which strikes a stranger in the country. It can never be otherwise when human beings are wholly subjected to the will of other human beings” (p. 112). According to Martineau, she found a gap between that which White people said and that which they did. Martineau raised the following two questions: What social virtues are possible in a society of which injustice is the primary characteristic? What social virtues are possible in a society which is divided into two classes, the servile and the imperious? Based on her observations, Martineau concluded that the White people were hypocrites.

As an abolitionist, Martineau (1837b) praised the actions of the American Indians in the Seminole Nation when they refused to turn their backs on their Black Maroons comrades. Martineau wrote:

In the eyes of the people who do not yet see the whole case, the only evil which has arisen out of the possession of Florida, is the Seminole War. They breathe an intense hatred against the Seminole Indians; and many fine young men have gone down into Florida, and lost their lives in battle, without being aware that they were fighting for oppressors against the oppressed. Probably few of the United States troops who fell in the late Seminole war knew how the strife arose. According to the laws of the slave States, the children of the slaves follow the fortunes of the mother. It will be seen, at a glance, what consequences follow from this; how it operates as a premium upon the licentiousness among white men; how it prevents any but mock marriages among slaves; and also what effect it must have upon any Indians with whom slave women have taken refuge. The late Seminole war arose out of this law. The escaped slaves had intermarried with the Indians. The masters claimed the children. The Seminole fathers would not deliver them up. Force was used to tear the children from their parents’ arms, and the Indians began their desperate, but very natural work of extermination. They have carried on the war with eminent success, St. Augustine, the capital, being now the only place in Florida where the whites can set foot. (pp. 70-71)

In her view, Martineau was hopeful that “the American people may possibly have learned enough of the facts of the case to silence those who boast of the acquisition of Florida, as an increase of the national glory” (p. 71).

Martineau (1837b) did not visit Florida, but she made it to Louisiana. While in New Orleans, Martineau (1837b) observed the system of placage wherein White men would take become involved with Black Creole as concubines. She wrote:
The Quadroon girls of New Orleans are brought up by their mothers to be what they have been; the mistresses of white gentlemen. The boys are some of them sent to France; some placed on land in the back of the State; and some are sold in the slave-market. They marry women of a somewhat darker colour than their own; the women of their own colour objecting to them, “ils sont si degoutants!” The girls are highly educated, externally, and are, probably, as beautiful and accomplished a set of women as can be found. Every young man early selects one, and establishes her in one of those pretty and peculiar houses, whole rows of which may be seen in the Remparts. The connexion now and then lasts for life: usually for several years. In the latter case, when the time comes for the gentle man to take a white wife, the dreadful news reaches his Quadroon partner, either by a letter entitling her to call the house and furniture her own, or by the newspaper which announces his marriage. The Quadroon ladies are rarely or never known to form a second connexion. Many commit suicide: more die brokenhearted. Some men continue the connexion after marriage. Every Quadroon woman believes that her partner will prove an exception to the rule of desertion. Every white lady believes that her husband has been an exception to the rule of seduction. (pp. 116-117)

In Louisiana, it defined a Quadroon as a Black person who was one-fourth Black and three-fourths White; an Octaroon as a Black person who was a one-eighth Black and seven-eighths White; and a Mulatto as a person who one-half Black and one-half White. Martineau also informed us that, “The law declares that the children of slaves are to follow the fortunes of the mother. Hence the practice of planters selling and bequeathing their own children” (p. 112).

In addition to being an abolitionist, Martineau (1837a) was a feminist who believed that White women should be treated equally to White men and that White girls should be treated equally to White boys. Regarding White women, Martineau made the case that they faced sexism and oppression from White men despite their White skin privilege. She complained that White women basically had “a political non-existence” (p. 148). Martineau remarked: “One of the fundamental principles announced in the Declaration of Independence is, that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. How can the political condition of women be reconciled with this? (p. 148). As a response to that situation, Martineau added:

*The principle of the equal rights of both halves of the human race is all we have to do with here. It is the true democratic principle which can never be seriously controverted, and only for a short time evaded. Governments can derive their just powers only from the consent of the governed.* (p. 154)

For Martineau, the social conditions she found in the USA were unacceptable. Martineau also called Thomas Jefferson and White men like him an “advocate of despotism” because of their actions created “unjust” social conditions (pp. 148-149).

Regarding the oppression suffered by White women at the hands of White men, Martineau (1837c) complained in a chapter subtitled “Marriage” that:

*The intellect of women is confined by an unjustifiable restriction of both methods of education, by express teaching, and by the discipline of circumstance. The former, through prior in the discipline of each individual, is a direct consequence of the latter, as regards the whole of the sex. As women have none of the objects in life for which an enlarged education is considered requisite, the education is not given. Female education in America is much what it is in England.* (p. 107)

Martineau also said that, “Women continue to be ill-educated, passive, and subservient: or well-educated, vigorous, and free only upon sufferance” (p. 120). She further related that, “I have spoken of the early marriages of silly children in the south and west, where owing to the disproportion of numbers, every woman is married before she well knows how serious a matter human life is” (p. 120).
IMPLICATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

This paper has four implications in the form of significant consequences. One significant consequence is that it examines fountainheads of sociology that include Karl Marx, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Jane Addams, and Harriet Martineau. Many sociologists teach that Marx, Weber, Durkheim, Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau made major contributions to sociology with their publications and actions in social movements. A second significant consequence is that it explores the pioneering efforts of Marx, Weber, Durkheim, and their status as the three main fountainheads of sociology. This study has examined the contributions of Marx, Weber, and Durkheim to the three major theoretical perspectives in sociology. The ideas and concepts of Marx led the foundation for the conflict theoretical perspective. With his ideas and concepts, Weber laid the foundation for the interactionist theoretical perspective. The ideas and concepts of Durkheim laid the foundation for the functionalist theoretical perspective. This study has also identified some of the classic works published by Marx, Weber, and Durkheim in the discipline of sociology.

A third significant consequence is that it explores the pioneering efforts of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, Martineau, and their status as four peripheral fountainheads of sociology. Because of their race and/or sex, the ideas and concepts have sometimes been overlooked or ignored. However, an examination of their writings show that the ideas and concepts of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau regarding social conditions overlap with the three major fountainheads. This study has identified some of the classic works published by Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau in the discipline of sociology. A fourth significant consequence is that it covers some of the things that are being taught about the sociological contributions of Marx, Weber, Durkheim, Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau. This study points out that many sociologists teach that Marx, Weber, Durkheim, Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau are all fountainheads of sociology. On the one hand, Marx, Durkheim, and Weber had three things in common. First, all three were White men from Europe. Marx was German, Weber was German, and Durkheim was French. Second, all three were political activists. Third, all three were interested in social change at the macro level. On the other hand, Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau had two things in common. First, all four have not gotten their full due and credit in sociology because of racism and/or sexism. Second, all four were political activists. Third, all four were interested on social change at the macro level.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This paper has examined fountainheads of sociology that include Karl Marx, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim, W.E.B. Du Bois, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, Jane Addams, and Harriet Martineau. It explored the pioneering contributions of Marx, Weber, Durkheim, and their status as the three main fountainheads of sociology. This paper also explored the pioneering contributions of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, Martineau, and their status as four peripheral fountainheads of sociology. It covered some of the things that are being taught about the sociological contributions of Marx, Weber, and Durkheim. Likewise, this paper covered some of the things that are taught about the sociological contributions of Du Bois, Wells-Barnett, Addams, and Martineau.

In the view of the present writer, each of the seven fountainheads made important contributions to the development of sociology as a discipline. Those contributions came in the form of their writings and their actions. Their writings contain their ideas, concepts, and theories about social conditions as they saw them. Their actions include participation in many social movements as leaders. On the one hand, all seven engaged in extensive analysis of social conditions. On the other hand, all seven engaged in extensive efforts to change social conditions through leadership and organization. In the case of Marx, Weber, and Durkheim, their ideas led to the three major perspectives in sociology. Marx has received credit for providing the ideas and concepts that led to the development of the conflict theoretical perspective. Weber has been credited for providing the ideas and concepts that led to the development of the functionalist theoretical perspective. Durkheim has received credit for providing the ideas and concepts that led to the development of the interactionist theoretical perspective.

Along with their actions in social movements, all seven fountainheads have given us some classic works in the discipline of sociology. Marx provided Capital and other works. He was an organizer and leader of the organizer and leader in the International Working Men's Association, also known as the First International. Weber provided The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism and other works. He was an organizer and leader of the German
Sociological Society. Durkheim provided *Suicide* and other works. He was an organizer and leader of the French Sociological Society.

Du Bois provided *The Philadelphia Negro* and other works. He was an organizer of the American Negro Academy, Niagara Movement, NAACP, Pan-African Congress Movement, Council on African Affairs, and the Peace Information Center. Wells-Barnett provided *A Red Record* and other works. She was an organizer and leader of the London Anti-Lynching Association, National Afro-American Council Anti-Lynching Bureau, Negro Fellowship League, and the NAACP. Addams provided *Hull-House Maps and Papers* and other works. She was an organizer and leader of the National Federation of Women’s Clubs, Federal of Settlement Women’s Club, International Congress of Women, Women’s Peace Party, National Peace Federation, National American Women’s Suffrage Association, National Conference of Social Work, Juvenile Protective Association, NAACP, Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom, and the American Civil Liberties Union. Martineau provided *Society in America* and other works. She was an organizer and leader of Blank.

Although the four peripheral fountainheads have not been credited with their ideas creating one of the three major theoretical perspectives, each of them, like the three major fountainheads, have given us some classic works in the discipline of sociology. Together, the seven fountainheads have left a tremendous legacy to be drawn from as contemporary and future sociologists seek to use the sociological imagination and sociological concepts to analyze social conditions in the social environment. All seven fountainheads have left important legacies of how theory can be merged with practice.

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END NOTES

1. Even though he was an Arab African, his famous book *The Muqaddimah* indicates that Ibn Khaldun considered Black Africans as “the other.” His book also indicates that Khaldun was prejudiced against Black Africans and made disparaging remarks about them. It should be noted that sociology has a long history of anti-Black people racism among the first people to use the term in the USA. As E. Franklin Frazier (1947) and Benjamin Bowser (1981) have noted, the term sociology was used by Henry Hughes (1854) and George Fitzhugh (1854) long before William Graham Sumner and Lester Frank Ward. Hughes wrote a book titled *Treatise on Sociology* and Fitzhugh wrote one titled *Sociology of the South: or the Failure of Free South*. Both authors were what Ron Takaki (1979) called White “culture-makers” who defended the enslavement of Black people (p. xv). As they grappled with slavery as what Kenneth Stamp (1956) called the “peculiar institution,” Hughes and Fitzhugh defended it as an economic necessity and as part of the natural order of superior over inferior persons (p. 3). The pro-slavery arguments posed by Hughes and Fitzhugh in the USA were the same as Henry Spencer’s defense of colonialism (Bernard, 1936; Bowser, 1981; Fitzhugh, 1854; Frazier, 1947; Hughes, 1854). For a book by an Arab African who was less prejudiced against Black Africans than Ibn Khaldun, see Battuta (1929). See also Lee (1929) and Dunn (2012).

2. Bottomore and Rubal (1956) informed us that Marx, at the start of 1858, “resumed his scientific work after a long interruption” (p. 1). They have suggested that Marx had been preoccupied with his work as a political activist. Tucker (1978) states that Marx and his friend Friedrich Engels developed a partnership in 1844, participated together in the 1848 German revolution, and co-wrote the Communist Manifesto in 1848. Tucker also acknowledged Marx’s role as an organizer and leader in the International Working Men’s Association (aka First International), which was founded in London during 1864.

3. Bottomore and Rubal (1956) pointed out that Marx did not say that he was the discover of the existence of classes in society. According to them, Marx wrote: “No credit is due to for discovering the existence of classes in modern society, nor yet the struggle between them” (Quoted in Bottomore and Rubal, 1956, p. 3). Marx continued: “Long before me bourgeois historians had described the historical development of this struggle of the classes and bourgeois economists the economic anatomy of the classes” (p. 4). Bottomore and Rubal noted that there were people who influenced and people who he influenced. People who influenced Marx include Georg Wilhelm Hegel; Ludwig Feuerbach; Henri de Saint-Simon; David Ricardo; Adam Smith; Francois Quesnay; and Friedrich Engels. People who Marx influenced include Maksim Kovalevsky; Enrico Ferri; Ferdinand Tonnies; Paul de Liliinfeld; Casimir de Kellus-Krauz; Georges Sorel; Rudolf Stammers; Alvaro Simiand; Antonio Labriola; Giovanni Gentile; Thomas Garrigue Masaryk; Nikolay Konstantinovich Mikhaylovsky (aka N.K. Mikhailovskiy); V.S. Lenin; Georgi Valentinnovich Plekhanov; Mykhailo Tugan-Baranovsky; Franz Mehring; John Atkinson Hobson; Alessandro Groppalli; Rudolf Hilferding; Georg Simmel; Albion Woodbury Small; George Herbert Mead; Thorstein Veblen; David Riazanov; Gustav Mayer; Max Nettiau; Nikolai Bukharin; Karl Kautsky; Max Adler; Erich Fromm; Herbert Marcuse; Raymond Aron; Karl Mannheim; Georg Lukacs; Ernest Labrousse (aka Camille Ernest Labrousse); Joseph Schumpeter (aka Joseph Alois Schumpeter); Karl Popper (aka K.R. Popper); Maurice Dobb (aka M.H. Dobb); Georges Gurvitch; Harold Laski (Harold Joseph Laski); and Jean Piaget. Bottomore and Rubal called for the “disappearance of a ‘Marxist’ sociology” (p. 48). They continued: “Modern sociology is not the sociology of Marx, anymore that it is the sociology of Durkheim, or Weber, or Hobhouse” (p. 48). Bottomore and Rubal concluded that sociology “is a science which has advanced some way towards freeing itself from the various philosophical systems in which it originated, and with which its founders were still embroiled” (p. 48). It should also be noted that Marx once declared that he was not a Marxist. Huey P. Newton (1972) has informed us that:

> Marx was a very intelligent man. He was not a dogmatist. Once he said, “One thing I’m not, I’m not a Marxist.” In those words, he was trying to tell the Progressive Labor Party and others not to accept the past as the present or the future, but to understand it and be able to predict what might happen in the future and therefore act in an intelligent way to bring about the revolution that we all want. (p. 29)

However, like Marx, Newton believed that dialectical materialism was a useful tool to analyze social conditions and to develop solutions for social problems.
4. Bottomore and Rubal (1956) gave V.S. Lenin credit for making one of the first attempts to use “Marx’s sociological categories in empirical research” (p. 39). They also said that, “Lenin wrote a pamphlet in which he presented Marx as the founder of scientific sociology” (p. 38). For the work that was one of the first attempts to use Marx’s sociological categories in empirical research, see The Development of Capitalism in Russia by Lenin (1894/1977a). For the work that identified Marx as the founder of scientific sociology, see What the “Friends of the People” Are and How They Fight the Social-Democrats by Lenin (1899/1977a).

5. For their positions on the power of facts, see Du Bois (1940, 1968), Wells-Barnett (1970), and Woodson (1925).

6. Liebknecht (1908) stated that, Henrietta Pressburg, the mother of Karl Marx, “was descended from Hungarian Jews who had settled in Holland in the seventeenth century” (p. 14).

7. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels (1848/1969) used the term petty bourgeoisie to refer to smaller capitalists. Marx (1852/1969) used the term lumpenproletariat to refer to people who survive by engaging in the underground economy of a given society and have not been able find employment or chose not to sell their labor in the aboveground economy. In his own words, Marx said that the lumpenproletariat included “vagabonds, discharged soldiers, discharged jail-birds, escaped galley-slaves, swindlers, mountebanks, lazzaroni, pickpockets, tricksters, gamblers, maquereaux, brothel-keepers, porters, literati, organ-grinders, rag-pickers, knife-grinders, tinkers, beggars” (p. 442).

8. Alexander Stephens (1866), the White vice president of the Confederacy and a contemporary of Karl Marx, referred to the enslavement of Black people as “the cornerstone” of the Confederacy and slavery as a “peculiar institution” (p. 721). Regarding the Confederacy, Stephens stated that “its foundations are laid, its corner-stone rests, upon the great truth that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery subordination to the superior race is his natural and normal condition” (p. 721). Stephens added:

   With us, all of the white race, however high or low, rich or poor, are equal in the eye of the law. Not so with the negro. Subordination is his place. He, by nature, or by the curse against Canaan, is fitted for that condition which he occupies in the system. (pp. 722-723)

He noted that the enslavement brought enormous wealth to White slaveholders. In his case, Stephens took upon himself out of greed to develop a racist ideology to justify the enslavement of Black people. Stephens declared that “our peculiar institution - African slavery as it exists among us - the proper status of the negro in our form of civilization. This was the immediate cause of the late rupture and present revolution” (p. 721). Towards the end of his speech, Stephens referred to the valuable “labor of the slave” (p. 727). In contrast to Stephens, Obadele (1983) has pointed out that the enslavement of Black people represented “stolen labor” (p. 1).

9. Huey P. Newton (1973) disclosed that, while incarcerated in a prison named the California Men’s Colony at San Luis Obispo, he read an article by Lacy Banko on the research of Dr. Herbert Hendin “who had done a comparative study on suicide among Black people in the major American cities” (p. 3). According to Newton, the article appeared in the May 1970 issue of Ebony. Newton reported that, “The Ebony article brought to mind Durkheim’s classic study Suicide, a book I had read earlier while studying sociology at Oakland City College” (pp. 3-4). He continued:

   To Durkheim all types of suicide are related to social conditions. He maintains that the primary cause of suicide is not individual temperament but forces in the social environment. In other words, suicide is caused primarily by external factors, not internal ones. As I thought about the conditions of Black people and about Dr. Hendlin’s study, I began to develop Durkheim’s analysis and apply it to the Black experience in the United States. This eventually led to the concept of “revolutionary suicide.” (p. 4)

Hence, Newton made it clear that Durkheim and Hendin influenced his development of revolutionary suicide and reactionary suicide as concepts. Whereas revolutionary suicide was influenced was by Durkheim, reactionary suicide was influenced by Hendin.

10. The concept of the Submerged Tenth by Du Bois (1899) is very similar to Marx’s lumpenproletariat and what contemporary sociologists often call the underclass. For a discussion of the underclass, see Wilson (1987).

11. Dorothy Sterling (1988) reported that Ida B. Wells-Barnett, during summer vacations, “took teachers’ training courses at Fisk University and at Lemoyne Institute in Memphis” (pp. 67-68). Sterling added:
By the fall of 1884, she had qualified to teach in the city schools and was assigned a first-grade class. Soon after Ida’s appointment, Aunt Fannie move to California, taking Annie and Lily with her. Although Ida contributed to their support and doled out sisterly advice and sometimes cash to Jim and George, her heavy burdens had eased. (p. 68)

According to Sterling, Wells-Barnett’s aunt Fannie Butler moved to Visalia, California, a Black township located around 200 miles south of the San Francisco-Oakland Bay Area. In 1886, Wells-Barnett visited her family in Visalia and spent a very short stint teaching in a one-room school that served 18 Black children. For some diary entries about her experience in Visalia, see Wells-Barnett (1995).

12. For her writings in the American Journal of Sociology, see Addams (1896, 1899, 1905, 1912b, 1914). For her writings in Papers and Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society, see Addams (1908, 1912a).
Teaching About Fountainheads Of Ethnic Studies: The Case Of W.E.B. Du Bois And Carter G. Woodson As Ethicians

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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson as fountainheads of ethnic studies and ethicians. It examines some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of W.E.B. Du Bois to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. This paper also examines some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of Carter G. Woodson to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. Additionally, this paper covers some implications of the research. This paper utilizes the case study method and the research technique includes content analysis of primary and secondary source documents.

Keywords: Issues in Higher Education, Teaching and Learning, Curriculum, Sociology of Education

INTRODUCTION

In the United States of America (USA), two types of ethnic studies emerged within curricula at higher education institutions during the 20th century. One type entered the curricula primarily through the efforts of students, faculty, and concerned community members with Black, Latino, Asian, and American Indian racial minority and ethnic minority backgrounds. This classification of ethnic studies can be considered to have come from below and is operationally defined here as the beneothan type. In Old English, the word beneothan meant below in Old English (Cromartie, 1993; Gove, 1986).

A second type of ethnic studies entered the curricula primarily through the efforts of White faculty, White administrators, and White corporations. This type of ethnic studies is commonly referred to as area studies and have usually focused on the experiences of White and non-White people outside the USA. This classification of ethnic studies can be considered to have come from above and is operationally defined here as the abufan type. The word abufan meant above in Old English (Cromartie, 1993; Gove, 1986).

The term ethnic studies first came into use during the 1960s. According to Nathan Hare, he coined the term and used it to refer collectively to the curricula that focused on the scholarly study of groups with racial minority and ethnic minority status in the USA, including Black people, Latino people, Asian people, and American Indian people.1 The term ethician was coined by Charles C. Irby (1978). In his case, Irby used the term to refer to those who “organize, clarify, and propagate meaningful solutions to the continuing problems confronting ethnic studies and ethnic communities” (p. 2).

Roots of the present-day interest among racial minority groups of making ethnic studies an established part of curricula in this country’s educational institutions can be traced back to the early colonial period. As early as the mid-1700s, there was sentiment among free Black people in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania to study African history and traditional culture in an educational setting. During 1919, Carter G. Woodson released a report wherein he identified certain institutions that were offering courses dealing with the Black experience. Some of the predominately White institutions offering those were Ohio State University, University of Nebraska, Harvard University, University of Minnesota, University of Missouri, and Stanford University. Among the predominately Black institutions offering those courses were Atlanta University, Fisk University, Howard University, and Wilberforce University. In wake of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, many predominately White colleges and universities in the North, East, West, and...
South began to admit a critical mass of Black students. A critical mass of those students made a push for the beneothan type of ethnic studies by demanding that the curricula make the transition from individual courses to full-fledged Black Studies Programs and Black Studies Departments. Those demands and the students making them became a part of the vanguard of the Black Studies Movement and the larger Ethnic Studies Movement (Woodson, 1915/1919, Crouchett, 1975; Cromartie, 1993).

Both before and after 1964, the teaching, research, and publications of W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson provided a solid foundation for curricula dealing with the Black experience in this country and elsewhere. Instead of their research and publications being overlooked or ignored, they became cornerstones in ethnic studies of the beneothan type. Because of their contributions, W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson became regarded as the fountainheads of ethnic studies. They have been credited with making pioneering efforts to institutionalize ethnic studies, in general, and Black studies, in particular, in this country’s colleges and universities (Cromartie, 1993).

The focus of this paper is on W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson as fountainheads of ethnic studies and ethnicians. It will examine some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of W.E.B. Du Bois to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. This paper will also examine some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of Carter G. Woodson to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. Additionally, this paper will cover some implications of the research. This paper utilizes the case study method and the research technique includes content analysis of primary and secondary source documents.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Autobiographies, Biographies, and Memoirs by W.E.B. Du Bois

When he was 72, Du Bois (1940a) published his first full-length autobiography. Du Bois gave it the title Dusk of Dawn: An Essay Toward an Autobiography of a Race Concept. After covering his early childhood days in Massachusetts, Du Bois next addressed his educational attainment at Fisk University, Harvard University, and the University of Berlin. Then, he moved on to detail his teaching experience at Wilberforce University and Atlanta University. He also detailed his work experience at the University of Pennsylvania and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (hereafter NAACP).

In Dusk of Dawn, the major theme Du Bois (1940a) addressed was the concept of race - given the subtitle. Without saying it directly, Du Bois covered how race is a social construction and that definitions can vary from one place to another. Du Bois told us that the major problem with race is that the dominant group will often portray the racial minorities and ethnic minorities in their worst light instead of best light. Du Bois recalled seeing that phenomenon in his elementary school textbooks. Other themes addressed by Du Bois were the White world, Black world, propaganda and world war, and revolution. In addition to the NAACP, Du Bois also dealt with his involvement in social movements like the Niagara Movement and Pan-African Congress Movement.

Du Bois (1952) published his second full-length autobiography when he was 84. It was given the title In Battle for Peace: The Story of My 83rd Birthday. In this book, Du Bois covered aspects of his first eight decades on the face of the earth. Whereas his first autobiography covered his life from birth to 72, the second autobiography provided new information about his life from 72 to 83.

The book In Battle for Peace detailed the reasons why Du Bois (1952) left Atlanta University in 1944 and returned to the NAACP that year as the director of special research. Likewise, Du Bois detailed the reason he left NAACP in 1948 and became co-chairman of the Council on African Affairs. Du Bois told us that the co-chairman was his mentee Paul Robeson. He also addressed his involvement with the Cultural and Scientific Conference for World Peace in New York City, his attendance at the Paris Peace Conference, and his attendance at the Moscow Peace Conference. Additionally, Du Bois covered his involvement with the Peace Information Center and his Progressive Party campaign as candidate for a seat representing New York in the Senate of the USA.

Du Bois (1952) related that reactionary forces in the USA led Joseph McCarthy had him indicted as an “unregistered foreign agent” because of his activities with the Peace Information Center. A show trial took place in Washington,
DC. However, Du Bois and his so-called co-conspirators were acquitted of all charges after a trial that lasted eight days. During that time of his life, Du Bois married his second wife Shirley Graham Du Bois in 1951 when she was 54 and she was 83.

After he died, the third full-length autobiography of Du Bois (1968) was published. Du Bois titled it *The Autobiography of W.E.B. Du Bois: A Soliloquy on Viewing My Life from the Last Decade of Its First Century*. He covered 10 decades of his life. Du Bois divided the book into three parts. The first part dealt with his travels to Europe, China, Japan, and the former Soviet Union. European destinations include England, Scotland, France, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Spain, Portugal, Greece, and other places. The second part addressed many of his life experiences from birth up to 1948. The third part focuses on his work for peace, his indictment, his trial, and the 10th and final decade of his life. Looking back at his life, Du Bois discussed his involvement with social movements like the Niagara Movement, NAACP, Pan-African Congress Movement, Harlem Renaissance Movement, Council on African Affairs, and Peace Information Center.

**Reports on His Life and Times by Woodson**

Unlike W.E.B. Du Bois, the indefatigable Carter G. Woodson never released a full autobiography. However, Woodson published shorter articles and reports that covered aspects of his life and times, including his teaching stints and research projects. During the 1920s, Woodson (1925c) published an article titled “The Years of Collecting and Publishing the Records of the Negro.” Woodson used that article to explain the challenges and triumphs he experienced at the helm of the organization during its first 10 years.

For Woodson (1925c), one of his major challenges involved the finances of the organization. After he published the first issue of *The Journal of Negro History*, some council became upset with him. Woodson recalled that, “Finally, to give a concrete illustration of what he had in mind, the founder contracted a debt of about $400 to bring out the first issue of *The Journal of Negro History* in January 1916, although there was nothing in the treasury” (p. 600). He added: “This caused one of the members of the Executive Council to throw up hands in disgust and resign, while others threatened to do likewise” (p. 600).

Woodson (1925c) pointed out that a lot of the money came out of his own pocket to pay the bills of his organization. He also received a small amount of funds from Julius Rosenwald, Robert E. Park, Jacob H. Schiff, William G. Willcox, Harold H. Swift, James J. Storrow, Moorfield Storey, Frank Trumbull, Cleveland H. Dodge, and Martin D. Hull. Woodson once sent out a mailing of 200 financial appeal letters and was only able to attract $14 in donations. Nevertheless, Woodson and his fledging organization managed to hold on. In 1917, the organization managed to hold its first annual conference. The attendees included C.V. Romain, George E. Haynes, Louis F. Post, Nathan B. Young, Kelly Miller, Monroe N. Work, George W. Cook, John R. Hawkins, James H. Dillard, and Julius Rosenwald. In 1921, the Carnegie Foundation gave the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History a $25,000 grant to be paid at the rate of $5,000 a year. That grant from the Carnegie Foundation helped the organization to become solvent and Woodson became its fulltime director. Thus, a major triumph of the organization was to shift from being in the red to being in the black. The improved finances allowed the organization to meet its mission to collect and publish the records of Black people.

In the 1940s, Woodson (1940) published an article titled “An Accounting for 25 Years.” That article was utilized by Woodson to address the challenges and triumphs he experienced as the leader of the organization during its first 25 years. Woodson covered the founding of the organization and identified Miss S. P. Breckinridge as the council member who resigned because he did not get approval of the Executive Council before he published the first issue of the journal. Although the Great Depression hit the USA during those first 25 years, Woodson recalled that the finances of the organization improved due to a combination of donations and grants. With the improved finances, the organization developed Negro History Week, published *Negro History Bulletin* nine times a year, held annual conferences, and kept publishing *The Journal of Negro History* four times a year.

Under the leadership of Woodson (1940), the improved finances helped the organization to engage in other initiatives, including the payment of college tuition for some of his mentors. The organization managed to pay tuition for A. A. Taylor, who became a dean at Fisk University; Rayford Logan, who became a professor at Howard.
University; Lorenzo Johnston Greene, who became a professor at Lincoln University of Missouri; Florence Beatty-Brown, who became a professor Fayetteville State Teachers College. The organization also helped the following two people to get scholarships: Charles H. Wesley, who became a professor at Howard University; and Luther P. Jackson, who became a professor at Virginia State College. Additionally, the organization hired the following people as staff members at one time or another: A.A. Taylor, Charles H. Wesley, Rayford W. Logan, Faith Vibert, Irene A. Wright, Lorenzo Johnston Greene, Arnett Lindsay, James Hugo Johnston, Langston Hughes, and Myra Colson-Callis.

Charles C. Irby on the Concept of the Ethiclan

During the late 1970s, Charles C. Irby (1978) published an article in Explorations in Ethnic Studies to announce the creation of the new journal. His article was titled “Explorations in Ethnic Studies, a New Journal.” In his article, Irby coined the term “ethiclan.” As mentioned above, Irby used that term to refer those who “organize, clarify, and propagate meaningful solutions to the continuing problems confronting ethnic studies and ethnic communities” (p. 2). At the time his article appeared, Irby was serving as the president of the National Association for Ethnic Studies and the founding editor of Explorations in Ethnic Studies. Irby noted the National Association for Ethnic Studies was “an organization of ethiclans” who had the task of organizing, clarifying, and propagating meaningful solutions confronting ethnic studies and communities consisting of racial minorities and ethnic minorities. Thus, Irby and his organization were following the lead of W.E.B. Du Bois, who called for Black scholarship to be involved as opposed to detached.

W.E.B. DU BOIS AS A FOUNTAINHEAD OF ETHNIC STUDIES AND ETHNICIAN

W.E.B. Du Bois fits the criteria for Charles C. Irby’s concept of the ethiclan. He engaged in organizing by helping to develop the American Negro Academy, and Sociology Laboratory at Atlanta University. Du Bois helped to clarify by his publications with the Department of Labor, the Atlanta University Studies, and editing of Phylon: A Journal of Race and Culture. He helped to propagating meaningful solutions confronting problems confronting Black communities by helping to develop social movements like the Niagara Movement, NAACP, Pan-African Congress, Council on African Affairs, Peace Information Center, and the Encyclopedia Africana. In those social movements, Du Bois demonstrated that he was thoroughly committed to the merger of theory with practice.

Social Background of W.E.B. Du Bois

W.E.B. Du Bois was born on February 23, 1868 in Great Barrington, Massachusetts and died on August 27, 1963. He was born into a nuclear family which was composed of his father Alfred Du Bois, a Black man who served in the Civil War; his mother Mary Burghardt Du Bois, a Black woman from Great Barrington; and his half-brother Adelbert Burghardt, who was five years older than W.E.B. However, when Du Bois was around two years old, Alfred Du Bois left the family to look for a job in Connecticut and never returned. Afterwards, he was raised in a family structure wherein his single mother was the head of household (Du Bois, 1940a, 1968; Cromartie, 2011).

Contrary to popular belief, W.E.B. Du Bois did not come from the Black upper-class background or a Black middle-class background (Cromartie, 2011). Instead, Du Bois came from a Black working-class background. According to Du Bois (1940a, 1968), his mother Mary Burghardt Du Bois earned a living as a housemaid; his father Alfred Du Bois earned a living as a barber; and his brother Adelbert Du Bois earned a living as a waiter and coachman. In Dusk of Dawn, Du Bois (1940a) stated that: “The black Burghards were ordinary farmers, laborers, and servants” (p. 114). Similarly, in The Autobiography of W.E.B. Du Bois, Du Bois (1968) said: In Dusk of Dawn, Du Bois (1940) covered his experiences as a sociologist, social movement leader, and political activist. He detailed his life and times as a professor at Wilberforce University, an assistant instructor at the University of Pennsylvania, and a professor at Atlanta University. Du Bois also detailed his leadership within the following social movements: National Afro-American Council; Pan-African Association; Niagara Movement; National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP); and the Pan-African Congress. He addressed his experience as an author and editor. By the time he reached age 72, Du Bois had published many books and articles as well as edited journals and conference proceedings.
As he looked back over seven decades, Du Bois (1940) recalled his Black working-class background. His mother Mary Sylvina Burghardt Du Bois worked as a housemaid; his father Alfred Du Bois worked as a barber; and his brother Adelbert Du Bois worked as a waiter and coachman. His uncle Blank Du Bois also worked as a barber. Du Bois related that, “The black Burghardts were ordinary farmers, laborers, and servants” (p. 114). When Du Bois (1968) was quite young, his mother suffered from a stroke which left one side of her body almost paralyzed. He said the stroke happened shortly after his grandmother Sally Burghardt died. Du Bois recalled:

We continued to live with grandfather Burghardt until I was about five, and grandfather died. The family then moved into town. We lived on the Sumner estate on south Main Street, where we had rooms over what was once the stable.... Then after grandmother died, we moved up to Railroad Street, right next to the station... Soon after, my worrying mother had a paralytic stroke from which she never entirely recovered. As I remember her, she was always lame in her left leg, with a withered left hand. We always walked arm in arm. (p. 74)

The deaths of his grandfather Othello Burghardt and his grandmother Sally Burghardt had a profound impact on the family structure. Likewise, the stroke of his mother Mary Burghardt Du Bois had a profound impact on the finances of the household in which W.E.B. Du Bois lived. Afterwards, the family continued to struggle to make ends meet. Du Bois would work odd jobs after school to help pay the rent and make ends. His brother Adelbert Du Bois had moved to Albany, New York and sent money to help with the expenses. Nevertheless, the proud family was relatively poor working-class people who were struggling to make ends meet. Reflecting on his childhood, Du Bois stated that, “As I look back now, I can see that the little family of my mother and myself must of ten have been near the edge of poverty” (p. 73).

When Du Bois (1968) was attending high school in Great Barrington, the area in and around Great Barrington was relatively small. Du Bois has estimated that, “In Great Barrington there were perhaps 25, certainly not more than 50, colored folk in a population of 5,000. My family was among the oldest inhabitants of the valley” (p. 83). He remembered being “13 or 14 and a student in the small high school with two teachers and perhaps 25 pupils. The high school was not too popular in this rural part of New England and received from the town a much to small appropriation” (p. 92). After I entered high, I began to feel the pressure of the ‘veil of color’; in little matters at first and then in larger” (p. 83). Du Bois was referring to those microaggressions which Black people are often confronted with because of White supremacy and White racism. He experienced microaggressions both before and during high school. Before high school, a White girl refused to greeti ng card from him because he was Black. He recognized it as an act of racial discrimination by a prejudiced person.

Eventually, Du Bois (1940a, 1968) graduated from Great Barrington High School. On the one hand, Du Bois (1940) remarked in Dusk of Dawn that he was “the first one of the family who finished in the local high school” (p. 114). On the other hand, Du Bois (1968) declared in The Autobiography of W.E.B. Du Bois that, “I was graduated from high school in 1884 and was of course the only colored student” (p. 99). Du Bois was the valedictorian of his high school class.

While attending high school, Du Bois (1968) wrote for and served as co-editor of a student newspaper called the Howler. Du Bois also began to write for a national newspaper. He recalled:

I sent weekly letters to a colored weekly New York Age and sold copies, and before the A&P stores dealt in groceries and simply were tea, I was one of their agents. Thus in all sorts of little ways I managed to earn some money and never asked or thought of gifts. (p. 95)

At the time, the editor of the New York Age was T. Thomas Fortune. He was a well-known writer and political activist.

Although he was achieving success in the classroom, Du Bois (1968) and his mother experienced poverty as a reality in their lives. Regarding that matter, Du Bois wrote:

After I entered the high school, economic problems and questions of the future began to loom. They were
partly settled by own activities. My mother’s limited sources of income were helped through boarding the
barber; my uncle, supplemented infrequently by her own day’s work, and by some kindly unobtrusive
charity. But I was keen and eager to eke out this income by various jobs; splitting kindling, moving lawns,
doing chores. I early came to understand that to be “on the town,” the recipient of public charity, was the
depth not only of misfortune but of a certain guilt. I presume some of my folk sank to that, but not to my
knowledge. We earned our way. I have a little postcard dated in 1883 in which Miss Smith on September 19
writes, “We would like to have you come certainly next Saturday as you did last week to do some splitting
for us.” This was a matter of splitting up kindling for two maiden ladies and this was one of the first of my
economic enterprises.

My first regular began as I entered the high school: I went early of mornings and filled with coal one or
two of the new so-called “base burning” stoves in the millinery shop of Madame L’Hommedieu. From then
on, all through my high school course, I worked after school and on Saturdays. (p. 95)

Thus, Du Bois often found himself working before and after school to help the family meet the living expenses,
including food, clothing, and shelter. Despite those hardships, Du Bois excelled in the classroom and prepared
to enter the world of higher education. Shortly after Du Bois graduated from high school, his mother died.

Following the death of his mother, Du Bois was helped to go to college by three White men and one Black man who
saw a lot of potential him. One of the White men was Frank Hosmer, the principal of Great Barrington High School,
who knew Du Bois as one of his students and guided him towards college prep courses that included algebra,
geometry, Latin, and Greek. A second of the White men was Edward Van Lennep, the principal of a private school in
Great Barrington, who was the superintendent of the Sunday School Du Bois attended at Congregational Church. A
third of the White men was Rev. C.C. Painter, a Congregational Church minister, whose son Charles was a classmate
of Du Bois. The Black man was J. Carlisle Dennis, a steward and business advisor to the wealthy Mary Frances
Hopkins, who became a close friend of Du Bois. Hosmer helped him get ready for college by helping him to raise
his educational achievement level. Lennep helped him by encouraging him to attend college and being a key player
in raising the scholarship money. Painter helped by encouraging him to go Fisk University and prepare to work one
day at a place like Atlanta University. Dennis helped him by arranging for Du Bois to be employed as a timekeeper
at a construction site immediately after high school and helping him to become a writer for the New York Age while
he was in high school. Painter developed a proposal for Du Bois’s church and three others to provide him with a
total of $100 a year for the length of his college courses at Fisk University. Painter and the others reasoned that Du
Bois was a young man with unlimited potential who would use his education to help others. The proposal by Painter
was accepted and the churches gave Du Bois the money. In turn, he spent the rest of his life engaging in reciprocity
and using his education to help others who were less fortunate (Du Bois, 1968; Lewis, 1993).

Aided by the money he received from the four churches, Du Bois (1968) headed to Fisk University in 1885. Upon
his arrival, Du Bois set about making his mark in higher education. Du Bois excelled in his studies just as he had
done in high school and would later do at Harvard and the University of Berlin. He refused accolades from Fisk
professors and made friends with other students, including Thomas J. Calloway. While completing their
undergraduate studies, Du Bois served as the editor of the official student newspaper known as the Fisk Herald and
Calloway served as the business manager. They later teamed up to develop an awarding exhibit at the Paris
Exposition in 1900. Before he graduated from Fisk, Du Bois also spent some time teaching children in a one-room
Black school in rural Tennessee. That experience proved to be life changing and showed him the social conditions
faced by the students and their families in rural Tennessee.3

During 1888, Du Bois (1940a, 1968) earned a B.A. degree at Fisk University. His academic record at Fisk earned
him the right to be a commencement speaker. He addressed “Otto von Bismarck” as his subject. Some two years
later, in 1890, Du Bois earned a B.A. degree at Harvard University (then Harvard College). His academic record
there earned him the right to be one of the six commencement speakers. He spoke on Jefferson Davis as a subject. In
1891, Du Bois earned a M.A. degree at Harvard. The title of his thesis was The Suppression of the Slave Trade.
Following the receipt of a fellowship from the Slater Fund after lobbying its president Rutherford B. Hayes, Du Bois
headed to Germany in 1892 to work on a Ph.D. The fellowship totaled $750 with half as a grant and half as a loan.
There was also the possibility that the fellowship could be renewed for a second year.
According to Du Bois (1940a, 1968), his goal was to complete a Ph.D. with a concentration in economics, history, and sociology over a two-year period. Du Bois did receive a renewal of his fellowship for a second year. He completed his dissertation titled *The Large and Small System of Farming in the United States of America* as he planned within two years. However, Du Bois ran into a major roadblock when the officials University of Berlin refused to allow do his oral defense because he had completed only three German semesters. The norm was a minimum of six German semesters. The officials at the University of Berlin notified Du Bois that they were willing to allow him to do an oral defense after a minimum of five, but not three or four. Du Bois wrote a letter to the Slater Fund explaining the situation and requesting more money to extend his time to meet the requirements of the University of Berlin. However, Du Bois was turned down.

On April 13, 1894, D. C. Gilman (1973), an official of the Slater Fund, wrote a letter notifying him that his request for more money was denied by the Stater Trustees. Gilman recommended that Du Bois “return to Harvard and offer yourself as a candidate there” (p. 29). He added:

*It is probable that the time spent in German Universities, and the acquisitions you have made, would be counted in estimating your qualifications for the Harvard degree of Ph.D., and I think that the Harvard degree would be, in all respects, as advantageous to you as that of Berlin.* (p. 29)

Gilman also related that some members of the Slater Trustees “expressed, with great earnestness, the hope that, on returning to this country, you will devote your talent and your learning to the good of the colored race” (p. 29). The expressions of those members of the Slater Trustees were had a similarity to those he heard from some people in Great Barrington. Du Bois heard the clarion and spent the remainder of his life devoting his talent and learning to meet the needs of the Black race.

Two years before he received that letter from Gilman, in 1893, Du Bois (1985) celebrated his 25th birthday in Germany by preparing a program for himself, including a schedule with food. He then wrote a narrative about all the things he did that day as a part of the schedule and spelled out some plans. Looking ahead in his narrative, Du Bois declared: “These are my plans: to make a name in science, to make a name in literature and thus to raise my race” (p. 29). The record is clear that Du Bois did that and more.

**Teaching Experience at Wilberforce University and Atlanta University**

During the spring of 1894, Du Bois (1940a, 1968) returned to the USA following a two-year stint as a graduate student in Germany. Du Bois went home to Great Barrington and began to seek employment by sending letters to various Black higher education institutions. His letters drew three job offers. The first offer came from Wilberforce University as the chair of classics at the rate of $800 yearly. The second offer came from Lincoln Institute in Missouri at the rate of $1,050 yearly. A third offer came from Tuskegee Institute. After he received the first offer, Du Bois quickly notified Wilberforce University that he would accept the offer. Within days of that action, he also received offers Lincoln and Tuskegee through Western Union telegrams, but decided to stick to the first one since he had already made that commitment even though it paid less.

Upon taking his position at Wilberforce University, Du Bois (1940a) “taught Latin, Greek, German, and English, and wanted to add sociology” (p. 57). Du Bois noted that, “I had offered to teach social science at Wilberforce outside of my overloaded program, but I was not allowed” (p. 58). To his frustration, Du Bois was denied the right to teach sociology. Du Bois also returned to Harvard as an advanced graduate student and completed his quest for a Ph.D. in 1895 by writing a dissertation titled *The Suppression of the African Slave Trade*. Although he was a newly minted Ph.D. holder, his frustrations continued to mount at Wilberforce where he was appalled by the nepotism, religious practices, and the church-college politics. However, Du Bois also had some bright moments at Wilberforce. Du Bois met and fell in love with a student named Nina Gomer whom he married in 1896. He also became close friends with Paul Laurence Dunbar, Charles Young, and Charles Burroughs.

Du Bois (1940a) left Wilberforce after a two-year stint and took a temporary appointment as an “assistant instructor.” The position did not allow him to teach any classes. Instead, the position called for him to conduct an
empirical study of Black people in Philadelphia which he did complete. Du Bois arrived in Philadelphia during the summer of 1896 with his wife Nina. While working on his study of Philadelphia, Du Bois and his wife lived in the Seventh Ward, which was a Black area.

In 1896, Du Bois (1940a) was asked by George Bumstead, the president of Atlanta University, to accept a professoriate position at that institution. Du Bois remembered that Bumstead wanted him “to come to Atlanta University and take charge of the work in sociology, and of the news conferences which they were inaugurating on the Negro problem. With this program in mind, I eagerly accepted the invitation” (p. 209). Looking back at the hiring of Du Bois, Bumstead wrote in a 1918 letter that:

*Let me express the keen satisfaction I take in having been the one chiefly responsible, perhaps, for bringing Doctor Du Bois to Atlanta University. He has recently called his thirteen years of service there his “real life work”; and I am proud to have helped open the way for him to begin it, and to have been closely associated with his labors for more than a decade, till I ceased to be president. I cannot but smile when I think of the objections and misgivings of some of our trustees and other friends when he came. We wanted a professor of sociology with special reference to investigating conditions concerning the Negro; and I said that Dr. Du Bois was the one man, white or black, far and away best fitted for the position. I knew of his long preparation at Fisk, Harvard, and in Germany, and I had read the unstinted praise which the New York Nation had given to his first publication, The Suppression of the Slave Trade, and I knew of the confidence which Provost Harrison of the university of Pennsylvania had in him when he engaged him to spend a year or more in making a scientific study of the Philadelphia Negro. (Quoted in Du Bois, 1968, pp. 209-210)*

Bumstead offered Du Bois a salary of $1,000 per year. When he arrived at Atlanta University, Du Bois was 29 years old. By the time of his departure 13 years later, he was 42 years old (Du Bois, 1940, 1968).

The initial position of Du Bois (1903b, 1940a, 1968) at Atlanta University was professor of economics and history. He also took over the Sociology Laboratory, Atlanta University Study of the Negro Problems, and the Atlanta University Studies publications (Du Bois, 1903b, 1940a, 1968; Atlanta University, 1898). According to its 1896-1897 catalogue, Atlanta University (1897) had no classes in the social sciences that focused on the Black experience when Du Bois first arrived there. However, that 1896-1897 catalogue indicated that the institution led by Bumstead had plans to expand the curriculum and include sociology. The 1896-1897 catalogue stated:

*It is intended to develop this department more fully, especially along the line of Sociology. Interest has been awakened throughout the country in the annual conferences held at Atlanta University in May - the first in 1896 - concerning problems in city life among the colored population. The library will soon be rich in books pertaining to Sociology. (p. 31)*

In terms of its curriculum, the 1896-1897 catalogue noted that the institution had political science courses, economics courses, and history courses. However, there were no sociology courses.

After Du Bois arrived at Atlanta University in the 1897-1898 academic year, he quickly began to change things. Atlanta University (1898) reported in the 1897-1898 catalogue that it now had a Sociology and History Department and it stated that the following had been established:

*Three terms of the Senior year are given to Sociology: the first term to a general survey of social conditions, and the third term to a study of the social and economic condition of the American Negro, and to methods of reform.*

*In addition to this, graduate study of the social problems in the South by the most approved scientific methods, is carried on by the Atlanta Conference, composed of graduates of Atlanta, Fisk, and other institutions. The aim is to make Atlanta University the centre of an intelligent and thorough-going study of the Negro problems. Two reports of the Conference have been published, and a third is in preparation. (p. 13)*
One year later, Atlanta University (1899) announced in the 1898-1899 catalogue that an objective of sociology in the curriculum was helping students “be able to apply broad and careful knowledge to the solving of the many intricate social questions affecting their own people” (p. 13). It also announced that, “Mayo-Smith’s Statistics and Sociology is the textbook in use” (p. 13).

In the 1902-1903 catalogue, Atlanta University (1903) stated that a Sociology Laboratory was in operation at the institution. Regarding the Sociology Laboratory, it said:

>The Laboratory consists of a special library of books on statistics, economics, sociology, and history, with duplicate copies of standard works; and of maps, charts and collections illustrating social and historic conditions. Here the Senior class is given a course of one year which is devoted to the study of social conditions and methods of reform with special reference to the American Negro. Fieldwork and thesis work is required. (p. 15)

During his 13 years at Atlanta University, Du Bois embraced his status and role as a professor and his activities in the Sociology Laboratory. Du Bois also embraced his status and role as the coordinator of the conferences and proceedings. He was able to get his sociology students and other faculty members to be researchers. As part of his research protocol, Du Bois advocated a mixed-methods approach consisting of the survey research method, case study method, participant observation, and secondary data analysis. Du Bois also said that his approach was multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary in that he used history, economics, anthropology, and sociology in his research process.

Prior to his arrival at Atlanta University, Du Bois (1940a) had engaged in “turning my gaze from fruitless word-twisting and facing the facts of my own social situation and racial world, I determined to put science into sociology through a study of the condition and problems of my own group” (p. 51). Du Bois added: “…in my own sociology, because of firm belief in a changing racial group, I easily grasped the idea of a changing developing society rather than a fixed social structure” (p. 51). He proposed that social groups in society can be studied with a methodology that involved “historical investigation, statistical measurement, anthropological measurement and sociological interpretation” (p. 61).

Between 1897 and 1914, Du Bois (1968) played a major role in the research conducted the aegis of the Atlanta University Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems and its proceedings. The conference and proceedings were established before Du Bois got to Atlanta University. For example, there were two conferences and proceedings coordinated by George Bradford prior to his arrival at that institution. After he arrived at Atlanta University, Du Bois quickly got involved with coordinating the conferences and its proceedings. In fact, a key reason why Du Bois was brought to Atlanta University involved the coordination of the conferences and its proceedings.

The Third Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the first coordinated by Du Bois (1898b). The conference proceedings were published as Some Efforts of Negroes for Their Own Social Betterment and listed as Atlanta University Publication No. 3 with Du Bois as the editor. The Fourth Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the second coordinated by Du Bois (1899a). The conference proceedings were titled The Negro in Business and released as Atlanta University Publication No. 4.

The Fifth Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the third coordinated by Du Bois (1900). With Du Bois as the editor, the conference proceedings were published as The College-Bred Negro and listed Atlanta University Publication No. 5. The Sixth Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the fourth coordinated by Du Bois (1901a). The conference proceedings were titled The Negro Common School and released as Atlanta University Publication No. 6.

The Seventh Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the fifth coordinated by Du Bois (1902b) coordinated. It was released as The Negro Artisan and listed as Atlanta University Publication No. 7 with Du Bois as the editor. The Eighth Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was sixth Du Bois (1903c) coordinated. The conference

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The Clute Institute
The Ninth Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the seventh coordinated by Du Bois (1904a). The conference proceedings were published as The Notes on Negro Crime, Particularly in Georgia and listed as Atlanta University Publication No. 9 with Du Bois as the editor. The 10th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the eighth coordinated by Du Bois (1905). The conference proceedings were titled A Select Bibliography of the Negro American and released as Atlanta University Publication No. 10 with Du Bois as the editor.

The 11th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the ninth under the coordination of Du Bois (1906). With Du Bois as the editor, the conference proceedings were published as The Health and Physique of the Negro American and listed Atlanta University Publication No. 11. The 12th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the 10th coordinated by Du Bois. The conference proceedings were titled Economic Cooperation Among Negro Americans, released as Atlanta University Publication No. 12, and edited by Du Bois (1907).

The 13th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the 11th Du Bois (1908a) coordinated. It was released as The Negro American Family and listed as Atlanta University Publication No. 13 with Du Bois as the editor. The 14th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was 12th Du Bois coordinated. The conference proceedings were titled Efforts for Social Betterment Among Negro Americans, appeared as Atlanta University Publication No. 14, and edited by Du Bois (1909).

The 15th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the 13th coordinated or co-coordinated by Du Bois. The conference proceedings were published as The College-Bred Negro American and listed as Atlanta University Publication No. 15 with Du Bois and Dill (1910) as the editors. The 16th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the 14th coordinated or co-coordinated by Du Bois. The conference proceedings were titled The Common School and the Negro American, released as Atlanta University Publication No. 16, and co-edited by Du Bois and Dill (1911).

The 17th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the 15th under the coordination or co-coordination of Du Bois. With Du Bois and Dill (1912) as co-editors, the conference proceedings were published as The Negro Artisan and listed Atlanta University Publication No. 15. The 18th Conference for the Study of the Negro Problems was the 16th coordinated or co-coordinated by Du Bois. The conference proceedings were titled Morals and Manners among Negro Americans, released as Atlanta University Publication No. 18, and edited by Du Bois and Dill (1914).

During 1910, Du Bois (1968) left Atlanta University to join the NAACP as an officer and its director of research and publications. To address his desire to publish his works and those of others, Du Bois developed The Crisis as the official organ of the NAACP. However, for some four years, Du Bois remained as the director of the Atlanta University Conference on the Study of the Negro Problems and continued to edit the Atlanta University Studies with the assistance of his former student Augustus Granville Dill. Du Bois has related that through the Atlanta University Studies, “In all we published a total of 2,172 pages which formed a current encyclopedia on American Negro problems” (p. 217). He also informed us that: “With the publication of 1914, my connection with Atlanta ceased for 20 years. Although studies and publications were prepared by others at the university in 1915 and 1918, the war finally stopped the enterprise” (p. 216).

In 1934, Du Bois (1968) left the NAACP and returned to the Atlanta University. He was invited by his friend John Hope to return as a professor of sociology and chairman of the Sociology Department. After his return to Atlanta University, Du Bois proceeded to help organize conferences and publish the proceedings. He also became the founding editor of a journal known as Phylon.

**Founding of Phylon**

During 1940, Du Bois founded Phylon: The Atlanta University Review of Race and Culture under the aegis of Atlanta university. Du Bois remained the editor-in-chief until he left Atlanta University in 1947. Analysis of the first
issue of *Phylon* showed that it had an Editorial Board composed of editor-in-chief W.E.B. Du Bois, a Ph.D. from Harvard and a specialist in sociology; managing editor Ira De A. Reid, a Ph.D. from Columbia and a specialist in sociology; William Stanley Braithwaite, a Litt.D. from Talladega and a specialist in literature; Mercer Cook, a Ph.D. from Brown and romance languages; Rushton Coulborn, a Ph.D. from London and a specialist in history; William H. Dean, Jr., a Ph.D. from Harvard and a specialist in economics; Oran W. Eagleson, a Ph.D. from Indiana and a specialist in psychology; and Rufus E. Clement, a Ph.D. from Northwestern and a specialist in history as well as the president of Atlanta University. Analysis of the first issue also noted that the journal had contributing editors and they were Horace M. Bond, a Ph.D. from the University of Chicago and a specialist in education as well as the president of Fort Valley State College; Rayford W. Logan, a Ph.D. from Harvard and a specialist in history; and Allison Davis, a M.A. from Harvard and a specialist in anthropology. Bond was the president of Fort Valley State University; Logan was a professor at Howard; and Davis was a professor at Dillard.

Analysis of the contents of the first issue of *Phylon* revealed it was composed of articles, photographs, and a poem. It also featured sections titled “A Chronicle of Race Relations, 1939;” “Books and Race;” and “Race in Periodicals.” The articles were written by Arthur T. Raper, Ira De A. Reid, Rene Maran, H.V. Eagleson, John Hope II, Elizabeth Perry Cannon, Catherine J. Duncan, and Rushton Coulborn. One article was jointly authored by Raper and Reid (1940) and they looked at social conditions by various groups, including sharecropping, disennfranchisement, and White supremacy. A second article was authored by Maran (1940) and he covered the past and present of Black people in France. He also collaborated with two others in an interview conducted with Monsignor Kiwanuka, Bishop of Massaka. A third article was authored by Eagleson (1940) which addressed architectural acoustics. He explained that architectural acoustics is a branch of physics that deals with problems arising out of sounds inside buildings. A fourth article was authored by Hope (1940) covered the Rochdale Cooperative Movement among Black people. A fifth article was authored by Cannon. Cannon (1940) focused on her experiences teaching at a Black school in a rural community in Georgia. A sixth article was authored by Coulborn (1940) as a reply to some writings by Arnold Toynbee and Henri Bergson.


**Original Research of W.E.B. Du Bois**

W.E.B. Du Bois has a long record of research that dating back to the 1890s. During that period, Du Bois completed his doctoral research at Harvard University. The title of his dissertation was *The Suppression of the African Slave Trade to the United States of America, 1638-1870*. While still in graduate student status at Harvard, Du Bois presented his research at annual conference of the American Historical Association and had that organization publish his paper titled “The Enforcement of the Slave Trade Laws.” He was the first known Black person to present a paper at the annual conference of the American Historical Association.

Following the completion of his dissertation, Du Bois proceeded to publish important research projects in each decade before his death in 1963. Between 1896 and 1899, Du Bois (1898c, 1899a, 1899c) contracted with the Department of Labor and completed a study of Black people in Philadelphia, a study of Black people in Farmville, Virginia, and a study of Black people in the larger Black Belt. As shown above, Du Bois (1898b, 1899b) also edited the proceedings of two conferences at Atlanta University and released them in the Atlanta University Publications series. Those conferences focused on social betterment efforts and Black in business. Additionally, Du Bois (1898a) published an article wherein he proposed methodology that could be used to study social problems and other social
conditions among Black people.

In the first decade of the 20th century, as shown above, Du Bois (1900, 1901a, 1902, 1903c, 1904a, 1905, 1906, 1907, 1908a, 1909) edited the proceedings of nine conferences at Atlanta University and released them in the Atlanta University Publications series. Du Bois (1901b) also contracted with the Department of Labor and completed a study of Black landholders in Georgia. Another two important reports related to his research were published by Du Bois (1901c, 1903a) in *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. One was titled “The Relation of the Negroses to the Whites in the South” and the other was titled “The Laboratory in Sociology at Atlanta University.” Du Bois (1903) combined revisions of eight essays he published between 1897 and 1902 with some of his unpublished work and released them as *The Souls of Black Folk*.

As shown above, during the second decade of the 20th century, Du Bois and Dill (1910, 1911, 1912, 1914) combined forces and edited the proceedings of four conferences at Atlanta University and released them in the Atlanta University Publications series. The focus of the conferences was on Black people who had attended college graduates; Black people who had attended public schools; Black artisans; and the morals and manners of Black people. Du Bois (1915) also published a book on people of African descent that he titled *The Negro*. He explored the history Black people from before the building of the pyramids in Africa to the eve of the Harlem Renaissance in the USA.

During the third decade of the 20th century, Du Bois (1920) published a book titled *Darkwater* where he used one chapter to explore the history of his family. He named that chapter “The Shadow of Years.” In another book, Du Bois (1924) published a book dedicated to looking at the gifts Black people had given to the USA up to that point. Du Bois made an exploration of the experiences of Black people as explorers, laborers, and soldiers. He also made an exploration of the experiences of Black people as in relation to what he called the emancipation of democracy and the reconstruction of freedom. Looking at creativity, Du Bois analyzed folk songs, Black art and literature, and what he referred to as the gift of the spirit.


During the fifth decade of the 20th century, Du Bois (1940) published his second autobiography titled *Dusk of Dawn*. It presented the research of Du Bois on his own life up to 1940 as well as his ideas about race as a conception. Shortly after end of World War II, Du Bois (1947) presented his research on the part that Africa played in the history of the world. He recognized Egypt as vital part of Africa as well as great African empires like Songhay, Mali, and Ghana. As mentioned above, Du Bois addressed his role in social movements like the Niagara Movement and the NAACP.

In the sixth decade of the 20th century, Du Bois (1952) released *In Battle for Peace*. That book presented research on his own life up to age 83. By that time, he had married Shirley Graham Du Bois who proved to be a wonderful companion. Du Bois covered their marriage ceremony as well as his role in social movements like the Pan-African Congress, Council on African Affairs, and Peace Information Center.

During the seventh decade of the 20th century, the final autobiography of Du Bois (1968) was published posthumously and in it he declared, “This book… is the Soliloquy of an old man on what he dreams his life has been as he sees it slowly drifting away; and what he would like others to believe” (p. 13). Du Bois died on the eve of Martin Luther King and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference’s March on Washington. At that time, Du Bois was living as an expatriate in Accra, Ghana where died. Du Bois used his final autobiography to present his research on his own life from birth to 1960. He titled one chapter “My Tenth Decade” to acknowledge that he lived in four separate decades in the 19th century and seven decades in the 20th century. As mentioned above, Du Bois
covered his role in the Niagara Movement, NAACP, Pan-African Movement, Council on African Affairs, and Peace Information Center. Du Bois also discussed his 90th birthday celebration in New York City held before he migrated to Ghana and his travels to different countries. He ended the book with this statement: “Teach us, Forever Dead, there is no Dream but Deed, there is no deed but Memory” (p. 423). This book was released in the USA five years after his death.

CARTER G. WOODSON AS A FOINTAINHEAD OF ETHNIC STUDIES AND ETHNICIAN

Like W.E.B. Du Bois, Carter G. Woodson fits the criteria for Charles C. Irby’s concept of the ethnician. He engaged in organizing by helping to develop the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. Du Bois helped to clarify by his publications with Associated Publishers and editing of The Journal of Negro History and Negro History Bulletin. He helped to propagating meaningful solutions confronting problems confronting Black communities by helping to developing social movements like the observation of Negro History Week. Like Du Bois, Woodson was thoroughly committed to the merger of theory with practice.

Social Background of Carter G. Woodson

Carter G. Woodson was born on December 19, 1875 in New Canton, Virginia and died on April 3, 1950. He was born into a nuclear family comprised of his father James Henry Woodson and his mother Anne Eliza Riddle. Carter G. Woodson was one of nine children born into a sharecropping family. Although his father and grandfather were skilled in carpentry, they found themselves forced into being sharecroppers during the Postbellum Era. However, James Henry Woodson managed to purchase some land on which his family established a farm and tried to eke out a living. On the family farm, Carter G. Woodson began to work as a small child. He later worked as a teenager doing agricultural day labor (Woodson, 1944b; Goggin, 2008; Cromartie, 1993, 2012).

During the latter part of the 1880s, the Woodson family made a move from Virginia to Fayette County, West Virginia. At that location, James Henry Woodson found work in railroad construction and Carter G. Woodson found work in a coal mine. Carter G. Woodson worked as a coal miner for several years before he entered Frederick Douglass High School in Huntingon, West Virginia at the age of 20 in 1895. The extremely bright Carter G. Woodson managed to complete four years of school in only two. In 1897, Carter G. Woodson graduated from Frederick Douglass High School and decided to attend college (Woodson, 1944b; Goggin, 2008).

Shortly after he graduated from Frederick Douglass High School, Woodson began to attend Berea College as a part-time student. In 1903, Woodson graduated with a B.A. degree from Berea College it was still integrated. The following year Berea College became a segregated institution open only to White students because of the Day Law in Kentucky. That law mandated Black people and White people could not attend the same public or private higher educational institutions (Goggin, 2008; Berea College, 2020).

Woodson began his grade school teaching career at one for the children of Black coal miners in Winona, West Virginia while attending Berea College. By 1900, Woodson was serving as the principal of Frederick Douglass High School, his alma mater, and stayed in that position until 1903. During 1901, Woodson earned a West Virginia teaching certificate with high scores. From 1903 to 1906, Woodson served as a supervisor of schools in schools in the Philippines. After his return to the USA, Woodson resumed the teaching in the USA. He also began graduate school at University of Chicago. In 1908, Woodson earned a M.A. in history from the University of Chicago. Some four years later, in 1912, Carter became the second known Black person to get a Ph.D. in history from Harvard University. Between 1909 and 1919, Woodson also taught at various times at Armstrong High School and M Street High School (later Paul Laurence Dunbar High School) (Woodson, 1921, 1944b; Goggin, 2008; Carter G. Woodson Center, 2020).6

Teaching Experience at Howard University and West Virginia State University

During 1919 to 2020, Woodson received as a dean of arts and sciences, professor of history, and head of the graduate program in history at Howard University. Woodson supervised the first M.A. thesis in history approved by the graduate faculty of Howard University. However, Woodson resigned from Howard University after only year.
Woodson issued his resignation because he disagreed with some of the educational policies at Howard University (Goggin, 2008; Logan, 1982; Thorpe, 1971).

From 1920 to 1922, Woodson served as a dean at West Virginia Collegiate Institute (later West Virginia State College). While at that institution, Woodson reorganized the curriculum. In 1922, Woodson retired from college teaching and administration. He devoted the rest of his life to writing, editing, and promoting both scholarly and popular interests in the study of Black life and history (Goggin, 2008; Logan, 1982; Reddick, 1953).

**Founding of The Journal of Negro History**

In 1916, Woodson founded *The Journal of Negro History* under the aegis of Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. Analysis of the masthead of the January 1916 first edition indicated that the editor was Woodson and the associate editors were Monroe N. Work, whose institutional affiliation was Tuskegee Institute; Benjamin J. Brawley, whose institutional affiliation was Morehouse College; George E. Haynes, whose institutional affiliation was Fisk University; Walter Dyson, whose institutional affiliation was Howard University; Robert E. Park, whose institutional affiliation was the University of Chicago; and Kelly Miller, whose institutional affiliation was Howard University. The analysis of the masthead also indicated that the officers of the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History included George C. Hall as president; Jesse E. Moorland as secretary-treasurer; and Woodson as director of research and editor. Additionally, the analysis of the masthead indicated that the Executive Council of the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History was composed of George C. Hall of Chicago; Jesse E. Moorland of Washington, DC; Carter G. Woodson of Washington, DC; John A. Bigham of Atlanta University; S.P. Breckinridge of the University of Chicago; A.L. Jackson of Chicago; and G.C. Wilkinson of Washington, DC.

In the first issue of *The Journal of Negro History*, there were articles, documents, reviews of books, and notes. The articles were written by Woodson, W.B. Hartgrove, Monroe N. Work, and A.O. Stafford. Woodson focused on the Black experience in Cincinnati, Ohio before 1861. Hartgrove (1916) looked at the lives of Maria Louise Moore and Fannie M. Richards. Work (1916) briefly covered the African heritage of Black people in the USA. He explained that the heritage included the invention of the smelting of iron, building structures in the valley of the Nile, and developing the University of Sankore in Timbuctoo. He sought to show that Black people in Africa attained high levels of culture and were more than hewers of wood and drawers of water. Stafford addressed how people can get a look at the mind of Black people by analyzing the folk literature, especially the proverbs.

Analysis of the first issue revealed that it contained documents in form of two 1788 Othello essays on slavery as a system that needed to be abolished. The documents also included a narrative on the history of the first Black Baptist churches in Savannah, Georgia and Kingston, Jamaica. The notes in the first issue acknowledged the 1915 death of Booker T. Washington. He was credited with being an educational reformer. Although he often used ghost writers, Washington was credited with being the author of several books, including *Up from Slavery; Frederick Douglass;* and *Story of the Negro* (Woodson, 1916).

Looking back on the release of the first issue of *The Journal of Negro History*, Woodson (1940) stated that some members of the Executive Council resigned as a protest. They felt Woodson should have received their permission before he proceeded to issue the first issue. One of the people who resigned was S. P. Breckinridge. According to Woodson, “Miss S. P. Breckinridge resigned later in the year 1916 because the Director, without consulting the Executive Council, brought out on January 1, 1916, the first issue of *The Journal of Negro History* at a cost of almost four hundred dollars” (p. 423). Nevertheless, Woodson served as the editor from 1916 to his death in 1950 and the journal never missed an issue (Goggin, 2008).

**Original Research of Carter G. Woodson**

Whereas the research of W.E.B. Du Bois dated back to years before 1900, the research of Carter G. Woodson went back to years after 1900. During the second decade of the 20th century, Woodson (1912) completed his doctoral dissertation at Harvard University. The title of his dissertation was *The Disruption of Virginia*. Woodson examined the social conditions related to the succession movement in Virginia. In the next seven years, Woodson (1915/1919a, 1916a, 1917, 1918, 1919a, 1919b) followed up his dissertation by publishing his research Black education at all
levels; Black people in Cincinnati before the Civil War; Black freedom and enslavement in Appalachia; Anthony Benezet; miscegenation; and Black migration. 

Some six years later, Woodson (1918) published *A Century of Negro Migration*. Woodson explored the “transplantation” of Black people from the South to the North as they sought to “flee from bondage and oppression in quest of a land offering asylum to the oppressed and opportunity to the unfortunate” (p. v). He covered the period from 1815 to 1918. The year after he released his exploration of Black migration, Woodson (1919) published a second edition of *The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861*. Woodson examined Black education from the beginning of slavery in the original 13 colonies to the breakout of the Civil War.

As the third decade of the 20th century unfolded, Woodson (1920, 1921a, 1921b, 1921c, 1922) published his research on Black-Indian relations in Massachusetts; Black citizenship and the Supreme Court in the USA; Black church history; and Black education in West Virginia. In the case of his research on Black education in West Virginia, Woodson (1921c, 1922) looked at its history as a social phenomenon in the antebellum period, bellum period, and postbellum period. Woodson noted that he and his colleagues developed a questionnaire that was sent out across the states to collect information about the development of Black education in various areas. As the third decade continued to unfold, Woodson (1924) published a study titled *Free Negro Owners of Slaves in the United States of America in 1830*. In this study, Woodson reported on free Black people who owned enslaved Black people during 1830. It was followed up by a study of Woodson (1925a) titled *Free Negro Heads of Families in the United States of America in 1830*. Woodson used that study to analyze data pertaining to all free Black heads of families in the USA during 1830. That same year, Woodson (1925b) released reports in the form of a book titled *Negro Orators and Their Orations* and an article titled “Ten Years of Collecting and Publishing the Records of the Negro.” Woodson used his book to study key speeches of leading Black orators and his article to chronicle efforts by him to collect and publish the records of Black people over a period of 10 years. Among other things, Woodson reported that, “The Association has in its files numerous letters from persons to the effect that facts disseminated by the society have caused them to change their attitude toward the Negro” (p. 598). Before the end of the decade, Woodson (1926) published his book titled *The Mind of the Negro Reflected in Letters Written During the Crisis, 1800-1860*. Woodson looked at the collective mind of Black people with special reference to letters written between 1800 and 1860.

During the fourth decade of the 20th century, Woodson (1930a) published a book titled *The Rural Negro*. He used that book to reveal that most Black people in the USA lived in the South and they lived in the rural areas of that part of the country. That same year, Woodson (1931) published an article in *The Journal of Negro History* titled “The Negro Washerwoman: A Vanishing Figure.” He explored the phenomenon of Black women washing the clothes of other people, especially White people, as a source of income. Also, that same year, W.E.B. Du Bois published an article in *The Crisis* by Woodson (1931) titled “The Mis-education of the Negro.” In that article, Woodson first introduced the concept of miseducation. Some two years later, Woodson (1933) released his book titled *The Mis-Education of the Negro*. Woodson charged that many institutions were engaging in the miseducation of Black people instead of giving them a true sense of self. During the following year, Woodson (1934) released *The Negro Professional Man and the Community, with Special Emphasis on the Physician and Lawyer*: He studied Black professional people with a focus on physicians and lawyers. Woodson (1936) followed that up with his book titled *The African Background Outlined*. He provided an analysis of the African background of Black people in the USA.

In the fifth decade of the 20th century, Woodson (1940) published an article titled “An Accounting for Twenty-Five Years.” In that article, Woodson covered the accomplishments of his organization over a period of 25 years. He made it clear that his organization was interested in shedding light on “hidden truths” and confronting “white supremacy” as a social force (pp. 423, 429). Woodson (1942a, 1942b, 1942c, 1942d) also served as the editor of *The Works of Francis J. Grimke*. It was a four-volume set of works by Francis J. Grimke. During the same decade, Woodson (1944a, 1944b) published a book titled *African Heroes and Heroines* and an article titled “My Recollections of Veterans of the Civil War.” Woodson utilized the book to study selected heroes and heroines in Africa. The article was used by Woodson to present a brief memoir of his recollections of Black Civil War veterans. On the one hand, the African heroes and heroines Woodson looked at included Menes, Cheops, Nefertari, Yusuf; Sundiata Keita, Sonni Ali, Askia Mohammed, Chaka, Dingaan, and Cetwayo. On the other hand, the Black Civil War veterans included his father James Henry Woodson and friend Oliver Jones. The latter inspired his initial interest in Black history. Before the end of the decade, Woodson (1947) published the ninth edition of his book titled...
The Negro in Our History. Woodson analyzed the contributions and challenges of Black people in the USA and elsewhere. It was one of the final works that he published during his lifetime.

**IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

This study has at least two significant consequences. One significant consequence of this study is that it examines some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of W.E.B. Du Bois to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. Many fellow ethnicians teach that Du Bois was an exemplar of Black educational achievement and Black educational attainment. They teach that Du Bois made major contributions to ethnic studies with his books and reports as well as his record in higher education. He served as a professor at Wilberforce University and Atlanta and did all he could to infuse the systematic study of Black people in the curriculum and instruction of those two institutions. The evidence shows that Du Bois was more successful at Atlanta University than he was at Wilberforce University. This study has identified some of the key books, key reports, and a key scholarly journal published by Du Bois between 1892 and 1960. It has also identified the accomplishment of Du Bois as the first known Black person to get a Ph.D. in history from Harvard. This study has further shown that Du Bois had a Black working-class background in Great Barrington, Massachusetts.

A second significant consequence of this study is that it examines some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of Carter G. Woodson to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. Many fellow ethnicians teach that Woodson was an exemplar of Black educational achievement and Black educational attainment. They teach that Woodson made major contributions to ethnic studies with his books and reports as well as his record in higher education. He served as a dean at Howard University and West Virginia State Institute and did all he could to infuse the systematic study of Black people in the curriculum and instruction of those two institutions. The evidence shows that Woodson was more successful at West State Virginia Institute than he was at Howard University. This study has identified some of the key books, key reports, and a key scholarly journal published by Woodson between 1912 and 1947. It has also identified the accomplishment of Woodson as the first known Black person to get a Ph.D. in history from Harvard. This study has further shown that Woodson had a Black working-class background when he was born in Virginia. It has also shown that he was raised in Virginia and West Virginia due to migration.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

This paper has focused on W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson as fountainheads of ethnic studies. It has examined some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of Du Bois to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. This paper has also examined some of the things that are being taught about the contributions of Carter G. Woodson to the Ethnic Studies Movement and the Black Studies Movement. Additionally, this paper has covered some implications of the research.

W.E.B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson both lived long and fruitful lives wherein scholarly research was a mainstay. However, both scholars spent considerable stints in college the classrooms wherein they talked what they knew. They also taught what they knew outside the classroom. In the case of Du Bois, he labored in the classrooms of Wilberforce University and Atlanta University where he acquired friends and mentees. Du Bois also found friends and mentees in the American Negro Academy, National Afro-American Council, Niagara Movement, NAACP, Council on African Affairs, Peace Information Center, and Encyclopedia Africana. Among his friends and mentees were Augustus Granville Dill, Jessie Fauset, Georgia Johnson, Irene Diggs, Paul Robeson, George Padmore, and Kwame Nkrumah to name a few. His mentees have made their own marks and did the legacy of Du Bois a great service. In the case of Woodson, he labored in the classrooms of Howard University and West Virginia State University where he acquired friends and mentees. Woodson also found friends and mentees in the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. Among his friends and mentees were Luther P. Jackson, Rayford Logan, A. A. Taylor, Charles H. Wesley, Lorenzo J. Greene, Myra Colson-Callis, Florence Beatty-Brown, James Hugo Johnston, John J. McKinlay, and Langston Hughes to name a few. His mentees have made their own marks and did the legacy of Woodson a great service (Du Bois, 1940a, 1968; Woodson, 1940).

Whereas Woodson died in 1950 shortly before the Brown Decision, Du Bois died in 1963 one day before the March
on Washington and one year before the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The two men paved the way for the Brown decision and the Civil Rights of 1964 by taking on the system of White supremacy and creating research projects that showed the contributions of Black people to this country and the world. Du Bois and Woodson saw scholarship as a form of struggle and they put up a noble and courageous fight against the system of White supremacy, including White racist scholarship. Their ideas and research contributions played a major role in the emergence of the Black Studies Movement and the Ethnic Studies Movement. To counter the system of White supremacy, Du Bois and Woodson used Black nationalism and Pan-Africanism along with their scholarship. Both men engaged in Black nationalism in that they encouraged Black people to have racial solidarity and collective behavior around economic matters, political matters, and cultural matters. Likewise, both men engaged in Pan-Africanism in that they encouraged Black people to have racial solidarity and collective behavior around economic matters, political matters, and cultural matters. Let those social facts be taught in the halls of academia as time rolls on (Holt, 2008; Aptheker, 1985; Goggin, 1983, 2008).

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END NOTES

1. Nathan Hare (personal communication, August 1989) informed me that he introduced the term in an Academic Senate meeting at San Francisco State University in the early part of 1968. Hare said he preferred the use of the term ethnic studies instead of minority studies. Cf. San Francisco State College (1967-1968).

2. According to Deaths Registered in the Town of Great Barrington for the year eighteen hundred and seventy-nine (1879), Sally Burghardt, who was also known as Sally Burghardt died on January 19, 1879. Since W. E. B. Du Bois was born on February 23, 1868, this information suggests that he was 10 or 11 years old when his grandmother died, and his mother had her stroke.

3. By 1894, Thomas J. Calloway was the president of Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College in Mississippi. Du Bois (1973) used Calloway as one of his references when he applied for a job to teach at Tuskegee.
4. For a compilation of the original eight essays, see Cromartie (2020).
5. In a brief memoir, Woodson (1944b) stated that he became the principal of Frederick Douglass High School in 1900. However, Goggin (2008) said he became the principal of Frederick Douglass High School in 1901.
6. Within two years of the founding of Phylon, Du Bois (1942) published one article wherein he examined the four cultural missions of Atlanta University. Du Bois said those cultural missions included (1) higher education; (2) racial equality; (3) academic freedom; and (4) democracy and social power.
7. Within six years of the founding of The Journal of Negro of History, Woodson (1922) published one article wherein he explored the early history of Black education in West Virginia. Woodson stated that he taught in the grade schools of Fayette County, West Virginia and helped to Black education in that location.
Innovative Assessment – Effective Techniques for Assessing Online Learning

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ABSTRACT

Online learning and education were already seeing steady growth over the last two decades in institutions of higher learning. This growth became exponential during the global pandemic and is now normative in primary education. The rise of online learning and education has created many new opportunities such as flexibility and convenience. Moreover, there has also been significant research into techniques to deliver educational resources using online platforms. However, these opportunities and techniques are overshadowed if the education is not effective and traditionally, educational effectiveness has been measured through various assessment modalities. Assessment has always been an important tool in measuring the effectiveness of learning, but it is even more crucial in the online learning environment. At its most basic, educational assessment is gathering information about what students have learned. Tests or exams have been a common tool used to assess this and while these may still be used in online education their value may be diminished due to the lower standards of testing integrity. By its very nature an online test allows for open-source material and requires an exam be designed around this reality. The online educational environment demands more innovative assessment to be meaningful. Innovative assessments will vary somewhat based on area of study, what works in engineering may not be as useful in the social sciences but should be more context focused. The engineering student could demonstrate she can design a circuit and the social sciences student could write a critical analysis of a case study. Other innovative assessments could be the use of portfolios, scenarios, or research experiences, again depending on the course of study. It is clear that assessment will continue to be important in measuring educational effectiveness, and potentially more important in the online learning environment, and innovative assessment techniques may be the most valuable tools for this measure.
Glass Ceilings, Cliffs, And Winding Paths To Presidency: An Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis Exploring Gender Balance Among University Presidents
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ABSTRACT

Women are under-represented as presidents of Canadian universities. For the past 25 years, the percentage of women filling the role has remained relatively stable, with less than 20% of the positions filled by women. Although research has been conducted on female leaders in other countries and disciplines, little research exists exploring the experiences of women serving in the role of president at Canadian universities. Using the conceptual framework of communities of practice, an interpretive phenomenological study was undertaken to explore the lived experiences of women becoming and serving as Canadian university presidents. Data were gathered through semi-structured interviews with five of the 17 women who were serving as presidents of doctoral-comprehensive and undergraduate non-profit universities across Canada. Five themes emerged: (a) finding a path to the presidency, (b) perceived reasons for the gender gap, (c) functioning as a female president, (d) advice for universities, and (e) advice for women. Common obstacles encountered by female academic leaders included experiencing a lack of confidence, having little access to formal academic leadership training, and experiencing gender-related bias as female leaders. Learning about the experiences of female leaders in Canadian academia may help university administrators and presidential appointment committees to recognize the struggles and barriers faced by women rising through the ranks of academia, and to identify supports for women seeking such roles. If women feel better supported when progressing as academic leaders, more women may ultimately fill the most senior leadership positions, resulting in a more even gender balance.
Economic Stimulus Programs Due To Covid-19: Perceptions, Participation And Progress For Black-Owned Small Businesses
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ABSTRACT
The COVID-19 virus has impacted every economic segment and demographic in the world in 2020. Especially hard hit have been small businesses, which often are working day to day to cover costs and remain profitable. In the United States, minority-owned businesses have been more severely impacted than other businesses and in particular, Black-owned businesses have experienced more negative impacts due to the pandemic when compared to their counterparts. This paper will highlight some of the issues and challenges faced by Black small businesses in response to a survey regarding the pandemic. Suggestions and recommendations will be given to assist these firms in recovery and growth.

Keywords: Black-owned business, COVID-19, small business
E-Learning In Times Of Crisis –
An Incidental Or Facilitative Event?
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ABSTRACT

As a result of the COVID-19 epidemic that erupted in 2020 the various higher education institutions in Israel, as elsewhere, were compelled to embrace E-Learning at short notice. This was a revolution that appeared with no preparation and that put on the agenda the efficacy of E-Learning from pedagogical aspects and the implications of the lecturer’s functions and of the act of teaching for the quality of students’ learning as well as for the meaning of the learning expanse (campus – home) in teaching and learning processes. The current study examined the opinions of students and lecturers regarding the advantages and disadvantages of E-Learning from various aspects in a systemic, multi-institutional perspective. The study included 2015 students studying at various academic institutions: universities, academic teachers’ colleges, academic colleges, and private colleges. The study also included 223 lecturers.

The research findings show that the respondents did not display a high preference for E-learning: less than half the students and about one third of the lecturers expressed a preference for E-learning. Both groups noted the lack of personal, social, and emotional interaction with both students and lecturers as one of the main shortcomings of E-learning. Most of the students and lecturers did not grasp E-learning as providing them with better quality teaching and learning. The study illuminates the role of the lecturer in the digital era as a teacher, and particularly – the role of the professional elements in charge of teaching and learning at academic institutions, particularly in the pedagogical aspects. According to student evaluations, the use of technological platforms and tools does not improve teaching, as they are used by the faculty only technically with no matching pedagogy. In order to succeed, E-Learning requires other pedagogical educational approaches aside from copying frontal teaching patterns using the Zoom platform, as well as others: Weber, MS Teams, etc.

In addition, the study indicates the need for perceptual changes, both by the students, who must take responsibility for their learning, and by the lecturers, who must reexamine the teaching and learning processes and adapt their role and areas of responsibility to the new opportunities afforded by the technological tools. The research findings also indicate that effective teaching is teaching that arouses in student's inquisitiveness, motivation, and learning experiences, and note that learning products must be adapted to include essential skills in addition to knowledge. Further, the study illuminates the thorough discussion that must be held by leaders of higher education and of the academic institutions concerning the new effective designation of the campus after the COVID-19 crisis, including distinguishing between the virtual and the realistic in academic teaching and challenges and ways of dealing with the new circumstances.
Distance Learning For The Traditionally On-Ground College Students: A Natural Field Experiment Due To The Pandemic

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ABSTRACT

The sudden outbreak of Covid-19 pandemic closed down college physical campuses in the middle of the semester and placed them in a natural field experimental condition to test the efficacy of distance online instructions without resistance of the faculty and students. We examined students learning achievements as recorded in their grades and compared them between the pre- and the during-pandemic periods. A half of 16 sample classes in the study were on-ground interactive classroom teaching before the pandemic, and another half of the classes were distance online instruction during the pandemic. We found that the class grade point averages (GPAs) calculated without fails and withdrawals were higher before the pandemic than during the pandemic semesters; and that frequencies of fails and withdrawals are significantly larger during the pandemic than before the pandemic. We discussed the loss of learning during the pandemic and its implications for the potential college enrollment decline for the future.
The Relationship Of Selected Financial Ratios And Cash Flows On Stock Prices In The Thailand Sustainability Investment Companies

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to examine the relationships of selected financial ratios and cash flows on stock prices in next period. Thailand Sustainability Investment (THSI) companies are the population, 124 listed companies in total. After the filtering process, the sample set remains 99 listed companies. Quarterly data during January 2016 - December 2020 are collected from the SETSMART data. The selected financial ratios/data are book to market ratio, dividend yield, debt to equity ratio, earning yield, total asset turnover ratio, cash flows from operating activities, and stock prices. Multiple regression is used to examine the relationship. Results reveal that debt to equity ratio and cash flow from operating activities have the positive relationships with stock prices in next period. Book to market ratio and total asset turnover ratio indicate the negative relationship. No relationship found in dividend yield and earning yield on stock prices in next period.

Keywords: Financial Ratios, Cash Flow, Stock Price, Sustainability Investment Company

1. INTRODUCTION

Theoretical, financial ratios can be used to identify and quantify a company’s strengths, weaknesses, including find out the risks involved in the company. Since financial ratios information can describe a company condition, several researchers focus their studies on measuring the effect of financial ratios on stock return (Martani, Mulyono, and Kha irurizka, 2009). Researchers from both developed market and emerging market show results that stock returns of listed companies have relationship with financial ratios, such as book to market ratio (Fama and French, 1992, 1995), debt to equity ratio (Barbee, Jr., Mukherji and Raines, 1996), dividend yield (Kothari and Shanken, 1997), earning yield (Lewellen, 2004), and total asset turnover ratio (Vedd and Yassinski, 2015). This implies that financial ratios can be used as a tool in predicting stock return. Researchers who focus their studies on predicting returns with financial ratios also include Lewellen (2004), Menaje, Jr. (2012), Kheradyar, Ibrahim, and Mat Nor (2011), and Lai and Cho (2016).

Especially, Fama and French (1992), who published a remarkable study on the cross-sectional relationship of stock returns. Fama and French (1992) results were soon followed by others, for example Kothari, Shanken, and Slone (1995) and Kim (1997). One problem that Kothari, Shanken, and Slone (1995) find in their study is a survivorship bias in a data set, the Compustat database, which affect to the economically significant of their results. Therefore, it is important that research study in this area should be aware of the survivorship bias.

relationship between cash flow and stock return. This issue has not been clarified, so it is interesting to investigate further what a real result will happen in the Thai capital market.

Thailand Sustainability Investment (THSI) refers to the listed companies in Thailand that not only a good fundamental stock and growth potential, but also concern on Environment (E), Social (S) and Governance (G) which is also called ESG companies. Although the stock prices of these companies may fluctuate by economic and politic both in global and domestic situations, these companies will less fluctuation in long term that would be generate more consistent profits (Poonsatainsub, 2020). The current THSI companies was announced by The Stock Exchange of Thailand in November 2020, 124 companies in total.

Since a past few decades, there have been several researchers in developed capital markets have been devoted to test an effect of financial ratios in stock returns, and successful published their studies in acknowledged academic journals. However, this differs in Thailand that a few publish articles focus on this issue. Apart from stock returns, stock price variable is also interesting to be tested. To clarify the point, this study will examine the relationship of selected financial ratios, cash flow and stock prices in THSI companies to see whether the selected financial variables have relationship with stock prices. This study will be different from other previous studies in Thailand in three points.

(i) This is the first time that tested for relationship between selected financial ratios and stock prices in next period in the THSI companies.

(ii) This is also the first time that cash flows are examined for relationship with stock prices in next period in the THSI companies.

(iii) This research focuses on market price in next period \((P_{t+1})\) rather than return rate.

2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of this study is to examine the relationships of selected financial ratios and cash flows from operating activities in period \(t\) on the stock prices in next period \((P_{t+1})\) of the THSI companies.

Please note that the selected financial ratios to be tested are book to market ratio, dividend yield, debt to equity ratio, earning yield, total asset turnover ratio, and cash flows from operating activities. More detail about these selected variables will be explained in the next section.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past few decades, there have been several researchers who focus their studies on the relationship of financial ratios on stock returns. Lewellen (2004) states that financial ratios can also be applied to stock markets as a tool capable of predicting returns and the predictability remains strong although it confronts to the period of unusual price run-up. Kheradyar and Ibrahim (2011) also find evidence of stock return relationship with financial ratios in Malaysia stock market. They find that the book to market ratio is higher relationship than other financial ratios. Several researchers indicate that not only the book to market ratio but also dividend yield, earning yield, debt to equity and total asset turnover, have a relationship with stock returns, including the studies of Kothari and Shanken, (1997), Lewellen (2004), Chen and Shen (2009), Deaves, Miu, and White (2008), Barbee, Jr., Mukherji and Raines (1996), and Vedd and Yassinski (2015). However, these results are mostly found in developed capital markets rather than emerging markets.

(i) Book To Market Ratio (BM)

Fama and French (1992) provide a landmark of study on the cross-sectional relationship between return and risk and introduce the three-factor model which consists of beta, size effects, and the book to market ratio. They interpret the book to market ratio as a risk factor and reveal that it has positively relationship to stock return. However, several studies on the book to market ratio influence provide mixed results.

In the other hand, some researchers do not find the effect of book to market ratio to stock return. For example, Kothari, Shanken, and Sloan (1995) do not find a significant relation between book to market ratio and returns in the US stock market. They conclude that this result is a serious challenge to the Fama and French empirical results. Loughram (1997) considers a January effect for value firms on his data set and finds that the book to market ratio is really low returns on small firms. Moreover, negative relationship which points out that high book to market ratio signals poor earning and low book to market ratio signals strong earning, is found in the studies of Fama and French (1995), Kothari and Shanken (1997), Lewellen (2004), Kheradyar, Ibrahim and Mat Nor (2011) and Arif and Akbar (2016).

(ii) Dividend Yield (DY)

The positive relationship between dividend yield and stock return find in the study of Fama and French (1988). It implies that the dividend yield has the predictive power on stock return. Dividend yield leads to variation on return (Kothari and Shanken, 1997). Lewellen (2004) tests whether dividend yield can predict aggregate stock return. He introduces an explosive new test to improve the predictive ability of financial ratio and reveal that dividend yield can predict market returns during 1946-2000. Dividend yield also represents as a good predictor of stock returns in Canada (Deaves, Miu, and White, 2008), in Malaysia (Kheradyar, Ibrahim and Mat Nor 2011) and in Hong Kong Stock Market (Lai and Cho, 2016).

(iii) Debt To Equity Ratio (DE)

Bhandari (1988) examine the relationship between debt to equity ratio and stock return and find that the ratio presented positive relationships as far as predicting stock returns were concerned. While Barbee, Jr., Mukherji and Raines (1996) examines whether sale-to-price, debt to equity ratio have more explanatory power than book to market ratio and firm size during 1979-1991. They show the evidence that the book to market ratio, sales-to-price ratio, and debt to equity ratio were significant positively related with each other and moderately and negatively with stock price. In addition, the relationship between debt to equity ratio and stock return are also examined in Korea stock markets by Mukherji, Dhatt and Kim (1997) and the positive relationship is found in this study. More than a decade later, Vedd and Yassinski (2015) examines how financial ratio impact on the stock price of publicly traded companies in Latin America industrial sector. They find the significant effect that debt to equity ratio has an important effect on stock prices in Colombian companies. However, when all companies in Latin America are tested, results reveal a negative relationship between debt to equity ratio and stock price. In contrast, Martani, Mulyono, and Khairurizka (2009) examine the effect of financial ratios in Indonesia Stock Market during 2003-3006 but they find no effect of debt to equity ratio on stock return in Indonesia.

(iv) Earning Yield (EY)

Basu (1983) takes an empirical research to examine the relationship between earning yield, market value and return for NYSE common stocks during December 1962 -1978. Results evidence that the common stock of high earning to price (E/P) ratio’s firms earn higher returns than the common stock of low earning to price (E/P) ratio’s firms. This effect is clearly significant even if experimental control is tested over different firm size. However, the firm size effect nearly disappears when returns are controlled for differences in risk and E/P ratios. The results also show that the E/P ratio is sufficiently weak for firms that larger than average in the NYSE. Keim (1990) finds another viewpoint by examining longer period, from 1951 to 1986, and reveals that both E/P ratio and firm size are significant positive relationship with stock returns when estimated across all months. Keim pays attention to the January effect by excluding January data from his data set. When January data is excluded, only E/P ratio effect shows significant
positive relationships during the rest of the year. However, Lewellen (2004) who conducts the test of whether the financial ratios can predict aggregate stock returns. He finds that evidence for earning price ratio is somewhat weaker than dividend yield and it seems to have limited forecasting power. Kheradyar, Ibrahim and Mat Nor (2011) study this issue in Malaysia and reveal a positive relationship between financial ratios and future stock returns. They state that the predictive power of earning yield is lower than dividend yield and book to market ratio.

(v) Total Asset Turnover Ratio (TA)

A few researchers use total asset turnover ratio as a variable to be tested the relationship with stock returns. Among them, only Vedd and Yassinski (2015), who examine the effect of financial ratio, firm size and operating cash flow on stock price in the Latin America, find the significant effect that asset turnover ratio has relationship with stock prices in companies from Brazil, Chile and Mexico.

(vi) Cash Flow From Operating Activities (CFO)

A few years ago, there are some researcher starts their studies on examining the effect of cash flow from operating activities on stock return. Results on this issue are inconsistent depending on which stock market is tested. For example, Martani, Mulyono, and Khairurizka (2009) could not find any evidence in the relationship between cash flow from operating activities and stock return in Indonesia Stock Market, but Arif and Akbar (2016) find significant positive relationship in the Karachi Stock Exchange in Pakistan. However, Vedd and Yassinski (2015) find negative relationship on cash flow and stock return in the Latin America. This implies that this issue is far from resolve and the used of cash flows from operating activities as a variable to be tested relationship with stock return or price should be further reexamined to receive more clarify result.

(vii) Financial Ratio Study In Thailand

In Thailand, the study on predicting returns with financial ratios has received some academic interest in examining this issue. Although some working papers find the evidence on relationships between a few financial ratios and stock returns (or stock prices), these working papers still have a weak or no evidence on relationship between these variables. The only research article published in Thai academic journal is a work of Utirum and Sukkawattanasinit (2014) who examine relationship between 20 financial ratios and expected returns of the listed companies in the SET100 index during 2010-2012. Among the 20 financial ratios, only 2 ratios (market-to-book ratio and dividend yield) are found some relationship with expected returns.

4. HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

Research Question: Is there relationship between combination of financial ratios and cash flows from operating activities in period \( t \) and stock prices in period \( t+1 \)?

Null Hypothesis \( (H_0) \): There is no relationship between combination of financial ratios and cash flows from operating activities in period \( t \) and stock prices in period \( t+1 \).

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sampling Construction

To avoid survivorship bias, all 124 listed companies in the Thailand Sustainability Investment (THSI) companies are selected as a population. This research comprised a period of 5 years, from January 2016 to December 2020. The quarterly data are used. The filtering process applied from Kheradyar, Ibrahim and Mat Nor (2011) and Lai and Cho (2016) as follow:
(1) The companies must be listed on the THSI main board before January 2016.
(2) The company’s stock has been actively traded during the 5-year study period and must not be delisted during the study period.
(3) The stocks must not be suspended for more than 12 months.
(4) The data of all variables of all companies in data set must be available in the SETSMART.
(5) The companies with negative book values are excluded from the data set.

Since the companies in Financial sector in Thailand have difference type of financial statement reports, they are excluded from the data set. From 124 THSI listed companies, there are 13 financial companies and 12 companies that both have not been actively traded during 5-year study period and/or uncomplete data in the SETSMART. Therefore, the sample set finally remains 99 THSI listed companies.

Data Required And Data Collection

The quarterly data in this study will focus on information from financial statements, stock prices, dividend payout during January 2016-December 2020. The data are collected from the SETSMART which is the stock data system provided by The Stock Exchange of Thailand.

Statistics Test: Multiple Regression Model

Several researchers apply the multiple regression to investigate the relationship between dependent variable (stock prices) and independent variables (selected financial variables), including the studies of Martani, Mulyono, and Khairurizka (2009), Kheradyar, Ibrahim and Mat Nor (2011), Vedd and Yassinski (2015), and Lai and Cho (2016). A multiple regression model is applied to test the significance of independent variables on dependent variable using the Stepwise method. The multiple regression equation is as follows:

$$P_{t+1} = \alpha_i + \beta_{i1} BM_i + \beta_{i2} DY_i + \beta_{i3} DE_i + \beta_{i4} EY_i + \beta_{i5} TA_i + \beta_{i6} CFO_i + \epsilon_{it}$$

Where:

- $P_{t+1} =$ Stock prices in next period or period $t+1$,
- $\alpha_i =$ the estimated constant or unsystematic predictable constant component,
- $BM_i =$ book to market ratio of stock $i$,
- $DY_i =$ dividend yield of stock $i$,
- $DE_i =$ debt to equity ratio of stock $i$,
- $EY_i =$ earning yield of stock $i$,
- $TA_i =$ total asset turnover of stock $i$,
- $CFO_i =$ cash flow from operating activities of stock $i$,
- $t =$ time period $t$,
- $\beta_{i1} =$ the predictable coefficient of stock $i$ for BM,
- $\beta_{i2} =$ the predictable coefficient of stock $i$ for DY,
- $\beta_{i3} =$ the predictable coefficient of stock $i$ for DE,
- $\beta_{i4} =$ the predictable coefficient of stock $i$ for EY,
- $\beta_{i5} =$ the predictable coefficient of stock $i$ for TA,
- $\beta_{i6} =$ the predictable coefficient of stock $i$ for CFO,
- $\epsilon_{it} =$ error term or unsystematic error from the predicted $R_i$ term, and
- $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots n$
6. RESULTS

The results from Table 1 report that the correlation between the variables are ranged from -0.086 to 0.276, which is lower than 0.75, indicating that there are no problem on collinearity and multicollinearity. All correlation results show the significance level of 0.01, indicating that multiple regression can be analyzed in the next step.

Table 1: Correlations of Stock Prices in Period \( t+1 \) and Selected Financial Variables in Period \( t \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>stock prices</th>
<th>BM</th>
<th>DY</th>
<th>DE</th>
<th>EY</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>CFO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| BM | Pearson Correlation | -0.177** | 1 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.000 |

| DY | Pearson Correlation | -0.107** | 0.429** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.000 | 0.000 |

| DE | Pearson Correlation | 0.080** | -0.165** | -0.155** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

| EY | Pearson Correlation | 0.030 | -0.064** | -0.018 | -0.155** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.187 | 0.004 | 0.442 | 0.000 |

| TA | Pearson Correlation | -0.101** | -0.080** | 0.086** | 0.023 | 0.068** |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.308 | 0.002 |

| CFO | Pearson Correlation | 0.276** | -0.067** | -0.045 | 0.085** | 0.185** | -0.038 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.000 | 0.003 | 0.055 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.090 | - |

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Results from Table 2 reveal that, when the Stepwise method is applied, it runs 4 times or 4 models. The highest R square value of 0.110 is found in the 4th model and Durbin-Watson value is 0.167. The Durbin-Watson is the statistical value testing the freedom of the error, which should be in the range from 1.5 to 2.5. The means that the Durbin-Watson in this case is passed. In conclusion, the tolerances are independent, indicating that there is no autocorrelation problem in this study.
Table 3: ANOVA Results: Focus on Sum of Squares of Regression, F value and Significant Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Summary of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>557,223.012</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>557,223.012</td>
<td>143.980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>7,074,629.349</td>
<td>1828</td>
<td>3,870.147</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,631,852.361</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>740,655.488</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>37,0327.744</td>
<td>98.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>6,891,196.873</td>
<td>1827</td>
<td>3,771.865</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,631,852.361</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>827,643.630</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>275,881.210</td>
<td>74.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>6,804,208.731</td>
<td>1826</td>
<td>3,726.292</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,631,852.361</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>84,2328.104</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>210,582.026</td>
<td>56.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>6789524.257</td>
<td>1825</td>
<td>3,720.287</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7631852.361</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: stock price in period t+1  
b. Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows  
c. Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows, Book to Market ratio  
d. Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows, Book to Market ratio, Total Asset Turnover ratio  
e. Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows, Book to Market ratio, Total Asset Turnover ratio, Debt to Equity ratio

Results in Table 3 indicate that although the adding independent variables from the 1st model to the 4th model, it caused the F value to be decreased from 143.980 (in the 1st model) down to 56.640 (in the 4th model) and the summary of squares results continue increasing from 557,223.012 to 84,2328.104. All models are significant at the 0.01 level. As the results, it implies that cash flows from operating activities, book to market ratio, total asset turnover ratio, and debt to equity ratio should be analyzed in the multiple regression in the next section (it will be reported in Table 4) as follows.

Table 4: Coefficients Results of the 1st regression model to the 4th regression model applying the stepwise method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. error</td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>29.238</td>
<td>1.515</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFO</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>44.091</td>
<td>2.602</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFO</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BM</td>
<td>-21.658</td>
<td>3.106</td>
<td>-0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>53.429</td>
<td>3.229</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFO</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BM</td>
<td>-23.476</td>
<td>3.110</td>
<td>-0.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA</td>
<td>-9.209</td>
<td>1.906</td>
<td>-0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>49.459</td>
<td>3.795</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFO</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BM</td>
<td>-22.366</td>
<td>3.157</td>
<td>-0.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA</td>
<td>-9.354</td>
<td>1.906</td>
<td>-0.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DE</td>
<td>2.948</td>
<td>1.484</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: stock prices in period t+1  
b. * sig at 0.01 level  
c. ** sig at 0.05 level

Table 4 shows the coefficient results. It indicates that the best model is the 4th model when it is run with the Stepwise method. Please note that the Stepwise method is the popular method to be used in testing multiple regression with SPSS program.
When looking at independent variables which the most affect to the dependent variable, the standardized coefficients should be considered because the B value are not be able to be compared due to being unstandardized coefficient. It means that the beta in standardized coefficients should be considered. In other word, the highest beta value should be considered firstly. The highest beta value is the beta of cash flow from operating activities (0.252). Since the highest beta value should be tested first, then the lower beta value should be tested further, which is the process of the Stepwise method. According to this method, the independent variables in table 4 are sort from cash flow from operating activities, total asset turnover, book to market ratio, and debt to equity ratio.

The B results at the 0.01 and 0.05 significant level from the 4th model can be interpreted as follows.

1) When cash flows from operating activities increases 1 unit, the stock price in next quarter \(P_{t+1}\) will increase 0.001 baht.
2) When book to market ratio increases 1 unit, the stock price in next quarter will decrease 22.366 baht.
3) When total asset turnover ratio increases 1 unit, the stock price in next quarter will decrease 9.354 baht.
4) When the debt to equity ratio increases 1 unit, the stock price in next quarter will increase 2.948 baht.

<p>| Table 5: Excluded Variables(^a) from the Multiple Regression |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Beta In</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>BM -0.155(^b)</td>
<td>-6.974</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.161</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DY -0.095(^b)</td>
<td>-4.233</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.099</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DE 0.068(^b)</td>
<td>2.999</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EY -0.041(^b)</td>
<td>-1.769</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA -0.087(^b)</td>
<td>-3.888</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.091</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>DY -0.035(^c)</td>
<td>-1.416</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>-0.033</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DE 0.041(^c)</td>
<td>1.788</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EY -0.040(^c)</td>
<td>-1.782</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA -0.108(^c)</td>
<td>-4.832</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.112</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>DY -0.017(^d)</td>
<td>-0.700</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DE 0.045(^d)</td>
<td>1.987</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EY -0.032(^d)</td>
<td>-1.418</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>-0.033</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>DY -0.013(^e)</td>
<td>-0.525</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EY -0.026(^e)</td>
<td>-1.150</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(a\). Dependent Variable: stock price in period \(t+1\)
\(b\). Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows
\(c\). Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows, Book to Market ratio
\(d\). Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows, Book to Market ratio, Total Asset Turnover ratio
\(e\). Predictors: (Constant), Operating cash flows, Book to Market ratio, Total Asset Turnover ratio, Debt to Equity ratio

Results in Table 5 report the excluded variables from the multiple regression. The 1\(^{st}\) model show 5 independent variables to be tested. Following by the 2\(^{nd}\) model, the 3\(^{rd}\) model, and finally the 4\(^{th}\) model which show that only 2 independent variables are exclude from the multiple regression analysis which are dividend yield (DY) and earning yield (EY). These two variables are not included in the multiple regression equations, meaning that the values of the two variables have no relation to the dependent variable (stock price in the next quarter: \(P_{t+1}\)).

**Finding Model**

The finding model in this study is as follow.

\[ P_{t+1} = 49.456 - 22.366 BM_{t} + 2.948 DE_{t} - 9.354 TA_{t} + 0.001 CFO_{t} + \varepsilon_{t} \]

The R square is 0.11 which means that the independent variables (BM, DE, TA, CFO) can explain dependent variable \(P_{t+1}\) 11% and all independent variables are significant. This means that the finding model can be used.
7. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSIONS

Results in this study state that there are relationships between selected financial ratios, cash flow from operating activities and market stock price in next period which is the market price of the next quarter. Debt to equity ratio and cash flow from operating activities reveal the positive relationships but book to market ratio and total asset turnover ratio reveal the negative relationship. No relationship found in dividend yield and earning yield on stock price in the next period.

Please note that most of previous studies focus their works on stock return and financial ratios. The discussions in this section implied the stock return, which is calculated from stock price, to be discussed. This section is divided into four parts as follows.

Book To Market Ratio (BM)

Positive relationship between book to market ratio and stock return is found in the studies in developed capital market in The US by Stattman (1980), Rosenberg, Reid, and Lanstein (1985) Kothari and Shanken (1997) and also found by Chan, Hamao, and Lakonishok (1991) in Japan capital market. Mukherji, Dhatt and Kim (1997) find this relationship in Korea capital market. Although this study finds the relationship between book to market ratio and stock price, the relationship is a negative direction.

Debt To Equity Ratio (DE)

Positive relationship between debt-to-equity ratio and stock price is found in this study. This confirms the finding of Bhandari (1988) who study in the US. The positive relationship also found in the Korea stock markets by Mukherji, Dhatt and Kim (1997) and Vedd and Yassinski (2015) who examines this issue in Latin America industrial sector. They find an important effect of debt-to-equity ratio on stock prices in Colombian companies.

Total Asset Turnover Ratio (TA)

Negative relationship between total asset turnover ratio and stock price is found in this study which confirm the finding of Vedd and Yassinski (2015), who find the significant effect that total asset turnover ratio has relationship with stock prices in Brazil, Chile and Mexico companies.

Cash Flow From Operating Activities (CFO)

Positive relationship between cash flow from operating activities and stock price is found in this study consistent with the finding of Arif and Akbar (2016) who find positive relationship in The Karachi Stock Exchange in Pakistan. However, the negative relationship on cash flow and stock return is found in the Latin America by Vedd and Yassinski (2015).

8. RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Results in this study indicate that when investors who are interested in investing in the stocks in the Thailand Sustainability Investment (THSI) companies, they should know that the debt to equity ratio and cash flow from operating activities have positive relationships with stock prices in the next period. However, book to market ratio and total asset turnover ratio have the negative relationships with stock prices in next period, so the investor should be also considered in these points before making decision in investing in the stocks of the THSI companies. In addition, it is clear that no relationship found in dividend yield and earning yield on stock prices in the next period, so the investors can ignore these two ratios during marking the investment decision.

This study is expected to make significant contributions with practical implications for investors in Thai capital market both current investors and new market participants. The finding in this study should be applicable for not only Thai capital market, but also applicable for other emerging markets in developing countries.
For future research, it may be interesting to collect data from other emerging markets and conduct a comparative study. In addition, it is interesting to add other financial factors to be tested for the relationship with stock prices in next period.

REFERENCES


Cybersecurity: Increasing Under-Represented Students To The Major Through Engagement Mentoring And Research
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Suzanna Schmeelk, St. John’s University, USA

ABSTRACT
Those seen as under-represented, especially women are making strides in STEM careers, but are not on parity with those who are considered the majority or most often represented in the area of Cybersecurity. Although nationally enrollment trends are taking a turn in the positive direction, there is still a need to improve this enrollment for the under-represented and to engage, retain, persist and graduate successful under-represented cybersecurity majors. This paper will discuss the suggested steps for recruiting, retaining, persisting and graduating successful under-represented cybersecurity majors through engagement, mentoring and research and the impact on it students. Engagement through Student Club Activities, scholarly research, Academic Service Learning Activities, along with faculty and peer mentorship can lead to increased enrollment, and improved retention and graduation rates. Exposure to positive role models and outreach to junior high school and high school students can also lead to increasing the number of under-represented students in cybersecurity or other STEM areas. This paper will discuss the many ways that universities and colleges can increase the number of under-represented students with a focus on women cybersecurity students through their university and college programs utilizing their successful STEM faculty and students to promote a positive learning environment that will inspire students to major in cybersecurity, engage and persist the students while enrolled and ultimately provide the necessary skills and research to succeed in a career or graduate studies upon graduation.