A Historical Investigation of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges from 1890 to 1964

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A HISTORICAL INVESTIGATION
OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES
FROM 1890 TO 1964

by
John E. Sullivan

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate
School of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

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1969
John E. Sullivan was born in Chicago, Illinois, June 28, 1924. He was graduated from Lane Technical High School, Chicago, Illinois, June, 1942, and from Loyola University, February, 1950, with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Commerce. The Master of Education degree was conferred upon him from De Paul University, August, 1956.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Purpose of the Study

This investigation is primarily concerned with presenting the historical backgrounds, foundations and conditions relative to growth, educational programs, and the institutional development of the Negro land-grant colleges, and ultimately it is concerned with analyzing these institutions in relation to their ability to fulfill the modern educational needs of their students. Another extremely important objective is to isolate historical events that have affected the growth and development of these particular colleges with the ultimate goal of interpreting their position in the field of higher education in the United States. It should be noted here that since institutional development is of prime concern in this study, the arrangement of this investigation was ordered with this factor in mind. This dissertation was written to present data to the reader for evaluation and study, and there was no intention of attempting to solve any of the particular problems of this group of colleges.

The presentation of the problems and practices of the Negro land-grant colleges is intended to give insight into their complex operations, and it is hoped that it may lead us toward a goal
of providing equal-educational opportunities for all Americans. The author has tried to present the data of this study objectively without expressing personal opinions, and he wishes to note that the available data seriously controls the approaches taken toward the problem under investigation. All conclusions that have been offered were not made as personal expressions, but they were offered as a summation of the data gathered in the investigation. A conscientious effort has been made to trace the development of the Negro land-grant colleges in their environmental relationships, and it is hoped that the reader may be able to use the evidence presented to form further valuable objective conclusions of his own.

This investigation developed from the realization that Negro land-grant colleges are very important social and educational institutions in their own right, and secondly, in view of the integration decisions, Negro land-grant colleges are now unique structures. Therefore, the author has developed a strong interest in presenting and analyzing historical developments, patterns, trends, and leaders in this educational system.

B. Definition of Terms

There are several terms in this study that should be defined or clarified in order to convey their intended meanings to the reader. The following terms will be considered here: Negro land-grant college, education, and college.
A Negro land-grant college is an institution that either was an existing college or was one established through the benefits of the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890 for the purpose of educating colored students.¹

Education is a process which brings about desirable changes in human behavior through formal teaching or training, and it aims to prepare the educated normal individual to be reasonably happy and successful in society. It should benefit the person.

The term college in this study is used to refer to both colleges and universities whenever the reference is being made to Negro land-grant colleges. The only exception is when the word university is used in the proper name of one of these institutions. This has been done only for the purpose of convenience.

C. Method and Sources of Data

Locating data and materials in Negro education is a very complex task. In many cases materials are not listed under the usual categories of classification, and the researcher must trace through a wide range of sources. Numerous significant historical events of the Negro land-grant colleges have never been recorded, and much valuable historical data is therefore not available through any source.

The historical method of investigation is primarily used in this study. Facts of the past are compared and contrasted in relation to those of the present with the idea of interpreting the historical developments, educational practices, and goals of these institutions. The data and materials used in this investigation have been selected from the following sources: reports and publications of accrediting associations, Proceedings of the Conference of Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges, surveys and statistical data published by the United States Office of Education, studies and reports made by the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, state and federal statutes, journals of educational societies, publications and college catalogues of the Negro land-grant colleges, college presidents' addresses, college histories, college yearbooks, books, monographs, legal decisions, reports of foundations, biographies, audits and reports compiled by officers of Negro land-grant colleges, publications of the United States Department of Agriculture, reports and publications of educational associations, college charters, correspondence with officers of the Negro land-grant colleges, letters, and interviews with persons familiar with the land-grant movement.

D. Scope of the Problem

The scope of this investigation is necessarily limited by the stated purpose. Whenever the total amount of data or material must
be controlled in order to keep within reasonable workable limits a representative sample of these sixteen colleges will be used in the particular case for the compilation and presentation of the data or material. The time range of 1890 to 1964 provides a quite comprehensive span to be used in tracing the historical development of these institutions. These terminal dates of 1890 to 1964 were selected because 1890 was the date of the passage of the Second Morrill Act which made the first specific written provision for the establishment of Negro land-grant colleges, and 1964 was the decade following the integration decision rendered in the Brown Case which provides a reasonable time period to make a study of the effects of integration.

E. Related Studies

Several departments of the federal government have undoubtedly compiled information and statistics for land-grant colleges over a longer period of time than any other single agency or institution. Most of this governmental data has been collected by the following departments: the Federal Security Agency, the Department of Interior, the United States Department of Agriculture, and the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 2

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Although much material has been written about Negro colleges in general, surprisingly little material has been written about the Negro land-grant colleges. Furthermore, the larger and more successfully endowed private Negro institutions have generally received more publicity than the Negro land-grant institutions. Next it appears evident that the majority of articles and works written about Negro land-grant colleges have been authored by personnel within these schools, and relatively few analyses and historical studies have been produced by outsiders. O. J. Chapman enumerates a series of problems that help to explain why persons within these colleges are often in more advantageous positions to make investigations of them:

Many data concerning the Negro land-grant colleges have never been reduced to writing. Some materials have been lost through fires which have destroyed valuable records in a few colleges. Other records have doubtless been destroyed or mislaid because those responsible for their preservation were not historically minded enough to keep what would today be valuable evidence of past development.3

The author has knowledge of six related studies of Negro land-grant colleges that are pertinent to this investigation. These studies are reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Chapman's dissertation contains a very comprehensive section

covering the historical foundations of the American system of agricultural education from the latter part of the sixteenth century to the latter part of the nineteenth century, and it traces its development from Europe to the United States. Other chapters discussed the social and economic aspects of Negroes and Negro land-grant colleges, and he had also analyzed some of the philosophical implications. The investigation was terminated with a series of questionnaires which were responded to in 1939.\(^4\)

In this present study which is being undertaken valuable significant information should be gained by extending the time period to 1964 because this will provide an opportunity to investigate the modern period. Further contributions can be provided by concentrating on recent institutional development. Later trends should be uncovered by using this newer data to analyze growth and development, and one important end should be that of making worthy judgments and predictions.

Edward Eddy, Jr. devoted a chapter to the Negro land-grant colleges in his book. Several of the problems of these institutions were presented, and some of the special conditions relevant to the development of these schools were discussed. One citation in this particular chapter was as current as 1954, but the greater part of the data was not developed beyond the late 1930's. He noted that in the past the Negro land-grant colleges had complained that they

were not allotted an equitable portion of the federal funds that were disbursed for the purpose of conducting research and extension work. He further mentioned that this was also the case on the state level too.5

John W. Davis in his article, "The Negro Land-Grant College," emphasized some of the problems that these colleges encountered in their early years, and he presented the handicaps that they endured during the early 1900's. The financial weaknesses of these colleges in the early 1930's were also analyzed.6

During the 1932-33 period Davis graphically analyzed the program for Negro land-grant colleges by states. A subject breakdown enabled the author to point out the greatest areas of deficiency, and it also allowed him to determine the major curricular emphasis.7

Ratings held by these institutions in 1932, and the association memberships for the same year, indicated the standings which these schools had attained in the period of time up to this date. Davis noted that by this year eight of these institutions had now reached positions of accreditation that ranked them among the

5Eddy, Jr., pp. 257-266.
7Ibid., pp. 327-328.
better institutions. 

In the past forty years the United States Office of Education has published two studies of Negro colleges that provide relevant data for this study. The first investigation was directed by Arthur J. Klein in 1928, and it was concerned with the composition, educational offerings, standards, and needs of certain American Negro colleges. The second study was compiled by members of the staff of the United States Office of Education in 1942, and it analyzed socioeconomic problems of Negro colleges as well as the quality of education offered by these institutions.

Earl J. McGrath conducted a study in 1963 and 1964, under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, which investigated 123 predominantly Negro colleges and universities. In the "Forward" of his book he stated that it was impossible to make complete institutional analyses in the period, of slightly over a year.

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8 Ibid., p. 328.


year, that he was allowed for the study; this tends to indicate the time consumed in making a large scale institutional investigation. His report contributed significant information because it contained current data for the sixteen Negro land-grant colleges under study.

The other public and private Negro colleges and universities investigated by Dr. McGrath provided suitable data for making related comparisons with the Negro land-grant colleges. These statistics were valuable in making assessments and comparisons as to related enrollments, curricula, degrees, faculty salaries, faculty degrees, building values, and other considerations.

In Chapter VII, "The Faculty and Administration," McGrath discussed the administrative and faculty problems of Negro colleges. The recommendations offered merit consideration because of their usefulness for improving Negro land-grant colleges.12

One problem noted was that many of the adept students from the predominantly Negro institutions often were unable to enter outside graduate schools after receiving their bachelor degrees because their education was inadequate for admission. The efforts of the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation in preparing many of these students for graduate admission was mentioned as one successful program to remedy this situation.13

12Ibid., pp. 107-126.
13Ibid., p. 115.
McGrath also recommended that many deficiencies due to under-trained administrators could be remedied by allowing these administrators to attend college management courses at select institutions of higher education or by permitting them to intern with highly successful administrators. It was suggested that these presidents and administrators could be provided with this education while receiving full compensation.14

F. What this Study Encompasses

A basic framework for this investigation will be presented in this section, and the statements made herein will be developed, credited, analyzed, and discussed in the following chapters. The significant events that directly preceded the founding of the Negro land-grant colleges will be considered first, and the predominant roles of church sponsored and privately funded institutions in providing opportunities for higher education for Negroes prior to 1862 will be discussed.

Prior to the Civil War the efforts of Jonathan Baldwin Turner and Justin S. Morrill will be traced to credit them as dominant leaders in the pioneering movement to establish land-grant colleges, which were established by the First Morrill Act of 1862. Here the activities of these men in campaigning for colleges of the land-grant type will be recorded.

14 Ibid., p. 125.
What provisions did the First Morrill Act contain, and to what extent did it influence Negro higher education in the United States? The Negro land-grant colleges established from the funds of this Act will be traced historically, and their times of establishment and locations will be specified.

How the Civil War, Lincoln’s presidential campaign, and Lincoln’s subsequent election were extremely influential factors in creating an increased desire for formal education for Negroes, as well as for freedom, will be viewed retrospectively. What was the function of the Freedmen’s Bureau, and how influential were church sponsored and philanthropic groups in aiding Negro education between 1865 and 1870? Who were these groups, and what contributions did they make during this period?

What are the names of the Negro land-grant colleges, and what were their dates of foundation? The presentation of individual historical sketches will be made with the purpose of recording the early histories of each of these colleges, and it is anticipated that these portraits may uncover both individual differences and common elements of foundation and growth. Throughout the preliminary research of this investigation the author was unable to find one work that sketched all of these schools individually, and this factor detracted from an understanding of the separate natures and individual personalities of these collegiate institutions.

The text of the Second Morrill Act of 1890 will be viewed with an interpretation of its effects upon the Negro land-grant
colleges. Institutions founded expressly under this Act will be noted as well as those that originally were founded as state or private schools and were converted to land-grant colleges in order to receive the benefits of the Second Morrill Act.

Basically, for the purpose of analysis, this study will be divided into two time periods: 1890 to 1930 and 1931 to 1964. The first period will be referred to as, "The Foundations and the Early Development of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges," and the second period will be known as, "The Expansion and Rapid Growth of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges." Factors, problems, and trends will be developed, related, and analyzed within their own respective time periods whenever this method will produce the most effective organization; otherwise it is to be noted that some relationships must necessarily be developed in other chapters. The historical sketches of the Negro land-grant colleges will be developed separately because the development of this topic covers a wide range of time.

Proper concern will be devoted to the federal laws that govern and affect the land-grant colleges. Attention will only be devoted to acts that were created for this college group, and it is to be noted that there are various federal acts that are applicable to both land-grant colleges and a wide variety of other colleges and universities. Some of the laws that will be investigated are: the Act of 1866 Amending the First Morrill Act, the Hatch Act of 1887, the Nelson Amendment of 1907 to the Second Morrill Act of 1892, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, the Smith-Hughes Vocational Ed-
ucation Act of 1917, the National Defense Act of 1920, the George-Reed Act of 1929, the Bankhead-Jones Act of June 29, 1935 as Amended June 1952 and July 14, 1960, the George-Dean Act of 1938, and the George-Barden Act of 1946.

The major national, economic, and social events will be traced with the objective of correlating these events with their effects on the Negro land-grant colleges. These following events will be studied: the reconstruction period following the Civil War, World War I, the period of prosperity following World War I, the economic depression of the 1930's, the mechanization of agriculture, World War II, the period of prosperity following World War II, the civil rights movement, and school integration.

Growth between determined key years will be compared in the section devoted to institutional study, and comparisons of student populations, faculties, plant valuations, degrees granted, and other pertinent factors will be made for these periods. Other related comparisons will be made with national collegiate norms such as: average tuition paid, average faculty salaries, and degrees of faculty members.

It is acknowledged that Negroes comprise a ten percent minority group within our population in the United States, and furthermore they have been discriminated against in many ways. This study will analyze the distribution of federal funds from the two Morrill Acts to the land-grant colleges in an effort to determine the proportion of funds given respectively to Negro and white land-grant
colleges. Aid given by the states will be analyzed in a similar manner.

When the present status of the Negro land-grant colleges is reached, their past and present contributions to our society will be summarized and evaluated. At this point the overall philosophy of these collegiate institutions will be examined and analyzed with respect to both historical and present-day implications. Lastly, in view of the findings of the investigation, recommendations and predictions for the future of the Negro land-grant colleges will be made.
CHAPTER II

THE FOUNDATIONS AND THE EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES: 1890-1930

The fact that the majority of the Southern states did not designate Negro land-grant colleges until 1890 or thereafter will be substantiated later in this chapter, but at this time the thirty year period preceding 1890 shall be investigated in order to provide background conditions and events that led to the establishment of these institutions.

It is essential to realize that the Negro people in the United States before 1865, considered as a total group, were lacking formal education to an extremely high degree, and of course the highest level of illiteracy existed, under the conditions of slavery, in the South. The Southern slaves were cut-off from formal schooling before their emancipation, and the free Negroes of the South were restricted by laws and social codes that denied them the privilege of attending school. Furthermore, Negroes in the South had relatively few educational opportunities because they were largely confined to the plantations where they performed menial agricultural tasks. The free Negroes of some of the larger Northern cities had the best opportunities to receive some planned education. Formal education for Negroes before 1865, therefore,
was logically related to their freedom, their locality of residence, and the prevailing social conditions operative in their area.

For those interested in a detailed and comprehensive treatment of the historical foundations of the American system of education Dr. Oscar J. Chapman, in his dissertation, "A Historical Study of Negro Land-Grant Colleges in Relationship with Their Social, Economic, Political, and Educational Backgrounds and a Program for Their Improvement," develops this topic from the latter part of the sixteenth century to the latter part of the nineteenth century. Chapman's study has allowed the author to concentrate on the basic issues relative to the 1890 to 1930 period because his broad coverage of the political, economic, and social factors has enabled the author to eliminate many extraneous side-issues and unnecessary factors that are not related to this investigation. Therefore, much duplication has been avoided.

It is the purpose of this chapter to survey the Negro land-grant colleges during this period to ascertain what factors had affected them either favorably or unfavorably. Finally the overall institutional strengths, weaknesses, and contributions are summarized. The factors that are used in the conclusions drawn in this chapter then are used for comparative purposes, with regard to the development of and the changes noted in the institutions, in the

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1 Chapman, pp. 10-58.
subsequent chapter that is devoted to investigating the nature of these colleges after 1930. References to predominantly white land-grant colleges have been made for comparisons only.

The Contribution of Turner and Morrill

Although many persons and organizations were interested in establishing a land-grant type college system, Jonathan Baldwin Turner was one of the first men to do serious campaigning for federal legislation for this cause. Turner introduced an early plan for state universities for people of the industrial classes at a teachers' county institute which was held at Griggsville, Illinois on May 13, 1850. Later, on November 18, 1951, he presented his plan to a farmers' convention at Granville, Illinois. At another convention which was held in Springfield, Illinois on January 4, 1853, a petition was drawn up for the purpose of asking the Illinois State Legislature to request Congress to grant land to the states for starting industrial colleges. Senator James B. Shields and Congressman Elihu B. Washburne made the resolution to Congress on March 20, 1854. This resolution was referred to the Committee on Public Lands, but no action was taken. Turner became a director of the Industrial League which had been organized to campaign for industrial education. He worked for years on behalf of this movement, and during this time the idea had been gaining popularity throughout the nation. Turner's lack of success in failing to get federal support for a land-grant type college system
did not weaken his enthusiasm because he continued to work for this cause throughout his life.\(^2\)

The movement for land-grant colleges next focused on Justin Smith Morrill when he introduced his proposed bill to Congress on December 14, 1857, but unfortunately the bill did not pass. Representative Morrill did not tire in his efforts to promote this type of collegiate system, and finally the Morrill Act of 1862 was signed by President Lincoln on July 2, 1862. Abraham Lincoln believed that the Constitution was more flexible than did his predecessor, Buchanan, who had vetoed the bill in 1859. Although mechanical and agricultural education was not one of his major concerns, Lincoln supported the Morrill Act as part of a basic pattern of progressive legislation.\(^3\)

The basic purpose of the Morrill Act of 1862 is stated in its text in the following words:

\[\ldots\text{each State which may take and claim the benefit of this act, to the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life.}\] \(^4\)


\(^3\)Ibid., XIII (New York, 1934), 198-199.

\(^4\)Brunner, p. 55.
Other important provisions of this act are:

That there be granted to the several States for the purposes hereinafter mentioned, an amount of public land, to be apportioned to each State a quantity equal to thirty thousand acres for each Senator and Representative in Congress to which the States are respectively entitled by the apportionment under the census of 1860.

... whenever there are public lands in a State, subject to sale at private entry at one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, the quantity to which said State shall be entitled shall be selected from such lands, within the limits of such State; and the Secretary of the Interior is hereby directed to issue to each of the States, in which there is not the quantity of public lands subject to sale at private entry, at one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, to which said State may be entitled under the provisions of this act, land scrip to the amount in acres for the deficiency of its distributive share; said scrip to be sold by said States, and the proceeds thereof applied to the uses and purposes prescribed in this act, and for no other purpose whatsoever.

If any portion of the fund invested, as provided by the foregoing section, or any portion of the interest thereon, shall, by any action or contingency, be diminished or lost, it shall be replaced by the State to which it belongs, so that the capital of the fund shall remain forever undiminished; and the annual interest shall be regularly applied without diminution to the purposes mentioned in the fourth section of this act, except that a sum, not exceeding 10 per centum upon the amount received by any State under the provisions of this act may be expended for the purchase of lands for sites or experimental farms, whenever authorized by the respective legislatures of said States.

Within the quoted sections of this act the privileges granted

5 Ibid., p. 54.
6 Ibid., p. 55.
7 Ibid., p. 56.
and the restrictions inherent in these provisions were enumerated. The following four points were considered in these preceding provisions: (1) the particular type of college to be established, (2) the design for the apportionment of public land, (3) the provision of a permanent endowment, and (4) the State's obligation to maintain the endowment. It was quite clear that the terms of the First Morrill Act contained no provisions for the establishment of separate Negro land-grant colleges.

Conditions Relative to Education in the South from 1860 to 1890

As the South was penetrated by the Union Army, church and missionary groups sent teachers and money to help the freed Negroes to make needed social adjustments and to provide for their education. The first person to direct a well organized effort to institute a regular public school program for Negro children was General Banks in Louisiana. Bank's efforts were stimulated by a communication with President Lincoln in which Lincoln stated that provisions should be made for educating the young Negroes.8

In 1861 General Butler related to Lewis Tappan, the American Missionary Association's treasurer, that the freedmen of Virginia needed education urgently. Tappan then directed C. L. Lockwood to

establish Virginia's first day school for educating freedmen in Hampton. In this way the American Missionary Association had established the South's first Negro day school as a consequence of the Civil War. The Association and other missionary societies founded additional schools during the following year in Port Royal, South Carolina; in Roanoke Island and Newburn, North Carolina; and in Newport News, Norfolk, and Portsmouth, Virginia. This was the era of the "school mams" who came from New England to serve the cause of educating the emancipated Negroes.

Meanwhile during this early period Reverend John Eaton was attending to the education of the freedmen in the camps in the West. Most of these educational workers eventually came under the control of the Freedmen's Bureau. In 1863 there were eighty-three of this type of missionary teachers, and in 1864 the number increased to two hundred and fifty.

The bill that was to aid the freedmen was introduced to Congress in 1863, but this legislation which created the Freedmen's Bureau did not pass until 1865. General Oliver O. Howard headed the Bureau which during its existence made provisions for shelter, food, fuel, clothing, employment, education, land rentals, land

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11Woodson and Wesley, p. 258.
sales, health facilities, and the administration of justice for the freed Negroes. 12

Providing an education for the Negro population after the Civil War was a major problem, and the census statistics of 1860 illustrate the size of this task. The Negro population in the United States amounted to 4,441,830 in 1860. Of this number 4,215,614 Negroes lived in the South, and 226,216 lived in the North. The Census reported the number of free Negroes who could read and write as 151,245 or approximately three percent of all the Negro population. Knowing that a few slaves were literate it would be probable that approximately five percent of all the Negroes were literate at the time of emancipation. 13

Education for the freedmen of the South was affected by both traditional attitudes and the interests of the new groups that emerged when the traditional class structure collapsed. Southern society at this point was now composed of three major groups which can be described as the conservatives, the moderates, and the small farmers and whites without property. The conservatives were against educating Negroes, and they generally wanted to keep them in a state of subservience. Many large plantation owners were within the group of moderates who needed a labor force, and they were


therefore willing to provide Negroes with some education for this reason. The small farmers and non-propertied whites, who were often called "scalawags," aligned themselves with Negroes in the early Reconstruction Period to establish public schools, but later this group worked against the Negroes in their social and educational struggles.  

Much credit must be rendered to the Freedmen's Bureau for organizing and establishing an extensive system of public schools for the Southern Negroes. During the Bureau's first five years of operation 4,239 schools were opened. The efforts of this agency can be judged by considering that 247,333 pupils were enrolled in the schools under its jurisdiction, and it employed 9,307 teachers to instruct these pupils. Official governmental expenditures for these schools amounted to more than $3,500,000, and an amount in excess of $1,500,000 was added by benevolent societies to this figure. It has been conservatively estimated that Negroes contributed another $1,000,000 in gifts and tuition to these schools during the same period.  

Tax-supported public education was a prime consequence of the work of the Reconstruction governments in the South. Integration in Southern education was not attempted to any significant degree, and

14 Frazier, p. 421.

15 Bond, p. 29.
the Negro leaders accepted the idea of separate schools as being an unavoidable consequence of the traditional white attitude toward the mixing of the races. Philanthropic whites had assured the Negro leaders that the Negroes would receive equitable shares of public funds for education if they gave up their rights to integrated schools. In accepting this position the Negro had lost a strategic position.\(^{16}\)

For a number of years after the ousting of the Reconstruction governments the white and Negro schools were provided for on an equal basis. One important reason for this factor was that Negroes supported political candidates who offered them educational benefits.\(^ {17}\) In 1876 the Southern conservatives gained political control, and this group was interested in keeping taxes low. The conservatives cut educational allotments for both white and Negro schools in their efforts to trim the budget, and in some Southern states the educational cut-backs even caused reduced enrollments.\(^ {18}\)

As the conservatives lost their political power the poor whites were increasing their demands for education. In the Southern states white enrollment increased one hundred and six percent while Negro enrollment increased fifty-nine percent during the

\(^{16}\) Ibid., pp. 53-56.

\(^{17}\) Frazier, p. 124.

\(^{18}\) Bond, pp. 96-97.
period from 1880 to 1895. To meet the financial demands for the increased education of the poor whites, state funds were diverted from Negro children to white children. A formula developed in Mississippi, which was set up on a per capita basis for school-age children, diverted a portion of the state funds originally earmarked for Negro schools to white schools. When this formula became accepted as the general pattern in the Southern states, inequalities in the education of the two races were brought about. 19

Thirty-six states had agreed to the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1862 by 1870. When the Act was passed the Southern states did not comply with its terms because they were still engaged in the Civil War. When the War ended they accepted the act's terms. All of the Southern states accepted the Act by 1870, but the majority of them had made no provisions for Negroes. 20

The four states that made provisions for Negroes under the First Morrill Act were Mississippi, Virginia, South Carolina, and Kentucky. Alcorn University, in 1871, became the first Negro land-grant college when the State of Mississippi allocated three-fifths of the proceeds of its federal land sales to the institution. The state subsequently changed the school's name to Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College in 1878, and at this time the state changed

20 Chapman, p. 56.
the school's portion of the land-grant endowment to one-half of the total amount. Virginia, in 1872, became the second Southern state to apportion some of the 1862 benefits to a Negro institution. It gave one-half of the proceeds from the land sales to a private school, Hampton Institute, and in 1920 the state established its own college, Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute. South Carolina, also in 1872, gave a portion of the income received from the federal land sales to Claflin University which was another private college. Claflin University did not use these funds for purposes related to education. South Carolina later established a college at Orangeburg, and it designated this school to receive the funds. In 1873 the State of Kentucky allocated one-twelfth of its receipts from the fund to a Negro college. No funds were actually transferred as a result of this designation, and then in 1879, Kentucky Industrial School was named to receive one-fifth of the funds granted under the Morrill Act of 1862.

Although the Southern states could have used the First Morrill Act to benefit the Negroes, they did not. Four states in the South had endeavored to pass on some of the benefits to Negro institutions, but the majority of the Southern states used the Act to aid

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21 Eddy, Jr., pp. 257-258.

or to establish white land-grant colleges. Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College actually was the only Negro land-grant college that was directly established under the Morrill Act of 1862 which remained in existence. Therefore, it took the Morrill Act of 1890 to induce the Southern states to designate and to establish Negro land-grant institutions.23

Conditions Relative to the Development of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges from 1890 to 1930

The instrument that persuaded the Southern states to establish land-grant colleges for Negroes was the Morrill Act of 1890. Important provisions of the Act, which passed on August 30, 1890, follow:

That there shall be, and hereby is, annually appropriated out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, arising from the sale of public lands, to be paid as hereinafter provided, to each State and Territory for the more complete endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts now established, or which may be hereafter established, in accordance with an act of Congress approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, the sum of fifteen thousand dollars for the year ending June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and ninety, and an annual increase of the amount of such appropriation thereafter for ten years by an additional sum of one thousand dollars over the preceding year, and the annual amount of be paid thereafter to each State and Territory shall be twenty-five thousand dollars to be applied only to instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language and the various branches of mathematical,

23Eddy, Jr., pp. 257-258.
physical, natural, and economic science, with special reference to their applications in the industries of life, and to the facilities for such instruction. Provided, That no money shall be paid out under this act to any State or Territory for the support and maintenance of a college where a distinction of race or color is made in the admission of students, but the establishment and maintenance of such colleges separately for white and colored students shall be held to be a compliance with the provisions of this act if the funds received in such State or Territory be equitably divided as hereinafter set forth: Provided, That in any State in which there has been one college established in pursuance of the act of July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and also in which an educational institution of like character has been established, or may be hereafter established, and is now aided by such State from its own revenue, for the education of colored students in agriculture and the mechanic arts, however named or styled, or whether or not it has received money heretofore under the act to which this act is an amendment, the legislature of such a State may propose and report to the Secretary of the Interior a just and equitable division of the fund to be received under this act between one college for white students and one institution for colored students established as aforesaid, which shall be divided into two parts and paid accordingly, and thereupon such institution for colored students shall be entitled to the benefits of this act and subject to its provisions, as much as it would have been if it had been included under the act of eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and the fulfillment of the foregoing provisions shall be taken as a compliance with the provision in reference to separate colleges for white and colored students. 24

In the preceding text of section one of the Act it is clearly stated that money shall not be paid to a land-grant college that exercises racial distinction in its admission policies, but this provision of the Act may be complied with by operating separate

24 Brunner, pp. 59-60.
colleges for Negro students and white students. Financially the land-grant colleges would receive $15,000 in 1890, and for the next ten years each successive payment would be increased by $1,000 until the annual payment would be $25,000 per year thereafter. Furthermore, it specified for which particular areas of instruction the Federal funds were to be used.

Section three of the Act refers to the state's responsibility for the protection of the endowment for the colored colleges in the following words:

That if any portion of the moneys received by the designated officer of the State or Territory for the further and more complete endowment, support, and maintenance of colleges, or of institutions for colored students, as provided in this act, shall, by any action or contingency, be diminished or lost, or be misapplied, it shall be replaced by the State or Territory to which it belongs, and until so replaced no subsequent appropriation shall be apportioned or paid to such State or Territory; and no portion of said moneys shall be applied, directly or indirectly, under any pretense whatever, to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings. . . .

The above section further specified that none of the money was to be used for erecting, buying, and maintaining buildings.

Each of the Southern states soon accepted the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890, and the table on the following page enumerates the various dates of acceptance. Georgia became the South's first state to accept these terms on November 26, 1890, and South

\[25\text{Ibid., p. 60.}\]
TABLE I
ORDER OF THE SOUTHERN STATES IN ACCEPTING THE MОРРІLl ACT
OF 1890

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerical order of acceptance</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Date of acceptance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>Nov. 26, 1890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>Dec. 24, 1890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>Feb. 12, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>Feb. 13, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>Feb. 26, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>Mar. 6, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>Mar. 13, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>Mar. 14, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>Mar. 17, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>Apr. 9, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>June 8, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>Mar. 15, 1892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>Mar. 30, 1892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>Jan. 13, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>Jan. 23, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>Mar. 12, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>Mar. 10, 1899</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Information for table gathered from Davis, p. 316.
Carolina was second on December 24, 1890. Nine more states accepted in 1891. This meant that eleven of these states, or the majority of them, had agreed to the provisions in less than one year. Virginia became the sixteenth state to accept on March 13, 1893. The last and seventeenth was Oklahoma which accepted on March 10, 1899. Therefore, all of the Southern states had agreed to the terms of the Second Morrill Act in a period just slightly more than eight and one-fourth years. It is to be noted that the government had made it possible for these states to establish the Negro land-grant colleges, and without this second act the majority of these unique institutions may never have been created.

A Southern state had four possible ways to comply with the Second Morrill Act. Any one of the following plans could be used: (1) establish a new state-controlled land-grant institution for Negroes, (2) name an established state-supported college for Negroes as the designee, (3) name an existing private Negro college as the land-grant Negro college, or (4) put an established private Negro college under state-control by taking it over. New state-controlled Negro land-grant institutions were established by Texas (1879), Georgia (1890), Delaware (1891), West Virginia (1892), North Carolina (1894), and Oklahoma (1897). Established private Negro colleges were named as land-grant colleges by Mississippi (1871), Virginia (1883-1920), and South Carolina (1896). In the case of Virginia, this state had designated Hampton Normal and Industrial
Institute to receive the benefits of the First Morrill Act in 1883, and it later established Virginia State College as its Negro land-grant college in 1920. Two states, Tennessee (1913) and Maryland (1887), allocated Morrill funds to Negro private schools, and then they later placed these institutions under state-control. The states that named established state-supported Negro colleges as their designees were Missouri (1886), Arkansas (1872), Alabama (1875), Kentucky (1887), Louisiana (1880), and Florida (1887). Although these institutions were all created to fulfill the same basic purpose their means of establishment varied from state to state, and this particular factor meant that these colleges often had quite dissimilar institutional characteristics during their early years. The states apparently had used these four plans of establishment according to their own situations.

Table II on page 34 traces the original locations and the dates when the institutions were opened. Lincoln University was the first to open in 1866, and Virginia State College was last in 1920. From the first to the last college opening fifty-four years had elapsed. It is significant to note that nine colleges or fifty-three percent of the institutions had been opened by 1896 or just six years after the passage of the Morrill Act of 1890. All seventeen Southern states had opened separate Negro land-grant colleges.

26Eddy, Jr., pp. 258-259.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Institution</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Date Opened</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute for Negroes</td>
<td>Huntsville, Alabama</td>
<td>1875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal School</td>
<td>Pine Bluff, Arkansas</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State College for Colored Students</td>
<td>Dover, Delaware</td>
<td>1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes</td>
<td>Tallahassee, Florida</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia State Industrial College</td>
<td>Athens, Georgia</td>
<td>1890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky State Industrial College</td>
<td>Frankfort, Kentucky</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College</td>
<td>New Orleans, Louisiana</td>
<td>1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne Academy</td>
<td>Princess Anne, Maryland</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College</td>
<td>Lorman, Mississippi</td>
<td>1871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>Jefferson City, Missouri</td>
<td>1866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Negro Agricultural and Technical College</td>
<td>Greensboro, North Carolina</td>
<td>1894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored Agricultural and Normal University</td>
<td>Langston, Oklahoma</td>
<td>1897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Colored Normal, Agricultural and Mechanical College of South Carolina</td>
<td>Orangeburg, South Carolina</td>
<td>1896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural and Industrial State Normal School for Negroes</td>
<td>Nashville, Tennessee</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College</td>
<td>Prairie View, Texas</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia State College for Negroes</td>
<td>Petersburg, Virginia (1883)</td>
<td>1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia State College</td>
<td>Normal, West Virginia</td>
<td>1892</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Adapted from Davis, p. 316.
in their states by 1913. The State of Virginia presented an unusual case because it had two dates for college openings. In 1883 it had designated Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute to serve its Negro population, but the designation was withdrawn in 1920 when the state opened Virginia State College as its Negro land-grant institution.

The most drastic and numerous adjustments took place in agriculture between 1860 and 1914; in fact these adjustments had more effect on agriculture than any other branch of enterprise. Since colonial days the American farmer had used land wastefully, but he economized on labor. As the free homesteading on the public lands ended farmers increased their efforts toward exact and careful farming. Agricultural methods and practices had to change with the need for intensive cultivation, and this transition was often hard for those who had been used to lax conditions and inefficient methods. Other serious problems, such as shifts in production areas, technical changes in farming methods, and price fluctuations were often the result of the extremely swift development of the new lands. Conditions of change and of dropping prices made the farmers restless, and they sought both non-political and political means of relief.27

Up to 1880 agriculture still was the chief source of the

people's income in the United States, but each census after this date showed the total value of the manufactured goods to be larger than the total value of the agricultural products. Only one-sixth of the population was employed in industrial and other non-agricultural occupations in 1820, and the other five-sixths was employed in agricultural occupations; in 1910 two-thirds of the population was engaged in industrial and non-farming pursuits while only one-third was engaged in agricultural vocations. The United States had changed from a farming nation to an industrial nation by 1910. Therefore, this transition, from an agricultural economy to an industrial economy, was one of the factors that influenced the early period of the Negro land-grant colleges.

Machines greatly advanced agricultural production, and farmers were forced to use machinery because of the scarcity of labor. Some of the most important pieces of agricultural equipment were soil preparation machines, reapers, self-rakes, binders, combines, and cotton planting equipment. Agricultural discontent grew because of the overproduction of farm goods. The domestic consumption of farm products simply could not keep up with the increased farm production. Crops were often grown at a loss, and the prices of farm products generally dropped.  

28Ibid.

When slavery ended in the South very little was done to settle the Negro on the land, and therefore the Negroes engaged in farming were generally tenants or either worked for wages. The era of farm tenancy had arrived. Twenty-five percent of the farms were operated by renters in 1880, and by the beginning of the nineteenth century the figure for farm tenancy rose to thirty-five percent with an established upward trend. Numerous farms were for sale or for rent because their owners desired to move into town. Ambitious men could no longer move westward to get free farm land by homesteading; therefore those who lacked the purchase price of a farm had to become tenants. Many tenants could not reach their goal of farm ownership because they could not pay off their debts or otherwise overcome crop failures and other hardships. With the constant migration of farm owners and workers to the cities and the serious effects of the extremely competitive factors that determined the prices of farm products the agricultural economy suffered greatly. 30

Although two-thirds of the farmers owned their own land at the beginning of the twentieth century many of them were burdened with enormous debts. Farm mortgages amounted to $1,700,000,000 in 1910, and the figure spiraled to more than $4,000,000,000 in 1920. In the 1870's land values increased about forty percent, and during the ten year period following World War I land values almost doubled. The South and the East faced tremendous depreciations, but through-

30 Ibid., pp. 275-276.
out the country many farm laborers struggled against the rising flow of capitalization to become farm owners during the period of 1890 to 1920. Each succeeding farm generation faced a harder battle against increased capital charges. World War I brought only temporary relief to the farmers because at this time there was an unusual demand for foodstuffs. In addition to many other factors our farmers also faced keen foreign competition during normal times.31

Cotton was the dominant crop in Southern agriculture for a century, and there was certainly a need for crop diversification. The migration of the boll weevil from Mexico to Texas in 1892 affected the complete cotton-growing region, and the process of combating the beetle was extremely costly. Many farmers in the South were forced to stop planting cotton, and they were compelled by necessity to change over to other crops. The citizens of Enterprise, Alabama had built a monument in their town honoring the boll weevil because they felt that it put an end to the one-crop system. Southern agriculture was benefited in the long run by crop diversification.32

Farmers in the South and in all parts of the nation suffered from the credit and banking system of the country. Bank credit was liberalized to some degree when the Federal Reserve System was established, but the agricultural depressions of 1921 and 1929 placed

31 Ibid., pp. 276-277.
the farmers in need of a more complete and comprehensive credit system. Finally the great depression of 1930 affected both agriculture and manufacturing very seriously.33

The South traditionally lagged far behind the North in industry and manufacturing. Southern states were slow in turning to these pursuits because they had depended very heavily upon agriculture since colonial days. Textile manufacturing boosted the South's economy, and this section of the country concentrated its efforts mainly on the weaving of the coarser cotton fabrics in its early manufacturing period. The automatic looms of the 1890's were well suited to Southern industry because this region particularly lacked experienced factory laborers. The majority of the Southern mills were in operation in Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. There was a continuous shift in the textile industry from New England to the Southern states. The South passed New England in the consumption of raw cotton in 1905, and it exceeded New England in the number of spindles in operation in 1925. The cheap labor proved to be a definite advantage to Southern textile manufacturing during this period.34

The fact that agriculture remained in a depressed condition from the middle of the 1880's until the change of the century affected the early progress of the Negro land-grant colleges. Nation-

33 Ibid.
34 Ibid., pp. 547-548, 722.
wide panics, financial credit difficulties, and depressed farm
conditions directly slowed institutional growth during these years.
Actually from 1890 to 1900 these colleges were mainly in the state
of organization and establishment with relatively very slow growth;
therefore, pronounced physical growth took place in these colleges
after 1900.

General education for Negroes in the South from 1890 to 1910
was stimulated by the following influences: (1) the aid rendered to
education by (a) the Julius Rosenwald Fund, (B) the Peabody Fund,
(c) the John Slater Fund, (d) the General Education Board, (e) the
Jeanes Fund,35 (f) the Russell Sage Foundation, (g) the Carnegie
Foundation, and (h) the Phelps-Stokes Fund; (2) more willingness on
behalf of the white Southerners to have the Negro educational at-
tainments and needs presented; (3) the realization that both races
needed further education because of the fact that the South was un-
dergoing the process of industrialization; (4) the observed benefits
of education in operation in the South; and (5) the development of
able leaders in Negro education accompanied by many new proponents
for the cause among the white people. These foregoing influences
brought the realization of certainty to the Negro land-grant col-
leges.36

It was evident in 1910 that the Negro land-grant institutions

35Frazier, pp. 427-429.
36Davis, p. 318.
had to direct their instruction more closely toward mechanic arts, agriculture, teacher training, home economics, and general extension work because these colleges had been created to offer courses in these areas of learning. 

In 1916 the total enrollment of the Negro land-grant institutions was 4,875 students. Of this figure the students were in the following academic groupings: 12 on the college level (all attended in Florida), 2,268 on the secondary level, and 2,595 on the elementary level. These colleges were operated as high schools at this time because the majority of the Negroes in the South had not reached educational attainments beyond the elementary level. Furthermore the South's Negro land-grant college program was severely impeded because of the lack of public Negro high schools. During this year there were only sixty-four public high schools for Negroes with a total enrollment of 8,707 pupils in this section of the country, and only forty-five of them offered four-year courses. Private schools accounted for another 11,527 Negro students enrolled in two hundred and sixteen schools with only one hundred and four of them offering four-year courses. From all possible educational sources the total number of Negro youths attending high school was 24,189 students in 1916, and it was most significant

37 Ibid.
that only one hundred and fifty-one high schools in these seventeen states offered four-year high school courses for Negroes. It was evident that the Negro land-grant institutions operated as high schools at this time, and in fact they provided elementary training for over half of their student body in 1916. Finally in this year it was important to realize that a mere thirty-three schools out of all the six hundred and fifty-three state and private secondary schools were offering some college level subjects.\textsuperscript{39}

The enrollments in the Negro land-grant colleges progressed slowly up to the 1929-1930 period when there were 14,077 students in attendance.\textsuperscript{40} This number may be contrasted with the 8,138 students enrolled in 1910-1911 and the 10,613 students enrolled in 1920-1921. Actually in two decades the enrollment had risen slightly less than eighty percent. Plant valuation had risen much more sharply than had enrollment. The total plant valuation in 1914 was estimated at $2,507,434, and this valuation rose to $7,979,848 by 1925. This was an increase in plant valuation of over three hundred percent in a decade. In this same period state appropriations rose from $368,487 in 1914 to $1,455,260 in 1925. This reflects that state support increased approximately four hundred percent.\textsuperscript{41}

\textsuperscript{39}Davis, p. 318.


\textsuperscript{41}Eddy, Jr., pp. 260-261.
In addition to the two Morrill Acts and the Nelson Amendment of March 4, 1907 (34 Stat. L. 1281) there were several other acts that aided the land-grant colleges in the period of discussion. First, the Hatch Act of 1887 provided for federal-grant monies to be disbursed to each state that would found an agricultural experiment station in conjunction with its land-grant college. Added to this act, the Adams Act of 1906 and the Purnell Act of 1925 also provided additional financial support for agricultural experiment stations. Second, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 (38 Stat. 372) made provisions for extension work in agriculture and home economics.42 Third, the Smith-Hughes Act of February 23, 1917 (39 Stat. 929), the two supplementary acts of June 5, 1924 and February 5, 1929 (43 Stat. 430 and 45 Stat. 1151, respectively), and the Smith-Bankhead Act of June 2, 1920 (41 Stat. 735) provided funds for training in agriculture, home economics, trade, and industrial subjects. This group of acts further provided funds for the preparation of teachers in these subject areas and the salaries of the teachers and supervisors of these subjects.43

The enrollment and income statistics for the Negro land-grant colleges for the 1929-1930 year are presented in Tables III and IV on pages 45 and 46. Great variances exist among the data of these colleges. Prairie View State College received the highest appro-

42Brunner, pp. 70-71.
43Davis, pp. 321-322.
Appropriation of $327,000 of state funds while the State College for Colored Students received $22,500 which was the lowest appropriation of state funds. Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College received $39,592 of federal funds which was the highest amount while Lincoln University received the lowest amount of federal funds which was the sum of $4,925. Meanwhile, Southern University accumulated $375,878, the highest figure, from other sources while both Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College and Kentucky State Industrial College had no other reported incomes from other sources. Southern University had the highest total income of $647,533, and State College for Colored Students had the lowest total income of $40,133. Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial Teachers College had the highest college enrollment of 1,162 students, and Princess Anne Academy had no college students. The largest high school enrollment of 496 pupils was credited to Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College while Princess Anne Academy had the lowest number of high school pupils with a reported number of 95 pupils. Virginia State College for Negroes had reported the largest enrollment of elementary students with 634 students while both State College for Colored Students and West Virginia State College reported no elementary students enrolled. Virginia State College for Negroes had the largest total enrollment with 2,425 students while Princess Anne Academy had the lowest total enrollment with 120 students. Thus the levels of the students varied widely from institution to institution.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>State Funds</th>
<th>Federal Funds</th>
<th>Other Sources</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. &amp; M. Inst. (Ala.)</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>24,590</td>
<td>19,422</td>
<td>69,912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. &amp; T. Coll. of N. C.</td>
<td>71,031</td>
<td>19,586</td>
<td>7,000</td>
<td>97,617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn A. &amp; M. Coll. (Miss.)</td>
<td>77,692</td>
<td>39,592</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>117,284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ark. State Coll. for Negroes</td>
<td>68,006</td>
<td>14,759</td>
<td>3,883</td>
<td>86,648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored A. &amp; M. Univ. (Okla.)</td>
<td>182,500</td>
<td>7,067</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>214,567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fla. A. &amp; M. Coll. for Negroes</td>
<td>124,889</td>
<td>25,820</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>153,709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ky. State Ind. Coll.</td>
<td>250,000</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>262,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>139,000</td>
<td>4,925</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>153,925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View State Coll. (Tex.)</td>
<td>327,000</td>
<td>18,500</td>
<td>75,000</td>
<td>420,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne Academy (Md.)</td>
<td>58,120</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>73,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern University (La.)</td>
<td>248,000</td>
<td>23,655</td>
<td>375,878</td>
<td>647,533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State A. &amp; M. College (S. C.)</td>
<td>137,013</td>
<td>36,804</td>
<td>18,400</td>
<td>192,217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Coll. for Colored Students (Del.)</td>
<td>22,500</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>7,633</td>
<td>40,133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenn. A. &amp; I. Teach. Coll.</td>
<td>105,000</td>
<td>14,850</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>149,850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Va. State Coll. for Negroes</td>
<td>240,278</td>
<td>33,125</td>
<td>91,603</td>
<td>365,006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Va. State Coll.</td>
<td>215,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>43,527</td>
<td>268,527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$2,348,695</strong></td>
<td><strong>$324,940</strong></td>
<td><strong>$744,324</strong></td>
<td><strong>$3,417,959</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table adapted from Monroe N. Work, Negro Yearbook: 1931-1932 (Tuskegee Institute, 1931), p. 232.*
TABLE IV

ENROLLMENT OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR THE YEAR OF 1929-1930

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Colleges</th>
<th>High Schools</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Other Courses</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. &amp; M. Inst</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. &amp; T. Coll. of N. C.</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>1,009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn A. &amp; M. Coll.</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ark. State Coll. for Negroes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored A. &amp; M. Univ.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fla. A. &amp; M. Coll for Negroes</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga. State Ind. Coll.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ky. State Ind. Coll.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View State Coll.</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>790</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1,155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne Academy</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern University</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State A. &amp; M. College</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>1,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Coll. for Colored Students</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenn. A. &amp; I. Teach. Coll.</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1,162</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Va. State Coll. for Negroes</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>917</td>
<td>2,425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Va. State Coll.</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>1,052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>798</td>
<td>5,250</td>
<td>4,158</td>
<td>2,033</td>
<td>2,636</td>
<td>14,077</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Table adapted from Monroe N. Work, Negro Yearbook: 1931-1932 (Tuskegee Institute, 1931), p. 232.
Negro land-grant college faculty members and administrators were grossly underpaid. Dr. Robert S. Wilkerson, president of State Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, reported in 1924 that the states were not paying liberal salaries to their Negro faculty members. His statistical data showed that both faculty members and administrators in the colored land-grant colleges were receiving about one-half the salaries of the personnel in the white institutions studied. This factor was a definite detriment to the Negro land-grant colleges during the period prior to 1930 which is under consideration.

Another serious deficiency of this collegiate group was the sub-standard library services of a great number of these colleges. The Land-Grant College Bulletin for 1926 had noted that the libraries of the Negro land-grant institutions were inadequate. In 1927 the total number of library volumes had been increased by 9,012 volumes. This raised the total number of books to 64,211 in 1927 which was an improvement over the 55,199 volumes in 1926. Actually these 64,211 library books were used by approximately 16,000 students. Certainly there was a great need for more reference books. The students enrolled in the college in Delaware were the most disadvantaged in 1927 because their institution still had no library for

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its student-body use. As this period ended in 1930, only three of these seventeen institutions were able to meet the library standards which were established by the accrediting agencies.

None of the Negro land-grant colleges had established an experiment station as late as 1930 because their states had not allocated monies for this purpose. These same colleges were hampered in their efforts to provide adequate extension programs because their states had only directed a small fraction of the federal funds to them while the white land-grant institutions in these states received the larger and disproportionate share of the funds. The Negro land-grant colleges would have received a much larger and more equitable portion of these funds if the funds had been distributed according to the Negro-white population ratio in these states. Finally, in 1930 none of these Negro colleges were able to offer any graduate or professional training for their students. Certainly these three conditions were handicaps to the total educational product of this collegiate group.

46 Eddy, Jr., p. 261.
47 Davis, pp. 319-321, 327-328.
Summary

Jonathan Turner and Justin Morrill pioneered the land-grant college movement in the United States. The Morrill Act of 1862 was the legislation that created the white institutions, but it did very little to aid the Negroes. Finally the Morrill Act of 1890 made specific provisions that a state had to provide a separate land-grant college for Negroes if it did not admit Negroes to its white institution. This Second Morrill Act encouraged the seventeen Southern states to establish Negro institutions, and all of them had opened separate Negro land-grant colleges by 1913.

Negro higher education in the South had been carried on predominantly by private and church colleges prior to the land-grant colleges for Negroes. This posed a problem for these newer public institutions because the church colleges had emphasized cultural training. Most of the private colleges taught the traditional classical and liberal arts subjects. Therefore, the early Negro land-grant colleges found themselves following the accepted pattern in the early period. Many Negroes resisted the idea of vocational training because they associated labor and mechanics with their former slavery.

This collegiate group was affected by economic, political, and social conditions. Some of their problems were general to all colleges and others were unique to them alone. Many of their problems resulted from a combination of all three of the conditions.
The main economic factor that affected their growth was financial support, and most of these institutions depended upon their state for their major means of support. Social and political attitudes had much to do with the amount of state support that these schools were granted.

During the Reconstruction Period and shortly thereafter the Negro had the greatest amount of political representation in Congress and high state positions. Several of these Negro Congressmen were active in organizing and heading some of the Negro land-grant colleges. Shortly after 1891 the direct political representation of the Negroes declined sharply, and they had to depend politically on those who offered them the most benefits educationally and otherwise.

Educationally the dual system of education in the South placed hardships upon the Negro and this particular college system. Elementary and high schools for Negroes in this region were both poorly financed and short in number. Many Negroes attended private elementary and high schools. This system was one of the factors responsible for the low educational attainment level of the Negroes which severely impeded the collegiate growth of the Negro land-grant institutions. Up to 1916 this group of colleges were acting almost exclusively as elementary and high schools. Certainly this hindered their collegiate expansion, and they had lost some Federal support because they were unable to fulfill their prime objective of teaching mechanic arts and agriculture. The 1929-1930
school year was a notable time for these institutions because it marked the first year that their college enrollment exceeded their high school enrollment. Serious economic conditions that affected agriculture also influenced the Negro land-grant colleges. The majority of the Negroes in the South were employed as tenant farmers, and they often suffered from credit problems, depressions, crop failures, economic panics, marginal farming methods, crop diseases, and low farm profits. Any one of these conditions often made it impossible for a great number of these families to bear any of the cost of higher education, and therefore the enrollment of the land-grant colleges for Negroes was affected indirectly.

In agriculture there were two particularly important influences which had affected these institutions. First, scientific farming and the use of modern farm machines increased the demand for formal agricultural training. Second, as the farm population declined rapidly and continuously after 1890 many Negro youths depended upon their land-grant colleges to educate and train them in other vocations and fields of learning.

The attitudes toward higher education in the South became more favorable as time progressed toward 1930. Directly after the Civil War a number of Southerners were not in favor of broad educational benefits for Negroes because they wanted to keep Negroes on the level of servitude. Others felt that Negroes were uneducable. It was fortunate that many open-minded white citizens, philanthropic groups, and church groups persisted in their efforts
to up-grade Negro public education in its early period of foundation and development. As industrialization came to the South the citizenry realized that there was an increased need for the education of both white and Negro groups. Finally, the Negroes had developed strong educational leaders in the period from 1890 to 1930, and these leaders had attracted a considerable number of white advocates who were sincerely interested in furthering Negro public higher education. These favorable attitudes were beneficial to the physical and academic expansion of the land-grant colleges for Negroes.

The operation and development of these institutions suffered as a result of a number of handicaps. Significant handicaps that affected them and often contributed, either directly or indirectly, to their deficiencies were: (1) inadequate state and federal support, (2) inequitable shares of many federal funds allocated to the land-grant colleges, and (3) no share of the federal funds allocated to land-grant institutions for forestry extension services, agricultural research, and military training. The prominent weaknesses of these colleges during this period were: (1) majority of students enrolled below the collegiate level, (2) low faculty and administrative salaries, (3) inadequate libraries, (4) lack of research and experimentation, and (5) inadequate extension services.

Although the Negro land-grant colleges suffered many handicaps they had accomplished much by 1930. They were to be credited with the following noteworthy accomplishments: (1) provided a land-grant
college system for Negroes in states where educational segregation was enforced, (2) provided elementary, high school, and college educations for a significant number of Negro youths, (3) provided educational courses in agriculture, mechanic arts, trades, home economics, and teaching for Negroes, (4) provided extension services which were extremely beneficial to many Southern Negroes, (5) trained a vast number of Negro teachers that were employed on the elementary, high school, and collegiate levels, (6) provided educational benefits to both rural and urban Negroes, and (7) adopted a basic philosophy of providing for the educational needs of the Negro community with the ultimate goal of benefiting society.
CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL SKETCHES OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

The main purpose of this chapter is to provide the basic beginnings and a number of important historical events that were influential in the development of particular Negro land-grant colleges. These brief sketches are not intended to be either comprehensive or highly detailed. This chapter has been specifically developed with the idea of giving an overview of the individual colleges that comprise this group of institutions.

In August, 1967 the author made a 2,200 mile round-trip to Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, Fort Valley State College, Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University, Kentucky State College, and Tennessee Agricultural and Mechanical University. These colleges were chosen as a representative sample of the entire group because they were located in border states, middle states, and states in the far South. After returning from the journey and reviewing the interviews and the data the author believed that these sketches presented significant information that was best offered via this medium.

It is expected that several kinds of data can be gathered as
a result of these sketches. Unique factors present in the foundation of any of the individual colleges should be noted. Prominent people who were prime factors in the foundation of particular schools should be discovered. Renowned scholars who were influential in any of these institutions should be listed. Finally a number of outstanding persons who were educated in these colleges or who made an unusual contribution to any of them should be related.

State of Alabama: Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College

In 1873 the state legislature of Alabama passed the bill authorizing the college to be created, and as a result it was organized in 1875. The school began operations as Huntsville Normal, and its original appropriation was one thousand dollars a year.

William Hooper Councill was very instrumental in the creation of this institution, and this ex-slave became the first principal and the first president of the college. Councill was principal in 1875 and from 1877 to 1890; he held the office of president from 1890 to 1909. When Huntsville Normal was founded it started with


3. *Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalogue*, p. 36.
two teachers and sixty-one students.\textsuperscript{4}

About 1878 a program of industrial education was initiated, and this program attracted wide-spread attention. The school received financial assistance from the Peabody Fund, the Slater Fund, and private contributions. When the state deemed the industrial education program to be outstanding, it increased the appropriation to four thousand dollars a year, and the state legislature changed the school's name to State Normal and Industrial School at Huntsville.\textsuperscript{5}

On February 13, 1891 the Alabama State Legislature accepted the terms of the Second Morrill Act of 1890,\textsuperscript{6} and it distributed a share of the federal land-grant fund to the institution. The chief purpose of this fund was to provide college level training in agriculture and mechanical arts. During this time the school's name was changed to State Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, and the first bachelor's degree was awarded in 1901. In 1919 the institution's name was changed to State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute for Negroes, and its site was moved to Normal, Alabama. At this time the school was designated a junior college.\textsuperscript{7}

The state board of education authorized the college to offer

\textsuperscript{4}Ibid.
\textsuperscript{5}Ibid.
\textsuperscript{6}Davis, p. 316.
\textsuperscript{7}Brunner, p. 8.
a senior college program in 1939, and the class of 1941, again, received the bachelor's degree. The last class, prior to this date, to receive the bachelor's degree was the class of 1920. Finally, the institution was given its present name of Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College on January 14, 1948.  

During its existence the school had the following three principals: William Hooper Council (1875, 1877-1890), Joseph Robinson (1876-1877), and Peter H. Clark (1877-1888). The five presidents have been the following men: William Hooper Council (1890-1909), Walter S. Buchanan (1909-1921), T. B. Parker (1921-1927), J. F. Drake (1927-1962), and R. D. Morrison (1962-present). In December, 1963, this institution became a fully accredited member of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.  

State of Arkansas: Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College  

The Arkansas State Legislature created the college by its act of 1873. This state supported institution was founded as a branch of the University of Arkansas, its fellow land-grant college. When the school actually opened in 1875, it was called Branch Normal  

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8 *Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalogue.*  
10 *Brunner,* p. 10.  
11 *Wahlquist and Thornton,* p. 108.
College. Leadership was provided by Professor J. C. Corbin who directed the seven member student body, four pupils from Drew County and three pupils from Jefferson County. The school's first frame structure was a rented building on the corner of Lindsey and Siener Streets in the city of Pine Bluff. Then in 1882, it was moved to the suburbs where a two-story brick building was built, with state funds, on a fifty acre tract of land. During this year the institution operated as a college, and it awarded ten baccalauréat degrees from this date until 1894. Then, from 1894 to 1929, the school's status was changed to that of a junior college.  

When the Arkansas State Legislature accepted the terms of the Second Morrill Act in 1892, it disbursed three-elevenths of the state's apportionment of funds to Branch College. The legislature appropriated $275,000 to build a new school outside of the city limits in 1927. This project received a contribution of $33,000 from the Rosenwald Fund, and a contribution of $183,000 was made by the General Education Board.  

In 1929 the institution became a four-year college, and its name was changed to Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College. Two years later a gymnasium and eight faculty residences were completed. Then, in 1938, two more dormitories and a library were completed.

13 Ibid.
Dr. Lawrence B. Davis was officially appointed president in April, 1943, and under his leadership much physical and educational expansion occurred. Under his administration an agricultural building, two dormitories, an infirmary, a physical education plant, a science building, a stadium, a student union, and a vocational arts building have been constructed. This building program more than doubled the college's facilities.

Arkansas Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College has had the following six principals: J. C. Corbin (1875-1901), Isaac Fisher (1901-1911), F. T. Vinegar (1911-1915), Jefferson Ish (1915-1921), Charles Smith (1921-1922), and Robert E. Malone (1922-1928). The two presidents were John B. Watson (1928-1942) and Lawrence A. Davis (1943-present).

This institution is accredited by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. It was initially accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1950.

14 Ibid.
15 Ibid., p. 14
16 Ibid.
State of Delaware: Delaware State College

On May 15, 1891 the General Assembly of the State of Delaware established the college under the terms of the Second Morrill Act. The location of this land-grant institution is less than a mile north of Dover, and its site is in close proximity to Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Wilmington. 18

Specifically the college was founded for the education of Negroes, and it was chartered under the name of State College for Colored Students. On February 3, 1892, instruction on the college level was first offered, and in 1898 the first baccalaureate degree was awarded. 19 This institution operated a high school until 1952 which, at one time, provided the only high school education for Negro students who lived south of Wilmington. After this date the school conducted only a collegiate program. The high school was important to the Negro students because segregation had been enforced by state law in the public schools of Delaware until the United States Supreme Court ruling, in the Brown Case, outlawed social segregation in 1954. 20

Delaware State College is accredited by the Delaware State 18


19 Brunner, p. 12.

Board of Education, and it was initially accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1945. Governing control of the institution is vested in a Board of Trustees, made up of eleven members, six appointed by the Governor and five elected by the board. All of the members have a six-year term of office. Authorization was given in 1947 to change the school's name to Delaware State College.

Significant building expansion has taken place at the college since 1960, and two most notable examples are the Lydia P. Laws Hall, a residence for women, and the $1,500,000 science center. At the present time Dr. Luna I. Mishoe is the president of this institution.

State of Florida: Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University

The college was founded by the legislative act of 1887, and it was named the Colored Normal School. Its first location, known as "College Hill," was on Copeland Street in the city of Tallahassee, and in 1891 the school moved to its present location on the edge

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21 Wilkins, p. 9.


24 Ibid., p. 6.
of town. On June 8th, of this same year, Florida accepted the provisions of the Second Morrill Act, and it divided the proceeds equally between its two land-grant colleges.

After 1901 more buildings were erected, and the land was further developed for campus and agricultural uses. Management of the college was transferred, in 1905, to the State Board of Control which signified that the school was to be, later, considered an institution of higher learning. Its name was changed to Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College in 1909 by legislative enactment, and the first bachelor's degree was awarded in 1910.

From 1925 to 1939, an active building program was in operation, and federal and state appropriations allowed eight buildings to be added. The same funds made it possible to build Bragg Memorial Athletic Field and to renovate and to enlarge other buildings. An accelerated building program was carried on during the mid-forties to care for post-war needs. Physical facilities have increased most notably since 1950, and building construction and plant additions have greatly enlarged the physical facilities of the campus. An amount in excess of $12,000,000 was spent for construction,

26 Davis, p. 316.  
27 *Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University Bulletin*, pp. 1-2.
furnishings, additions, and renovation during the period following
1950. 28

Graduate courses were introduced in 1945, and the master's
degree was conferred in 1947. 29 The college program had grown much
in size and complexity since the first teacher training program was
offered to the fifteen students who were enrolled on October 1,
1887. 30

The Florida Legislature, on September 1, 1953, passed an act
enabling the institution to become a state university, and accord-
ingly its name was changed to Florida Agricultural and Mechanical
University. The school then subdivided into the following divi-
sions: College of Arts and Sciences, School of Agriculture and Home
Economics, College of Law, School of Education, School of Pharmacy,
School of Nursing, Graduate School, and the Vocational-Technical
Institute. 31

Full accreditation has been accorded to the university by the
Department of Education of the State of Florida and the Southern
Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. 32 Initially the


29 *Brunner,* p. 13.

30 *Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University Bulletin,*
p. 2.


institution was accredited in 1951.33

Five presidents have served Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University. Presidential posts were held by the following men: T. D. Tucker (1887-1901), N. B. Young (1901-1923), J. E. E. Lee, Sr. (1924-1944), W. H. Gray (1944-1949), and George W. Gore, Jr. (1950-present).34

State of Georgia: Fort Valley State College

The Georgia State Legislature passed legislation in 1874, naming Atlanta University to receive a part of the 1862 land-grant endowment, for the purpose of providing higher education for Negroes,35 and in 1890 this state accepted the terms of the Second Morrill Act.36 Georgia State Industrial College at Athens, in 1891, was designated by the legislature to receive one-third of the land-grant money appropriations to train and to educate Negroes under the latter Morrill Act.37

In 1895 Fort Valley High and Industrial School was founded by

33Wilkins, p. 10.
34Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University Bulletin, p. 3.
36Davis, p. 316
prominent colored and white citizens under the leadership of John W. Davison. This man led the school from 1895 to 1903. His able financial agent was James H. Tolbert, who raised money for the first buildings. During this time a $5,000 contribution for the girls' dormitory by Anna T. Jeanes marked the beginning of the Jeanes Fund for educating Negro women.  

Henry A. Hunt was elected president in 1903 when John Davison resigned. The new president started with a budget of about $840 and one hundred and forty students. Hunt soon got financial aid from such great benefactors as Andrew Carnegie, the General Education Board, Collis P. Huntington, George F. Peabody, and Julius Rosenwald.  

Through Mr. Hunt's efforts, assisted by his wife, the school expanded rapidly. Collis P. Huntington had contributed $25,000 in 1908 for a girls' dormitory. In 1913 the American Church Institute became the sponsor of the school, and during this year the institution offered Georgia's first summer school program for Negro teachers. The General Education Board helped to remodel Jeanes Hall in 1916, and Mr. Royal C. Peabody funded the construction of the trades building. Carnegie Foundation added the Carnegie Library in 1925. From 1926 to 1937 other philanthropic organizations financed

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\[38\] The Fort Valley State College Bulletin, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, p. 38.  
\[39\] Ibid.
six other major building projects. Mr. H. A. Hunt's labors were ended with his death on October 1, 1938. 40

In 1929 the institution's name was changed to Fort Valley Normal and Industrial School. 41 The next name change occurred when State Teachers and Agricultural College at Forsyth consolidated with this school to form Fort Valley College, and on July 1, 1939 the college came under state control. This event terminated Fort Valley's affiliation with the American Church Institute. 42

Dr. Horace Mann Bond became the first president of the new Fort Valley College in 1939, and the college experienced tremendous growth during his leadership. He was instrumental in extensive curriculum revision, and the class of 1941 was the first four-year collegiate group to be graduated from the institution. Dr. Bond left in 1945 to become the new president of Lincoln University. 43

Dr. Cornelius V. Troup was president of the college from 1945 to 1966. During his administration the regents voted to offer master's degrees in 1946. Finally, in 1949 the General Assembly of Georgia enacted legislation transferring institutional designation to Fort Valley State College for the purpose of granting this

43 The Fort Valley State College Bulletin, p. 40.
college the benefits of the land-grant acts.44

The current president, Dr. Waldo W. E. Blanchet, has been in office from 1966 to the present time. His institution is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Accreditation was initially made in 1951.45

State of Kentucky: Kentucky State College

The General Assembly of the State of Kentucky passed an act in 1886 to establish an educational institution for colored persons, and accordingly it was named State Normal School for Colored Persons. Governor J. Proctor Knott approved this action, and the people of Frankfort were very interested in locating the school in their city. Therefore the Frankfort City Council donated $1,500 and a site to the institution.46

On October 11, 1887 the school opened with fifty-five pupils and three teachers. Jackson Hall, the oldest campus building, was built during this year. Departments of Agriculture, Home Economics, and Mechanics were added in 1890, and in the spring the first five students graduated. The institution organized a high school on the

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45 The Fort Valley State College Bulletin, p. 40.
campus in 1893.\footnote{Ibid.} State approval of the terms of the Second Morrill Act was given on January 13, 1893,\footnote{Davis, p. 316.} and on May 21, 1897, the legislature acted to put aside a part of the 1862 land-grant fund with specifications that the income would go to State Normal School for Colored Persons.\footnote{Brunner, p. 14.}

The school's name was changed to Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons in 1902. A Practice School was started in 1908, and Hathaway Hall and Hume Hall were built in 1909. Then in 1911 the institution organized its first summer school. Julius Rosenwald donated money for a Practice Teaching School in 1921.\footnote{Kentucky State College Bulletin, p. 11.}

Kentucky State Industrial College for Colored Persons was the name given to the college in 1926. Next the first bachelor's degree was conferred in 1929. In 1938 the school changed its name to Kentucky State College for Negroes, and the last change took place in 1952 when the current title of Kentucky State College was adopted.\footnote{Ibid.}

This institution has had seven presidents. The following men have directed the college: John H. Jackson (1887-1898, 1907-1910),
Kentucky State College is accredited by the Kentucky State Department of Education and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The college was initially accredited in 1939.53

State of Louisiana: Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College

At the Louisiana State Constitutional Convention in 1879, T. T. Allain, Henry Demas, and Pinckney B. S. Pinchback led a movement that resulted in the establishment of an institution, in New Orleans, for the purpose of educating colored persons. In January, 1890 Southern University was chartered by the General Assembly.54 Trustees were appointed for the school, and they purchased the Hebrew Girls School Building. Southern University started classes in this building on March 7, 1881, with twelve pupils, and the enrollment increased to forty-three pupils by the end of the first term. Now that the school was started the state, by Constitutional

52 Ibid.

53 Wilkins, p. 13.

provision, granted a $10,000 annual appropriation to the university on February 6, 1882. Again the institution had outgrown its dwellings by 1886, and the trustees, with a state appropriation of $14,000, purchased the square at Soniat and Magazine Streets for the new campus.55

The university started an Agricultural and Mechanical Department in 1888, and the state accepted the terms of the Second Morrill Act on June 23, 1892. The legislature then appointed Southern University as the land-grant college for Negroes.56

In 1912 Legislative Act 118 provided for the sale and closing of the institution, and the act also reorganized it as Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in a new location.57 During this year of 1912 the first baccalaureate degrees were conferred.58 Southern University in New Orleans was closed in 1914, and on March 9, 1914 the new school was opened in Scotlandville. As the university rapidly expanded it was brought under the control of the State Board of Education by Legislative Act 100 in 1922.59

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55 Ibid.
56 Ibid.
57 Ibid.
58 Brunner, p. 19.
59 Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalog, pp. 33-34.
Southern University has had eight presidents. The following men have served this college in presidential posts: A. R. Gourrier (1880), H. Fayerweather (president interim, 1880-1882), Rev. C. H. Thompson (1882-1883), Rev. J. H. Harrison (1883-1886), George W. Bothwell (1886-1888), H. A. Hill (1888-1914), J. S. Clark (1914-1938), and Felton G. Clark (1938-present). 60

In 1948 the school opened its Law School, and in 1958 the Graduate School began its operations. The enrollment reached 7,191 students in 1965, including those at the New Orleans Branch. The college is a member of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 61 and it was initially accredited in 1937. 62

State of Maryland: Maryland State College

The school was established in 1885 as Delaware Conference Academy at Princess Anne, Maryland. It was then intended to be used as a preparatory branch of the Centenary Bible Institute. Undoubtedly the progenitors of the academy felt it should train students in the ministry and in teacher preparation. 63

Benjamin Oliver Bird was the first principal of the new academy. Nine students were enrolled when the school opened on

60 Ibid.
61 Ibid.
September, 13, 1886, and by the end of the year the number had increased to thirty-seven students. Bird favored vocational training, and throughout the nation efforts were being made to provide vocational programs for Negroes. Little is known historically as to what degree Benjamin Bird was able to provide this training. Later the school's name was changed to Industrial Branch of Morgan State College. The records show that more attention was given to changing the name of the school than to the curriculum. In 1890 the institution was designated as the Negro institution to receive the federal funds allocated under the Second Morrill Act.

The college's name became Eastern Branch of the Maryland Agricultural College in 1919. Next a junior college program was inaugurated in 1925. The state exercised complete control over the college in 1926, and it designated the University of Maryland as the administrative agency.

In 1936 the college offered a four-year curriculum in Mechanic Arts, Agriculture, and Home Economics. The college was now declared a division of the University of Maryland. Finally, in 1948 the name was changed to Maryland State College.

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64 Ibid., p. 11
65 Brunner, p. 20.
66 Maryland State College Catalogue, p. 11.
67 Ibid.
Dr. John T. Williams is the current president of Maryland State College. His institution is accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Initially the college was accredited in 1937.68

State of Mississippi: Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College

This institution has the distinct honor of being the oldest Negro land-grant college in the country. It originally began its existence as Oakland College for white male students in 1831. At the time of the Civil War this school closed in order that its students could serve their military duties during the conflict. Oakland College did not open again after the Civil War ended, and the State of Mississippi purchased the school for the purpose of educating Negro students. The college's new name, Alcorn University, was in honor of Governor James L. Alcorn (then in office).69

Major John R. Lynch, an outstanding American, signed the legislative act establishing the college in 1871,70 and Hiram R. Revels resigned from the United States Senate to become Alcorn's

68 Wilkins, p. 15.
69 Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalogue (1966-68), p. 29.
70 Brunner, p. 23.
first president during the same year.\textsuperscript{71} This institution also had
the distinction, in 1871, of being designated by the legislature
to receive federal funds under the Morrill Act of 1862.\textsuperscript{72}

Alcorn University changed its name to Alcorn Agricultural and
Mechanical College in 1878, and the bachelor's degree was first
awarded in 1882. This institution has had an alumni association
serving it since 1890.\textsuperscript{73} Then on March 30, 1892 the state accepted
the provisions of the Second Morrill Act, and it redesignated
Alcorn as the state's Negro land-grant college.\textsuperscript{74}

In 1966 the college had a total of eighty-six buildings, and
the oldest building on the campus, built in 1831, is Oakland Memori-
Chapel. Alcorn's president is now J. D. Boyd, and his college
is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary
Schools.\textsuperscript{75} This institution was initially accredited in 1948.\textsuperscript{76}

State of Missouri: Lincoln University

The credit for founding Lincoln Institute belongs to the

\textsuperscript{71}Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalogue, p. 29.
\textsuperscript{72}Davis, p. 316.
\textsuperscript{73}Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalogue, p. 31.
\textsuperscript{74}Brunner, p. 23.
\textsuperscript{75}Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalogue, p. 30.
\textsuperscript{76}Wilkins, p. 17.
officers and men of the Sixty-second United States Colored Infantry which was stationed at Fort McIntosh, Texas. This regiment was composed of men chiefly from Missouri, and it had been recruited as the Missouri Volunteers. These soldiers raised $5,000 to found a school for freed Negroes. When it became necessary to raise further funds, they appealed for aid to the Sixty-fifth Colored Infantry which was stationed in Louisiana, and this unit of men raised another $1,324.50.77

January 14, 1866 is known as Founder's Day because this was the day when the school organizing body began its planning, and by June 25th the school had been incorporated. Lieutenant Richard B. Foster was a leading figure in organizing the institution. Major Generals Giles A. Smith and Clinton B. Fisk of the Union Army had endorsed this endeavor.78

In an old Jefferson City building the school opened on September 17, 1866, and the first president was Lieutenant Foster. Lincoln Institute then moved to its current grounds in 1869, and in 1870 it was granted state aid for teacher training. The school was deeded to the State of Missouri in 1879, and it then received greater appropriations as a state institution.79

A Normal School Law which the state passed in 1887 allowed

77Lincoln University Bulletin, Vol. XLIII, No. 3 (July, 1966), p. 27.
78Ibid.
79Ibid., pp. 27-28.
graduates of Lincoln Institute to teach in Missouri for life without taking examinations. During this same year a college program was introduced at the school. 80 Agricultural and industrial courses were added to the program after Missouri accepted the terms of the Second Morrill Act on March 13, 1891. 81 Walthall M. Moore, the Negro, state representative, introduced the bill in the legislature that changed the school's name to Lincoln University in 1921. 82

The regional accrediting agency for this institution is the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This association accredited the high school program in 1925, the teacher training course in 1926, and the four-year arts and science collegiate program in 1934. Then the graduate program was instituted during the summer of 1940. 83

Lincoln University opened its facilities to any qualified person who wished to enroll in September, 1954, and it closed its Schools of Law and Journalism in 1956 because they were no longer necessary when Negroes were accepted at other state colleges as a result of the state integration policy of 1955. 84 Dr. Earl Edgar

81 Davis, p. 316.
82 Lincoln University Bulletin, p. 28.
83 Ibid.
84 Ibid.
State of North Carolina: The Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina

The college started operations in 1890 actually before the state law that created it was passed. This event occurred because the Morrill Act of 1890 stated that federal funds would be withheld from the existing land-grant college if a state did not admit Negro students unless the state provided separate college facilities for Negroes under this Act; therefore, North Carolina designated Shaw University in Raleigh to allow the college to operate as an annex to Shaw University from 1890 to 1893. 86

An act of the North Carolina General Assembly created Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race on March 9, 1891, and this act provided that the college would be built in the city that would make a suitable inducement to have it locate in its area. The citizens of Greensboro donated $11,000 and fourteen acres of land to the institution, and North Carolina made a supplemental appropriation of $2,500. In 1893 the first building was finished, and Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race opened in this new location in the fall of the year. A new name, the

85 Ibid., p. 11.
Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, was given to the school by a legislative act in 1915.\textsuperscript{87} The institution was authorized by the General Assembly to grant Master of Science degrees in 1939, and the first masters' degrees were conferred in 1941.\textsuperscript{88} Another legislative act established the School of Nursing in 1953, and the first nursing graduates received their degrees in 1957.\textsuperscript{89}

This college has been served by the following six presidents since it was organized: Dr. J. O. Crosby (1892-1896), Dr. James B. Dudley (1896-1925), Dr. F. D. Bluford (1925-1955), Dr. Warmoth T. Gibbs (1956-1960), Dr. Samuel DeWitt Proctor (1960-1964), and Dr. Lewis C. Dowdy (1964-present).\textsuperscript{90} The Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina is fully accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and it was initially accredited in 1936.\textsuperscript{91}

State of Oklahoma: Langston University

On March 12, 1897 the Colored Agricultural and Normal

\textsuperscript{87}Ibid.

\textsuperscript{88}Brunner, p. 30.

\textsuperscript{89}The Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, p. 29.

\textsuperscript{90}Ibid.

\textsuperscript{91}Wilkins, p. 21.
University of the Territory of Oklahoma was established by House Bill 151. The bill specified that the school should be located in or near Langston. This institution has always had the popular name of Langston University. Historically the name Langston was used in honor of John Mercer Langston who was a Reconstruction Congressman from Virginia. 92

It is noteworthy that the college is ten years older than the State of Oklahoma. This institution feels that its graduates have contributed to the development of the state, and it believes that its philosophy that "no worthy student, however impoverished, shall be denied an opportunity to seek an education" is well justified. 93

Colored Agricultural and Normal University opened in 1897, 94 and it began its existence in a Presbyterian Church with a $5,000 budget. Dr. Inman E. Page, the first president, of the college struggled to organize the institution effectively during his seventeen-year term of office, 95 and the first bachelor's degree was awarded during his administration in 1908. 96

93Ibid.
94Davis, p. 316.
95Langston University Bulletin, p. 23.
96Brunner, p. 32.
These presidents witnessed notable events during their terms of office. Dr. Issac W. Young was credited for reestablishing the four-year degree program in 1923. Dr. Z. T. Hubert secured increased appropriations for the liberal arts, education, and agriculture programs. Dr. G. L. Harrison saw the institution's name changed to Langston University in 1941, and he accepted accreditation for Langston from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools initially in 1948.

The college has had the following ten presidents: Dr. Inman E. Page, Issac Berry McCutcheon, R. E. Bullitt, Dr. J. M. Marquess, Dr. Issac W. Young, Dr. Z. T. Hubert, Dr. J. W. Sanford, Dr. Albert Turner, Dr. G. L. Harrison, and Dr. William H. Hale. President William Hale is currently engaged in a major ten-year building project which he instituted in 1963.

State of South Carolina: South Carolina State College

Clafin University was the school that the state had designated to receive land-grant funds for Negro education under the Morrill Act of 1862, and it received its first benefits under the Act in 1872. It is to be noted here that Clafin did not have any direct

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98Wilkins, p. 23.
100Davis, p. 316.
relationship to South Carolina State College.

In 1895 the Constitutional Convention acted to authorize the state legislature to sever the state's interest in Claflin University, and it also authorized the legislature to create a new college. Statutes were enacted by the General Assembly to establish State Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College. This institution, located at Orangeburg, was to receive a one-half share of the interest accruing from the land-grant appropriation for South Carolina. 101

On September 27, 1896 the college opened with a faculty of thirteen members. Dr. Thomas E. Miller was its president, and previous to his college presidency he had been a former South Carolina Congressman. The college property was composed of eight small buildings, thirty-five acres of land, farm animals, and a dairy herd. Campus life was traditioned after the ideal college of Mark Hopkins. Much early instruction took place on logs in the wilderness, and later these logs were cut into lumber for the college buildings. 102

A Charleston native, Dr. Robert Shaw Wilkinson became the president in 1911, and during his administration the college's income was increased significantly through state and federal sources.

102 Ibid.
Federal appropriations for extension work were added during his reign. Dr. Wilkinson died after serving the college for twenty-one years. 103

Dr. Miller F. Whittaker assumed the presidency on March 15, 1932. Three outstanding events that took place during his administration were establishing the Law School, developing fifteen Community Extension School units, and founding an Infantry Reserve Officers Training School. President Whittaker had been the college's leader for eighteen years when he died in 1949. 104

In 1950 Dr. Benner C. Turner was appointed president, and his administration characterized rapid growth in both physical and academic areas. 105 During 1954 President Turner saw the institution's name changed to South Carolina State College. 106 The college is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and it received initial accreditation in 1941. 107

State of Tennessee: Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University

The State of Tennessee accepted the terms of the Second

103 Ibid.
104 Ibid.
105 Ibid.
106 Brunner, p. 35.
107 Wilkins, p. 25.
Morrill Act on February 26, 1891, and the General Assembly in 1909 enacted legislation to establish the State Normal Schools of Tennessee. Under this act the Agricultural and Industrial School was founded on June 19, 1912 at Nashville.

In 1913 the legislature decided that the supplemental funds benefiting agricultural colleges should be divided in a 38 to 12 proportion between the two land-grant schools of the state. In the same enactment, Agricultural and Industrial State School for Negroes was designated as the state's second land-grant college.

The institution became a four-year teachers' college in 1922, and it was given the power to award the baccalaureate degree. Accordingly the first bachelor's degree was awarded in June, 1924. The institution's name was changed to Agricultural and Industrial State College.

In 1941 the State Board of Education was authorized to empower the school to upgrade its curriculum; this authority was granted by the General Assembly. The upgrading process resulted in a program of graduate studies being established that led to a master's degree. All of the early graduate curricula were in the field

108 Davis, p. 316.
110 Brunner, p. 37.
111 Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University Bulletin, p. 22.
of teacher education, and the college conferred its first master's
degree in June, 1944.112

The State Board of Education, in August, 1951, elevated the
institution to the status of a university. Then the school was re-
organized into the School of Education, the Graduate School, the
School of Engineering, the School of Arts and Sciences, and at
this time provisions were made for later additions in business, ag-
riculture, and home economics.113 In August, 1958 the State Board
of Education reaffirmed the fact that the school had risen to the
position of a full-status land-grant college, and its name was
changed to Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University.114

The university's campus consists of four hundred and fifty
acres, and there are more than thirty permanent buildings on the
grounds of the university.115 Dr. W. S. Davis is the current pres-
ident, and his university is accredited by the Southern Association
of Colleges and Secondary Schools.116 President Davis' institution
was initially accredited in 1946.117

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112 Ibid.
113 Ibid.
114 Brunner, p. 37.
115 Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University
Bulletin, p. 23.
116 Ibid., p. 4.
The State Legislature of Texas met in 1876, and it passed an act to provide for the organization of an agricultural and mechanical college in Waller County for Negroes. The school was named Alta Vista Agricultural College, and its first principal, L. M. Minor, was the school's leader from 1878 to 1879. A legislative act in 1879 provided funds for instruction in teacher training, and Alta Vista also initiated a course in military tactics. 118

Serving the institution as the second and third principals were E. H. Anderson (1879-1884) and L. C. Anderson (1884-1896).

Notable events that occurred during L. C. Anderson's term were: the authorization of an Agricultural and Mechanical Department by the Twentieth Legislature, the development of a branch experiment station through the Hatch Act, 119 and the state's acceptance of the Second Morrill Act on March 14, 1891. 120

The fourth, fifth, and sixth principals were E. L. Blackshear (1896-1915), I. M. Terrell (1915-1918), and J. G. Osborne (1918-1925). Principal Blackshear saw the college's name changed to

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119 *Ibid*.

120 *Davis,* p. 316.
Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College in 1899, and during his administration in 1901 the state legislature authorized a four-year college program. I. M. Terrell's service saw a Reserve Officers Training Corps brought to the campus and the Cooperative Extension Service was started during this period. Principal Osborne's duties were highlighted by a building program and the foundation of the Nursing Division in 1918.121

W. R. Banks served as the institution's seventh principal. He held the position from 1926 until August 31, 1947 when he was appointed principal emeritus. During the Bank's administration the physical plant doubled in size. A significant study made during the period was an investigation of the purposes and objectives of Prairie View in 1933-1934. Another extremely important event that occurred during this period was the founding of the Prairie View Conference on Education in 1931. Banks witnessed, in 1937, the beginning of the Division of Graduate Study. The college offered an outstanding service when it provided vocational training to Negro men in order to adapt their skills to fit critical war-time occupations.122 Finally in 1945 Principal Banks saw the school's name changed to Prairie View University.123

121 Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College Bulletin, pp. 9-10.
122 Ibid.
123 Brunner, p. 38.
Dr. E. B. Evans, the eighth principal, was appointed to the position on September 1, 1946. He had the distinction of being titled dean in 1947, and he became the first president on December 3, 1948. On February 27, 1947 the Texas State Legislature passed an act that changed the institution's name to Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas. On September 1, 1950, the Divisions of Arts and Sciences, Mechanic Arts, Agriculture, and Home Economics were changed to the Schools of Arts and Sciences, Engineering, Agriculture, and Home Economics.\textsuperscript{124}

The last decade has produced much building expansion at the college. Recent building improvements include a Memorial Student Center completed in 1960 at a cost of $1,000,000, a Science Building completed in 1961 at a cost of $2,000,000, a Health and Physical Education Building completed in 1964 at a cost of $1,500,000, and two dormitories completed in 1965 at a cost of $2,500,000.\textsuperscript{125}

Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It was initially accredited in 1934.\textsuperscript{126}

\textsuperscript{124} \textit{Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College Bulletin}, pp. 10-11.
\textsuperscript{125} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{126} Wilkins, p. 27.
The first Negro institution in Virginia to receive land-grant funds was Hampton Normal and Agricultural School. It began its existence in June, 1867 on a farm located near the Hampton River, and the site was called "Little Scotland." The first pupils started their instruction in this school in April, 1863, and this institution was officially chartered in 1870 as a semiprivate school. Hampton Normal and Agricultural School was not related to Virginia State College, but it is noted here because it first received funds in 1872 under the Morrill Act of 1862.

The school which is now Virginia State College was established in 1862 as Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute. A prominent Negro citizen of Petersburg, A. W. Harris, was instrumental in its creation because he organized and led this bill through the legislature to begin this institution. A direct result of his efforts was the incorporation of Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute by the General Assembly on March 6, 1883. This act provided that a site and buildings for the college would be purchased with a sum of $100,000 that would be withheld from the proceeds of the sale of the Atlantic, Mississippi, and Ohio Railroad. Another important

\[127\] Brunner, p. 39.

\[128\] Davis, p. 316.

provision was that $20,000 was to be allocated to the school for yearly operating expenses.

A governor's commission in 1882 bought "Fleet Farm" which was located west of Petersburg, and on this land the cornerstone was laid for a structure, "Main Building," on July 4, 1883. Due to the lack of construction funds it was necessary for the legislature to make four appropriations, totaling $57,700, to finish the building in 1888. During this period of construction the institution had begun instruction in October, 1883 with 117 students. James Storum was the principal, and he and his seven-member faculty conducted classes in an old existing building, "Great House." The three departments of the school were: college, academic, and normal.

Professor James Major Colson became principal for a period of four months in 1885, and he gave up this position in order that his successor could be appointed to the presidency of the school. Colson made a great contribution to scholarship at the institution during his teaching career which extended from 1883 to 1904.

On January 1, 1886, John Mercer Langston became the first president of Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute. Mr. Langston had formerly been the vice-president of Howard University, and he had also been the United States Minister to Haiti. During his

130 Ibid.
131 Ibid.
132 Ibid.
presidential term of office, in 1882, the first nine bachelor degrees were awarded. President Langston left office in December, 1887, in order to become a Representative in Congress for the State of Virginia.133

Dr. James Hugo Johnston became the college's second president on January 1, 1888. During the early part of his term of office the institution suffered serious educational reverses because political changes in the state brought power to those who were unsympathetic toward Negro education. These legislators changed the organization of the governing board of the school, and they reduced the school's appropriations which resulted in faculty and curriculum cuts. Then on March 29, 1902, they amended the Act of 1887, and this amendment specified that the institution's college department was to be eliminated. The course of study was to consist of normal, industrial, and other subjects considered fitting by the Board of Visitors. A further provision was that the school's name was changed to Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute. Johnston struggled in spite of these restrictions and reverses. He interested many people in the problems of the institute, and in 1908 these friends succeeded in their efforts in erecting Vawter Hall which was the institution's second brick structure. President Johnston continued his campaign to restore the school to its former position, and he succeeded in having the size of the appropriations raised in later

133Ibid., pp. 37-38.
years. This enabled him to enlarge the faculty and the curriculum again. His death in 1914 brought his presidential career to an end. 134

John Manuel Gandy became the third president after the death of Dr. Johnston, and he held this office until July 1, 1942. In 1915 he witnessed the school record the following achievements: the meeting of national two-year normal requirements, the meeting of national four-year high school requirements, and the introduction of vocational teacher training courses. 135 In 1920 he saw the state legislature transfer the designation of the Negro land-grant institution to Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute, and with the transfer the school received the one-third share of the land-grant fund. 136 During his administration the college department was restored in 1922, and the state legislature, in 1930, changed the college's name to Virginia State College for Negroes. Dr. Gandy served as president emeritus from the date of his retirement until October 5, 1947, when he died. 137

The fourth president of the institution was Dr. Luther H. Foster who was elected to this position on April 1, 1943, and prior to this date he had served as acting president since July 1, 1942.

134 Ibid.
135 Ibid.
136 Brunner, p. 40.
137 Virginia State College Gazette, p. 38.
During his administration the college’s name was changed to Virginia State College by the General Assembly in 1946, and the War Department developed a Reserve Officers Quartermaster Training Corps on July 1, 1947. Dr. Foster died on July 6, 1949 while he was engaged in an active building program.  

Acting president, James H. Johnston headed the school until Dr. Robert Prentiss Daniel was elected its fifth president on December 15, 1949. Dr. Daniel had been the president of Shaw University before his appointment at Virginia State College. He has headed a building expansion program which has been responsible for the erection and enlargement of more than eighteen major facilities. Under his direction the curriculum has been revised, and the former divisions of the institution have been changed to six separate schools.  

The Virginia General Assembly enacted legislation on July 1, 1944, designating the Norfolk Polytechnic College as the Norfolk division of the college, and finally this division was authorized by the Assembly in 1956 to institute four-year programs. Virginia State College is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and it was initially accredited in  

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139 Ibid.  
140 Ibid.
State of West Virginia: West Virginia State College

The West Virginia State Legislature accepted the terms of the Morrill Act of 1890 on March 17, 1891 and designated West Virginia Colored Institute as the Negro institution. A $10,000 appropriation was voted to buy land and to erect a school building. This college opened in the Kanawha Valley in 1892 on a small homestead with forty pupils. Soon after this date, a blacksmith shop and a barn were added to the college property.

West Virginia Colored Institute was very beneficial to the Negro population in its early years of existence because thousands of colored families came to the coal towns in the late nineteenth century, and these people lacked education, skills, teachers, and trained leaders. The students who came to this school in the beginning did not have a high school education. In fact most of them received their full education at this institution.

The college's first four administrators were: Principal J. Edwin Campbell, Principal John H. Hill, President J. McHenry Jones, and President Byrd Prillerman. Then in 1915 the college name was

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141 Wilkins, p. 28.
142 Davis, p. 316.
144 Ibid.
changed to West Virginia Collegiate Institute, and four years later, in 1919, President Prillerman granted the first collegiate degree.\textsuperscript{145}

John W. Davis became the fifth administrator of the institution in 1919, and his leadership brought a new era to the school. His appointment of Carter G. Woodson, the noted scholar, as dean placed a strong emphasis on academics. This college has had the honor of being the first Negro land-grant college to receive full accreditation. Furthermore, it has had the longest continuous period of accreditation of all the state universities and colleges in West Virginia. Finally in 1929 the institution received the name of West Virginia State College.\textsuperscript{146}

During John Davis' presidential term (1919 to 1953) the college expanded greatly, and the framework of the modern campus was created. On the eighty acre campus some of the prominent buildings that were constructed during this period were: the Administration Building, the faculty homes, four dormitories, the Health and Physical Education Building, and the Science Building. Another important event which took place during his administration was the organization and operation of the 4-H Camp at Clifftop, West Virginia.\textsuperscript{147}

\textsuperscript{145}Ibid.
\textsuperscript{146}Ibid.
\textsuperscript{147}Ibid.
On May 7, 1953, West Virginia State College chose Dr. William J. L. Wallace to become its sixth administrator. Under his leadership the school changed from a predominantly Negro college to an integrated institution. The Supreme Court decision of 1954, pertaining to public school segregation, opened the college to large numbers of white students, and after this date the pattern of the school population has actually been integration in reverse.\textsuperscript{148} Finally on March 4, 1957, the State Board of Education discontinued West Virginia State College as a separate land-grant college.\textsuperscript{149} This act brought the end to a Negro land-grant institution which was first fully accredited in 1927.\textsuperscript{150}

**Summary**

The beginning of each Negro land-grant college was traced, and important historical events were presented for each college as these individual institutional sketches were enumerated. In analyzing the foundations of these institutions the uniquenesses are noted in the beginnings and organization of many of the colleges. The following two events are excellent examples of this factor: 1. The citizens of Frankfort, Kentucky were very interested in having Kentucky State College locate within their city;

\textsuperscript{148}Ibid., p. 14.

\textsuperscript{149}Brunner, p. 41.

\textsuperscript{150}Wilkins, p. 29.
therefore the city council donated a site and $1,500 in order to have the institution situated there. 2. The officers and men of the Sixty-second United States Colored Infantry were credited with raising the initial funds to establish Lincoln University in Missouri, and its first president was Lieutenant Richard B. Foster who was influential in organizing the plan for the school while he was in the Sixty-second United States Colored Infantry.

There were other unusual historical items recorded in the chapter that can be categorized as unique. Langston University of Oklahoma was actually founded ten years before Oklahoma became a state. For many years Delaware State College had the distinction of operating the only high school for Negroes in the state.

Two common factors were noted in the foundings of these colleges. First, the majority of the Negro land-grant colleges were created as a result of the Morrill Act of 1890. Second, most of these institutions owe their early successes to a number of dedicated and devoted men.

It must be realized that these unique institutions were a product of their times and the social attitudes that prevailed in particular areas of our country. The following factors helped the Negro land-grant colleges to develop: 1) the Second Morrill Act, 2) white support, 3) Negro support, 4) early Negro political power and influence, 5) state funds, 6) federal funds, 7) local donations of sites and monies, 8) aid from religious and philanthropic groups, 9) state legislative enactments and grants, and 10) intelligent and
dedicated leadership. Undoubtedly there were many other factors involved, but these colleges could not have survived without the favorable influences of these factors and conditions. These institutions provided for a significant number of the Negro elementary and high school students attending public school in the Southern states during the early years of the existence of the Negro land-grant colleges.
CHAPTER IV

OUTSTANDING INDIVIDUALS WITH TRAINING OR SERVICE IN NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

Leaders and Their Backgrounds

The backgrounds and the philosophies of institutions help to produce outstanding men and women. Certainly, the Negro land-grant colleges have a tradition of service to offer to their students and graduates. Institutions that can practice the ideals of educating students to be productive and worthy members of their communities should be able to produce leaders. This college group meets these requirements.

This study discovers that the majority of the students in these colleges take teacher training courses, and after graduation they embark upon educational careers. Therefore, one can assume that the Negro land-grant colleges have produced a significant number of educational leaders. Teaching has been one of the fields that the Negro has been active in for many years, and without a doubt the worthy leaders of these colleges have often been the examples that have led many Negro youths into educational occupations.

It is often difficult for a college to trace its outstanding products without costly follow-up studies of its graduates. Many
alumni lose all of their contacts with the institution after their graduations. Studies of this type could be both productive and stimulating. For the sake of educational research, colleges should attempt to evaluate their educational products in later years.

Without a doubt the Negro land-grant colleges have produced countless college administrators, notable educators, professional men, leaders, and men active in governmental posts. In addition to these individuals many other people have become integral parts of these institutions, without actually having received their degrees from them, because they have served these colleges as faculty members, deans, and administrative officers. The following prominent men have been chosen, at random, as exemplifying many of these characteristics:

(1) Horace Mann Bond, who has been dean of the School of Education at Atlanta University since 1957, was born in Nashville, Tennessee on November 8, 1904. He received the following degrees: an A.B. from Lincoln University of Pennsylvania in 1923, an A.M. from the University of Chicago in 1926, and a Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1936.1

Dr. Bond had been a faculty member at Lincoln University of Pennsylvania, Alabama State College, and Fisk University. From 1934 to 1937 he was the dean of Dillard University in New Orleans,

and during the period of 1939 to 1945 he served Fort Valley State College as its president.2

In the past Bond has been a significant contributor to the Encyclopedia of Educational Research on topics relating to Negro higher education. The Educational Research Association of America award was presented to him in 1936 for his book, Education in Alabama: A Study in Cotton and Steel. His Ph.D. dissertation, "Social and Economic Influences on the Public Education of Negroes in Alabama, 1865-1930" was chosen as the outstanding social science thesis at the University of Chicago in 1936, and it won the Susan Colver Rosenberger prize. Other works that he has authored are: The Search for Talent, Negro Education in Alabama, and The Education of the Negro in the American Social Order.3

(2) Oscar James Chapman, who has been Dean of Instruction at Lincoln University since 1957, was born in Stockton, Maryland on September 30, 1909. He received the following degrees: an A.B. from Lincoln University of Pennsylvania in 1932, an A.M. from the University of Michigan in 1936, and a Ph.D. from Ohio State University in 1940.4

Chapman became interested in the Negro land-grant colleges in

2Ibid.


his undergraduate days when he played football against many of their teams while he was attending Lincoln University. In 1946 he was the author of *The Thorn in the Flesh*, and his Ph.D. dissertation was titled, "A Historical Study of Negro Land-Grant Colleges in Relationship with Their Social, Economic, Political, and Educational Backgrounds and a Program for Their Improvement."\(^5\)

(3) Lawrence Arnette Davis, who has been president of Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College since 1943, was born in McCrory, Arkansas on July 4, 1914. The following degrees were awarded to him: an A.B. from Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College in 1937, a M.A. from the University of Kansas in 1941, and an Ed.D. from the University of Arkansas in 1960. He has served his college as an English instructor, cashier, registrar, and assistant to the president.\(^6\)

Educational articles have been contributed by Dr. Davis to the *Arkansas Teachers Journal*, the *Informer*, and the *Mississippi Teacher Association Journal*.\(^7\) The *Chicago Defender* honored him with a certificate of merit award for being one of the ten outstanding Negroes in the South.\(^8\)


\(^7\) *Ibid.*

(4) Walker Milan Davis, who has been president of Okolona College in Mississippi since 1943, was born in Okolona, Mississippi on December 14, 1908. He received a B.S. degree from Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College in 1932 and a M.S. degree from Iowa State College in 1933. Additional studies were undertaken at Fisk University, the University of Wisconsin, and Tuskegee Institute. He has been a guest professor at both Rust College and Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College, and from 1942 to 1943 he was the business manager of Mississippi Industrial College.9

W. M. Davis wrote Pushing Forward in 1938 and Negro Education on the Move in Mississippi in 1941. He was one of the eight Negroes in the South to be chosen by the General Education Board to study "Social Dynamics of the South" at Tuskegee Institute and Fisk University.10

(5) Walter Strother Davis, who has been president of Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University since 1943, was born on August 9, 1905. The following degrees were awarded to him: a B.S. from Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College in 1931, a M.S. from Cornell University in 1933, and a Ph.D. from Cornell University in 1941. At Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University he has held the following positions: teacher

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10 Ibid.
in the high school department, teacher training supervisor, Director of the Division of Agriculture, and football coach. His Ph.D. dissertation was "The Establishment of Negro Young Men in Farming: A Study of Opportunities and Qualifications of Negro Young Men for Becoming Established in Farming in Western Tennessee." In 1951 the Chicago Defender placed his name on their honor roll.\(^\text{11}\)

(6) William Sylvester Edmonds, dean of Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, was born in Newport News, Virginia on July 22, 1919. He is the recipient of the following degrees: a B.S. from Hampton Institute in 1939, a M.S. from Virginia State College in 1942, a M.A. from Columbia University in 1947, and an Ed.D. from Columbia University in 1953.\(^\text{12}\)

Edmonds has had experience as a counselor of boys, a supervisor of guidance, a junior high school teacher of occupational information and guidance, and a counselor for the Domestic Relations Court of Newport News, Virginia. From 1949 to 1951 he was the Dean of Students at Jackson State College. During the period of 1953 to 1958 he was the chairman of the Division of Teacher Education at Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, and he was the Director of Graduate Study at the same college from 1958 to 1960. In 1962 he was a professor in the Psychology Department at Virginia

\(^{12}\)ibid., p. 145.
State College.

His Ed.D. dissertation was "A Study of the Technological Curricula of the Separate Southern Land-Grant Colleges, 1941-51: Implications for Administrators and Guidance Counselors in Separate Secondary Schools and Colleges." Dr. Edmonds has co-authored the book, *Test Performance of Seniors in Non-Accredited High Schools as a Measure of College Success* which was released in 1957.

(7) Henry Manning Efferson, who has been dean of Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University since 1957, was born in Statesburg, South Carolina on March 27, 1897. He received degrees from the following institutions: an A.B. from Atlanta University in 1922, a L.L.D. from Edward Waters College in 1923, and a M.A. from Columbia University in 1928. He headed the Mathematics Departments at Snow Hill Institute, Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, and Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University. Additional positions that he has held at Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University are: Director of the Summer School, Dean of the Arts and Sciences Division, administrative assistant, and acting president.

(8) William Henri Hale, who has been the president of Langston University since 1960, was born in Krebs, Oklahoma on August 8,

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1914. His collegiate degrees are the following: a B.S. from Langston University in 1940, a M.A. from the University of Wisconsin in 1941, and a Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1949. Prior to his coming to Langston, Hale held a professorship for twelve years at Clark College of Atlanta, Georgia. He is a member of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. In 1954 he wrote, They Also Serve: An Analysis of Five Atlanta Institutions.16

(9) Jerome Hartwell Holland, who has been president of Hampton Institute since 1960, was born in Auburn, New York on January 9, 1916. He has been awarded the following degrees: a B.S. from Cornell University in 1939, a M.S. from Cornell University in 1941, and a Ph.D. from the University of Pennsylvania in 1950. Holland has been employed in these positions: instructor at Lincoln University of Pennsylvania from 1939 to 1942, director of personnel for Number 4 Yard of the Sun Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Company of Chester, Pennsylvania from 1942 to 1946, football coach at Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial University, research consultant with Pew Memorial Foundation of Pennsylvania from 1951 to 1953, and president of Delaware State College from 1953 to 1960.17

Dr. Holland has authored the following works: A Sociological Analysis of the Situational Complex Confronting the State of Dela-

16 Ibid., p. 204.
17 Ibid., p. 236.

Both collegiate and sports awards have been bestowed upon Holland. Sports Illustrated presented their Silver Anniversary Award to him. Additional sporting world recognition was accorded to him when he was inducted into the Football Hall of Fame. On the collegiate level he received Cheyney State College's Sixth Annual Human Relations Award. ¹⁹

(10) John Mercer Langston, who served Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute as its first president from 1886 to 1887, was born in Louisa, Virginia on December 14, 1829. Langston had formerly been the vice-president of Howard University, and he had represented our country as the United States Minister to Haiti. He left the college in December, 1887 to be seated in the United States House of Representatives for the Fourth District of Virginia. John

¹⁸ Ibid.
¹⁹ Ibid.
Langston died in Washington, D.C. on November 15, 1897.  

(11) Thomas Ezekiel Miller, who was appointed to the first presidency of State Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College of South Carolina in 1896, was born in Ferrebeville, South Carolina on June 17, 1849. He headed the college from its opening on September 27, 1896 until 1911. Prior to his coming to this institution Miller had distinguished himself as a member of the United States House of Representatives with the Forty-Ninth Congress of 1889 to 1891. He died in Charleston, South Carolina on April 8, 1938.  

(12) Richard David Morrison, who has been the president of Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College since 1962, was born in Utica, Mississippi on January 18, 1910. His degrees have been awarded to him from the following institutions: a B.S. from Tuskegee Institute in 1931, a M.Ed. from Cornell University in 1941, and a Ph.D. from Michigan State University in 1954. He was employed as the manager of the Scales Enterprises in Winston-Salem, North Carolina during 1931 to 1932. From 1932 to 1937 he was a teacher of vocational agriculture for the Talladega County Training School of Alabama. After this he served Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College as Director of Agriculture until he assumed the presidency at Virginia State College.

21 South Carolina State College Catalogue, p. 23.
in 1962.22

Morrison has been a member of the following state and federal groups: Alabama Resource Development Committee, United States Department of Agriculture Advisory Committee on Cotton, Joint Committee of the United States Department of Agriculture and State Universities on Education for Government Service, and the Army Advisory Committee. His agriculturally orientated Ph.D. dissertation was titled, "Occupational Opportunities in Agriculture and Related Fields and Their Implications for Agricultural Education of Negro Students."23

(13) James Madison Nabrit, Jr., who has been the president of Howard University since July 1, 1960, was born on September 4, 1900 in Atlanta, Georgia. His leadership for over two decades in the Negro legal struggle for rights was peaked with success in the 1954 Supreme Court decision against public school segregation because it was he who was instrumental in gaining this ruling. Nabrit began representing civil rights cases when he was practicing law in Houston, Texas from 1930 to 1936. During this time he went to court with many cases regarding the right to vote in primary elections, and he was credited with abolishing the Texas white primary elections.24

23Ibid.
Nabrit received his B.A. degree in 1923 from Morehouse College in Atlanta, and then in 1927 he earned his J.D. degree at Northwestern University of Evanston, Illinois. While he was a graduate student he taught at Leland College in Louisiana from 1925 to 1927. Then during 1928 to 1930 he held the position of dean at Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College of Arkansas. After being in private practice in Houston, Texas from 1930 to 1936 he returned to academic life in 1937 at Howard University as an associate professor. In his further service to Howard University he has been employed in the following positions: administrative assistant to the president from 1938 to 1939, secretary of the university from 1939 to 1960, and president from 1960 to the present time.\textsuperscript{25}

During Nabrit's long career at Howard he taught the first civil rights course that was ever offered in a law school in the United States. He had collected in excess of two thousand cases for this course, and these cases became the foundations for the theories that were later used in the arguments presented in the United States Supreme Court. The case,\textit{Bolling v. Sharpe}, involving segregation in the public schools of the District of Columbia, undoubtedly was his most important legal victory. This case, which was heard by the Supreme Court, was one of the cases that led to the May 17, 1954 decision which held that segregation in the public

\textsuperscript{25}\textit{Ibid.}
schools was unconstitutional. 26

Most of the important civil rights cases of the period between 1945 and 1960 were either briefed by or participated in by James Nabrit, Jr. He worked on the following outstanding cases: Nixon v. Herndon; Lance v. Wilson, regarding voters' registration procedures in Oklahoma; Elmer v. Rice, concerning Negroes being excluded from voting in South Carolina; and cases regarding the restrictive covenant. He further helped in the process of bringing about desegregation in the universities of Oklahoma, Maryland, and Texas. 27

In his long career as an attorney, Nabrit has acted as counsel for the Safety Investment Company, the Informer Publishing Company, the Colored Trainmen of America, and the National Association of Colored Women. He has been an associate counsel for the Watchtower Life Insurance Company, and he has been a member of the national legal committee of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People for many years. 28

Dr. Nabrit has compiled an outstanding record of governmental service. In 1959 and 1960 he was the adviser to the United States delegation to the Forty-Third and Forty-Fourth International Labor Conferences in Geneva, Switzerland. From 1954 to 1961 he was a

26 Ibid.
27 Ibid.
28 Ibid., p. 336.
member of the United States Government Contract Committee, and in 1965 and 1966 he was a United States Deputy Representative in the Security Council of the United Nations. He was a legal adviser to the governor of the Virgin Islands. In 1960 Federal Commissioner of Education, Lawrence Derthick, had appointed him to an advisory committee that was organized to develop a guidance and counseling institute program.29

In the past Nabrit has delivered major papers on civil rights, and he has been an active participant in many conferences on rights. He has written articles and notes for the following publications: the International Juridical Law Bulletin, the Illinois Law Review, the Inventory of Research in Racial and Cultural Relations, the Journal of Negro Education, the Journal of Religious Thought, and the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

(14) Hiram Rhodes Revels, who was the first president of Alcorn University in 1871, was born in Fayetteville, North Carolina on September 27, 1827. He had attended Knox College in Nashville, Tennessee. The African Methodist Church ordained him to the ministry in 1854, and from 1854 to 1861 he was an itinerant preacher who served Negroes in Indiana, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Missouri, and Tennessee. He became the pastor of the Negro Methodist Church of Baltimore in 1861, and in this same year he was also responsible

30Moritz, XXII, p. 336.
for organizing the United States Army Second Volunteer Negro Regiment from Maryland. Then during 1863 and 1864 he established a school for the benefit of freedmen in St. Louis, and in these two years he also started churches in Kansas, Mississippi, and Kentucky. 31

Revels finally made his residence in Natchez, Mississippi in 1866, and in 1868 he became affiliated with the Methodist Episcopal Church. During this same year he represented Natchez as an alderman, and he was the Adams County senator in the Mississippi Senate in 1869. His political career reached its peak when he became a member of the United States Senate, and he served the Senate from January, 1870 to March 4, 1871. He resigned on the latter date to become the president of Alcorn University. Hiram Revels died on January 16, 1901 in Aberdeen, Mississippi. 32

(15) Scoovel Richardson, who was appointed to a judge's position in the United States Customs Court for the State of New York, was born on February 4, 1924 in Nashville, Tennessee. He received both his B.A. and M.A. degrees from the University of Illinois, and then in 1937 he earned his L.L.B. degree from Howard University of Washington, D.C. 33

Richardson served Lincoln University of Missouri from 1939 to 1942 and from 1944 to 1953. At the university he taught and held the post of dean, and he had only spent two years in outside employment since he had received his law degree from Howard. In 1938 he practiced law in Chicago, and in 1943 he worked for the Office of Price Administration in the capacity of a senior attorney. Then in 1953 he gave up his position as dean of the Law School of Lincoln in order to be appointed to the United States Board of Parole by President Dwight D. Eisenhower, and during the next year he became chairman of this board.34

(16) Hugh H. Smythe, who has been the United States Ambassador to Syria since 1965, was born in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania in 1914. He received his B.A. and M.A. degrees from Virginia State, and Northwestern University awarded a Ph.D. degree to him.35

Smythe has been employed in many other governmental posts. He had been a research consultant in the State Department, a special adviser for the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, and a delegate to the Sixteenth United States General Assembly. He lectured for the State Department from 1961 to 1963 at its Foreign Service Institute. During 1962 and 1963 he trained volunteers for the Peace Corps, and he acted as the United States adviser to the National

34 Ibid.
Research Council of Thailand. 36

(17) Hobart Taylor, Jr., was born in Texarkana, Texas. He was graduated from Prairie View College with a B.A. degree, a M.A. degree from Howard University, and a L.L.B. degree from the University of Michigan. Early in his career he was a research assistant for the Chief Justice of Michigan’s Supreme Court. 37

He has been the director of the Export-Import Bank since 1965. Taylor had previously served Lyndon B. Johnson as an associate special counsel, and he had also been the executive vice chairman of the President’s Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity. 38

(18) Carter G. Woodson was born in New Canton, Virginia on December 19, 1875. He was educated at Berea College, the University of Chicago, and the Sorbonne in Paris. Woodson taught elementary and high school, and he had been the dean of the School of Liberal Arts at Howard University. 39

He established the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, and he started the Journal of Negro History. For many years Woodson edited this publication. He was considered the chief American Negro historian for a great number of years. 40

36 Ibid.
37 Ibid.
38 Ibid.
39 Ibid., pp. 696, 698.
40 Ibid.
Carter Woodson wished to write Negro books, but he could not find a publisher that would market them. At this time Negro texts were not produced by most commercial publishers. In order to produce textbooks and other materials he founded Associated Publishers in 1921. During his active career he had also served as dean of West Virginia State College.

In 1922 he left academic life to devote all of his time to writing. At this date he was the editor of the Journal of Negro History and the director of the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. In 1926 he introduced Negro History Week in Washington, D.C.

Woodson was an excellent researcher, editor, and historian. Four of his notable works are: The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861, A Century of Negro Migration, The Negro in Our History, and The Rural Negro. He was an active writer until his death on April 3, 1950.

Summary

When tracing the lives of the men presented in this section it may be concluded that the Negro land-grant colleges did produce an outstanding group of men. These personages were well diversified,

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^41 Ibid.
^42 Ibid.
^43 Ibid.
and congressmen, government officials, lawyers, professional men, writers, and college administrators were represented. A list like this shows that these institutions do produce outstanding individuals. The majority of these men not only graduated from these, colleges, but they also worked for them.

The three congressmen that served these colleges were Hiram Revels, Thomas Ezekiel Miller, and John Mercer Langston. The two noteworthy scholars and writers were Horace Mann Bond and Carter G. Woodson. James Madison Nabrit should be emphasized because of his great works in law and civil rights. Furthermore, it should be noted that almost all the men in the group had done some significant educational writing. A sizeable number of these men had also written about and had analyzed problems that were relative to Negroes and the educational institutions that they attended. Truly these men have all been great leaders and outstanding individuals.

It is to be noted that a significant number of these men had served as college presidents for lengthy terms of office. Therefore, their influences on policies, planning, and expansion programs have undoubtedly been reflected in the progress of these institutions. Other chapters of this study indicate that an unusually high percentage of Negro land-grant college students are pursuing college programs in education, and sixteen of the eighteen individuals investigated in this chapter had served as college administrators. This suggests that graduates of these colleges who earn advanced degrees will have excellent opportunities to become
educational leaders and administrators in predominantly Negro collegiate institutions just as these outstanding individuals had done in the past.

In making a career analysis the men studied fell into one or more of the following professional classifications: 1) educator, 2) lawyer or judge, 3) educational administrator, 4) educational writer, and 5) government official. Four of these five professional categories directly involve employment related to public service. Certainly these men are following the land-grant tradition of providing service to the public. Eighteen of these men had earned doctorate degrees in the fields of education, philosophy, and law. The Doctor of Education and the Doctor of Philosophy degrees were almost evenly chosen by these individuals, and they were by far the two most popular degrees for this group.
CHAPTER V

THE EXPANSION AND RAPID GROWTH OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES: 1931-1964

It was related in Chapters II and III that the period of time up to 1930 was an era of foundation and slow growth for the Negro land-grant colleges. An important reason for this slow development was the low educational attainment level of the Negro in the Southern states up to this time. The 1929-1930 school year was the first time that the number of college students exceeded the number of high school students enrolled in the Negro land-grant colleges. It was noted that up to this date these institutions had been operating primarily as elementary and high schools for Negroes. Secondly, the colleges were unable to perform as true land-grant colleges because they were not concentrating enough on the intended mechanical arts, agricultural, home economics, and military courses.

Expansion of these institutions took place more rapidly after 1930 when the components of the Negro land-grant group began to function as colleges more fully because they were needed to provide collegiate training for the increased Southern Negro enrollment. This was a consequence of the fact that many Negroes in the South had no other institutions that could offer them a low cost education. Therefore, the Negro land-grant colleges had to expand more
rapidly because of the demands put upon them.

State governments provided increased funds for the support of the Negro land-grant colleges after 1930 as the college enrollments increased. The states did not necessarily increase their support of these Negro institutions on a par level with the white institutions, but the increased state support did allow the colleges to expand physically and to eliminate many of their deficiencies. Many states, for example, allocated monies to bring sub-standard Negro land-grant college libraries up to the minimum levels of state or association certification. Actually these seventeen states had to fulfill their obligations incurred under the Morrill Act of 1890, and of course they had to make additional efforts to meet the pressures for state-supported Negro higher education. In the latter case the Negro land-grant institution often proved to be one solution to the problem.

Often factors that affected these colleges after 1930 were similar to those that had affected these institutions prior to 1930. The nature of these similar factors usually were those circumstances that resulted from the effects of important economic, social, or political conditions or events. Furthermore, significant new factors certainly had arisen. One rather recent notable new factor was the 1954 Supreme Court decision ruling against public school segregation.

The serious effects of the dual system of education of the South cannot be forgotten when one is studying the Negro land-grant
colleges. From their beginnings these institutions have been handicapped by the effects of this segregated education. Most of our Negro land-grant colleges virtually opened as elementary schools. When this period passed they performed the high school function for their students, and finally in 1930 they seriously entered the college field. This is one of the reasons why these colleges were so far behind the white land-grant colleges as this time period begins.

Conditions Relative to the Development of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges from 1931 to 1948

The Federal Farm Board was set up when Congress had passed the Agricultural Marketing Act in 1929. This was the federal government's first large scale attempt at dealing with farm prices. When the depression of the thirties arrived farm prices dropped to record lows, and this act was found to be inadequate.\(^1\)

An important federal program, the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933, was formulated to help stabilize farm conditions. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration used the Extension Service to acquaint the farmers with the need for the program and the program's basic philosophy. Then in 1933 the program was directed and administered in the states by the land-grant institutions.\(^2\)

\(^1\)Eddy, Jr., p. 184.

\(^2\)Ibid., pp. 186-187.
Many of the New Deal agencies began formulating policies and taking over the work delegated to the land-grant colleges. In 1936 the extension service of the colleges was working co-operatively with the Soil Conservation Service, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, the Farm Credit Administration, the Rural Housing Administration, the Rural Electrification Administration, and the Rural Rehabilitation and Resettlement Administration. The land-grant college authorities became concerned as these agencies began going directly into the states. This conflict of interests prompted the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities to establish committees which studied these relationships for the next two years. Finally on July 7, 1938 the land-grant institutional representatives and those of the Department met at Mount Weather to discuss their differences. It was agreed that the colleges would provide leadership in developing agricultural programs on the community level through their extension services. A system of state and local land-use planning was initiated to co-ordinate the public assistance to the farmers. The director of extension for the state was delegated to be the chairman of the State Land-Use Planning Committee. This program terminated shortly because Congress eliminated the governmental funds a few years later.3

Home economics extension adjusted quickly to meet depression needs. It was reported that within the period of 1933 to 1934 there

3Ibid., pp. 188-190.
was a thirty-seven percent increase in the farm families visited or reached by this service group. The agents were well received in the rural community, and their programs helped to relieve the financially depressed people. Home economics departments in the colleges developed practical programs of study, and enrollments in the home economics courses in the Negro land-grant colleges increased slightly between 1934 and 1940.  

The Negro land-grant colleges lagged far behind the white land-grant institutions in the development of courses in agriculture, home economics, and military training prior to World War II. Of course World War II brought increased military training to these Negro colleges. Then in the period directly following the war home economics graduates were in demand because of the increased interest in child development and nutrition.  

Table V on page 123 shows the property values and the receipts of the Negro land-grant colleges for the 1936-1937 year. The property values and the receipts are generally low, and they indicate the effects of the depression. Princess Anne had the lowest property valuation of $57,877, and Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers' College had the highest valuation of $1,687,610. Princess Anne had the lowest receipts of $33,247, and Virginia State had the highest receipts of $676,025.

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5Ibid., p. 262.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Value of Property</th>
<th>Total Receipts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural &amp; Mechanical Normal College</td>
<td>$167,883</td>
<td>$281,359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware State College for Colored Students</td>
<td>458,049</td>
<td>99,090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fla. Agri. &amp; Mechanical College</td>
<td>1,032,850</td>
<td>387,475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga. State Colored Industrial College</td>
<td>552,000</td>
<td>146,536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky State Industrial College</td>
<td>552,175</td>
<td>151,296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Univ. &amp; Agri. &amp; Mech. College</td>
<td>638,767</td>
<td>202,458</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alcorn Agri. &amp; Mech. College</td>
<td>568,950</td>
<td>183,945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>761,710</td>
<td>401,183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro Agri. &amp; Tech. College</td>
<td>627,493</td>
<td>153,497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina College for Negroes</td>
<td>491,392</td>
<td>72,235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored Agri. &amp; Normal University</td>
<td>616,553</td>
<td>182,529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenn. Agri. &amp; Indus. State Teachers' College</td>
<td>1,687,610</td>
<td>410,088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View State College</td>
<td>1,204,902</td>
<td>462,001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia State College</td>
<td>1,117,180</td>
<td>676,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia State College</td>
<td>1,087,596</td>
<td>295,115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne College</td>
<td>57,877</td>
<td>33,247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$12,307,157</strong></td>
<td><strong>$4,307,008</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Bankhead-Jones Act of June 29, 1935 was an important piece of federal legislation relating to the land-grant colleges. This act provided for agricultural research, greater development of agricultural extension work, and fuller support and endowment of the land-grant colleges. The act was amended on June 12, 1952, and it was recorded as Public Law 390 of the 82nd Congress. It was amended again on July 14, 1960, and it was recorded as Public Law 86-658 of the 86th Congress. During this same period of investigation Public Law 422 was passed, and this law was referred to as the Retirement Act of March 4, 1940. Retirement provisions for the land-grant college employees are enumerated in this legislative act.6

Inequalities in the distribution of funds may be illustrated by the following example. The Negro land-grant colleges received $4,400,000 from all sources of appropriated funds in 1935-1936 while the total amount appropriated to both white and Negro land-grant colleges in these seventeen Southern states was $55,000,000. This meant that the white institutions received ninety-two percent of the funds while the Negro institutions received only eight percent of the funds. Each white land-grant college averaged nearly $3,000,000 while each Negro land-grant college averaged slightly in excess of $260,000.7


7Dorey A. Wilkerson, Special Problems of Negro Education (Washington, 1939), pp. 72, 76.
Vocational and industrial demands were placed upon the Negro land-grant colleges as a result of World War II. All of the land-grant colleges responded during this time and the post-war years. The facilities of these colleges were urgently needed to train professional, scientific, research, and technical personnel. This trying period brought challenges to these Negro institutions that they never had experienced before, and it stimulated many of their programs of study.8

Table VI, on page 127, illustrates the fall, 1947-1948 enrollment of the Negro land-grant colleges. In addition to this the veterans' enrollment and the amount of plant funds is shown. Princess Anne College had the lowest enrollment of 194 students while Agricultural and Technical College had the largest enrollment of 2,748 students. Two colleges had exceeded an enrollment figure of 2,000 students, and four more had exceeded the 1,500 mark. Only five colleges had enrollments of less than 800 students each. Agricultural and Technical College also had the highest veterans' enrollment figure of 1,636 veterans in attendance while Princess Anne had the lowest veterans' enrollment figure of 57 veterans in attendance. Veterans' enrollments in these colleges ranged from approximately twenty-three percent to slightly more than seventy percent of the total enrollments; therefore, veterans constituted a significant part of the college population of the Negro land-grant institutions.

8Eddy, Jr., pp. 201, 262.
during this period. Plant funds were listed for 1945, and it is to be noted that Agricultural and Technical College, Lincoln University, and Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College had not reported their data in this category for the year. There was a great range in plant funds just as there had been in enrollments. Virginia State College had the largest amount of plant funds with $2,631,950. West Virginia State College was second with plant funds of $2,033,294, and Prairie View University was third with plant funds of $1,963,646. Princess Anne College was statistically lowest in plant funds with $501,551.

When analyzing Table VI it is significant to note the large number of veterans enrolled in the Negro land-grant colleges. This trend for these seventeen Southern institutions was similar to the general nationwide trend. Negro veterans sought opportunities to improve themselves after the war just as the white veterans did. It is reasonable to assume that the Negro veterans sought low cost educations at these Negro land-grant institutions, and undoubtedly many of them wished to be educated in their own states or areas of residence. Numerous discharged servicemen and servicewomen were interested in learning technical or vocational skills, and these colleges provided opportunities for them. Furthermore, if these Negroes wanted to get a higher education in any one of the Southern states they had only the choice of attending private Negro colleges, state Negro colleges, or Negro land-grant colleges because of the fact that segregation still existed in the South.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Total Fall 1947-48</th>
<th>Total Veterans Fall 1947-48</th>
<th>Plant Funds 1945</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State Agricultural &amp; Mech. Inst.</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>$839,164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural, Mech. &amp; Normal Col.</td>
<td>825</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>890,521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware State College</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>549,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida Agricultural &amp; Mech. Col.</td>
<td>1,653</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>1,531,671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Valley State College</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>420,314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky State College</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>1,073,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Univ. &amp; Agri. &amp; Mech. Col.</td>
<td>1,721</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>1,583,903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne College</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>501,551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn Agricultural &amp; Mech. Col.</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>692,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>988</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural &amp; Technical College</td>
<td>2,748</td>
<td>1,636</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Langston University</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>1,168,434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural &amp; Mech.</td>
<td>1,342</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>1,349,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee Agri. &amp; Industrial State Col.</td>
<td>2,204</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View University</td>
<td>1,839</td>
<td>687</td>
<td>1,963,646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia State College</td>
<td>1,918</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>2,631,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia State College</td>
<td>1,083</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>2,033,294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20,234</strong></td>
<td><strong>8,183</strong></td>
<td><strong>$17,228,167</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conditions Relative to the Development of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges from 1949 to 1964

The offerings of the Negro land-grant colleges were greatly enlarged by 1950, and the courses and the fields of study have been improving and expanding continuously from 1950 to the present time. Courses in agriculture, engineering, and home economics have both increased and improved. These colleges had a strong desire to upgrade their educational systems, and they were trying to elevate their standards to the level of the white institutions. Basically the Negro land-grant colleges were striving in the early 1950's to bring educational equality into their separate but equal school system.9

With the most difficult years behind them this group of colleges began to gain recognition. This was indicated when they were invited, as the result of a unanimous vote, to join the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities in 1954, and by November, 1955 all of the Negro institutions had joined this association. After joining the new organization the seventeen Negro colleges terminated their own association, the Conference of Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges, on December 31, 1955.10

9Ibid., pp. 262-265.

Segregation had been practiced in the South under the "separate but equal" concept which the courts had upheld. Then in 1954 the United States Supreme Court ruled against public school segregation. The two famous school cases were Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 347 U.S. 483 (1954), and Bolling v. Sharpe, 347 U.S. 497 (1954). Integration was not being carried out effectively in many areas, and there was no real force toward action until Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1957. This act was the first strong piece of civil rights legislation since the days of Reconstruction.11

Integration has had several effects upon the Negro land-grant colleges. It has stimulated these institutions to compete with the white institutions, and this factor has strengthened the programs of many of these Negro colleges. In some instances it has allowed colleges to drop duplicate programs. Lincoln University was able to discontinue its Schools of Law and Journalism because Negroes in Missouri were no longer forced to depend on Lincoln exclusively for educational offerings in these two fields.12 Relatively few white students are attending the Negro land-grant colleges, and therefore, the racial composition of these schools is still unappreciably affected. The majority of the white students who do attend these colleges are enrolled in the graduate schools.

12 Lincoln University Bulletin, p. 28.
Three acts that related directly to the land-grant colleges were amended during this period. The first act, the Bankhead-Jones Act, which was discussed in the prior section was amended in June, 1952 and again on July 14, 1960. The second act, the Hatch Act of 1887, was amended in 1955; this amendment was made in order to consolidate the federal laws that were enacted for the purpose of appropriating federal-grant funds to support the agricultural experiment stations. The third act, the Smith-Lever Act, was amended by the act of August 11, 1955 (U.S.C. 347a). Home economics and agricultural extension programs in co-operation with the land-grant colleges were provided for by the terms of this latter act.¹³

One of the criticisms of the Negro land-grant colleges is that they are largely engaged in teacher training, and therefore the major function of these institutions is in contrast to that of the other land-grant colleges. Here the Negro land-grant colleges must be defended because they were forced to excel in this field by necessity. While the private Negro colleges placed an emphasis on liberal arts training the Negro land-grant institutions filled the needs in the agricultural, vocational, and teaching fields. Actually this collegiate group has contributed much to the nation by supplying a great number of Negro elementary and secondary teachers.¹⁴

¹³Brunner, pp. 65, 70-71.

¹⁴Eddy, Jr., pp. 261-262.
Diversified financial support is one of the major problems of the Negro land-grant colleges. In 1957 only twenty-three of all of the land-grant institutions had current-fund incomes of less than $5,000,000, and seventeen of these institutions were the Negro members. This group received 65.2 percent of its income from state sources. The rest of its income came from the following sources: federal funds (12.0 percent), private grants and gifts (1.0 percent), and income from sales and activities (4.1 percent).15

The total number of Negro land-grant colleges was reduced to sixteen institutions on March 4, 1957 when the West Virginia Legislature discontinued West Virginia State College as a separate land-grant institution. The college had given its full co-operation and approval to this action. Its share of the endowment and other benefits were transferred to West Virginia University. Additional state appropriations compensated for the loss in other revenues. Mr. Russell Thackrey stated, "My impression is that West Virginia State wished to be relieved of the responsibility of maintaining programs required by the Act, and felt that (a) such programs were fully accessible to Negro students at West Virginia University and (b) its own resources could better be devoted to other areas."16


16Information in a letter to the author from Russell I. Thackrey, Executive Director, National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, October 6, 1966.
On the negative side these colleges were still unable financially to do significant research. The June 30, 1960 scope of operations statistics for the land-grant colleges show that eleven of the sixteen Negro land-grant institutions did not make any expenditures for organized research. The five institutions that expended funds for this purpose were: Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College ($64,233), Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina ($30,557), Fort Valley State College ($10,232), Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College ($7,534), and Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College ($2,322). In comparing Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College with Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College one can see the disparity in research expenditures between Negro and white land-grant institutions in the same state. Louisiana State expended $5,347,947 in contrast to $64,233 expended by Southern University.17

The enrollments of the Negro land-grant colleges have increased quite rapidly from 1954 to 1964. Lincoln University may be used as an example with its enrollment doubling in this ten year period.18 The plants of these Negro institutions have increased greatly both in size and value. Southern University may be used as

18 Lincoln University Bulletin, p. 28.
an example of one of the larger Negro land-grant colleges. It had a plant that was valued at approximately $45,000,000 in 1964, and it had twenty-eight buildings that were used exclusively for instructional purposes at that time.\footnote{19}{Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College Catalog, p. 35.}

Table VII, on page 134, reflects the enrollment figures for the Negro land-grant institutions for the 1963-1964 year. The total enrollment had reached 35,793 students which may be compared to the 1947-1948 enrollment of 20,234 students which was presented in Table VI. This indicates a total growth of 56.9 percent between the years of 1948 and 1964. The enrollment data again showed a wide range running from the highest to the lowest enrollment figures. Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College had the highest enrollment with 5,703 students. Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial College was second with 4,200 students, and Virginia State College was third with 3,884 students enrolled. Maryland State College had the lowest enrollment with 542 students. Delaware State College had the second lowest enrollment with 563 students in attendance. Eight colleges or fifty percent of the group had enrollments above the two thousand mark, and only four colleges had less than one thousand students enrolled in their institutions. All of the Negro land-grant colleges were accredited in 1964, and ten of these colleges conferred master's degrees.
TABLE VII

ENROLLMENT OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES: 1963-1964

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama Agri. &amp; Mech. Col.</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>1,104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas Mech. &amp; Normal Col.</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>2,242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware State College</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida Agri. &amp; Mech. University</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>3,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Valley State College</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>1,034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky State College</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Univ. Agri. &amp; Mech.</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>5,703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland State College</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn Agri. &amp; Mech. College</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>1,423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>1,483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agri. Tech. Col. of North Carolina</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>2,940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Langston University</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina State College</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>2,519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee Agri. &amp; Indus. State Univ.</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>4,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View Agri. &amp; Mech. Col.</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>3,418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia State College</td>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>3,884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adapted from McGrath, pp. 172-177.
Summary

Prior to 1930 the Negro land-grant colleges functioned primarily as elementary and secondary schools. As these institutions became colleges in the true sense they experienced constant growth in the period from 1931 to 1948.

Economic factors retarded and hastened their growth during these years. Agricultural conditions and the depression were impediments to their expansion.

World War II stimulated these colleges to provide enlarged offerings in agriculture, home economics, mechanics, and professional training. The years directly following the war brought a large number of veterans to these schools, and of course the enrollments rose significantly. With an increased enrollment these colleges expanded physically and academically.

By 1950 the offerings of the Negro land-grant colleges were greatly enlarged, and courses in agriculture, engineering, and home economics were both increased and expanded. These institutions were striving to up-grade their institutional standards.

Segregation was declared unconstitutional in 1954. Integration did not have a marked effect upon the racial compositions of these schools up to the end of this study in 1964. In another way integration stimulated the Negro population to choose higher education, and this in turn placed a further demand on the Negro land-grant colleges.
These institutions grew rapidly from 1948 to 1964. During this time period their total enrollment had increased 56.9 percent.

The Negro land-grant colleges face several problems. First, they receive the greater portion of their support from their state governments, and therefore they do not have diversified incomes. Second, they have not received enough funds to do appreciable organized research. Third, the majority of their students are enrolled in teacher training programs instead of being normally distributed into other scientific and professional fields.

Negro land-grant colleges have made fine contributions to society. They are to be credited with the following accomplishments in this period: (1) provided a land-grant college education for Negroes, (2) provided extension services in home economics and agriculture which were extremely beneficial to the Southern community, (3) provided necessary vocational and mechanical skills to Negroes that improved their wage earning powers, (5) provided for a changing and expanding curriculum in land-grant education, (6) provided educational benefits to both urban and rural Negroes, (7) trained a high percentage of the Negroes that are teaching on the elementary and secondary levels, and (8) carried on with the basic Negro land-grant college philosophy of providing for the educational needs of the Negro community with the ultimate goal of benefiting society.
CHAPTER VI

PROJECTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The interviews that were conducted with five Negro land-grant college administrators presented some of their views on development, progress, current conditions, and problems that they felt to be highly significant. The viewpoints and the personal observations of these men were very constructive to one surveying these institutions because they were able to present ideas and to answer questions that the interviewer had been searching for in other areas of investigation. Therefore, their administrative experiences and their insights into the relationships of these colleges were vital for making projections into the future for these institutions.

Interviews with Negro Land-Grant College Administrators

An Interview with Dr. Carl M. Hill, President of Kentucky State College

At the college in Frankfort, Kentucky on August 21, 1967 Dr. Hill stated that one of the challenges of these institutions was to improve the quality of education offered. He emphasized that both the Negro and the white land-grant college must strive to present equal educational opportunities if the two are to remain in exist-
ence. In agricultural experiment stations there has been relatively no effort made to provide funds for the Negro institutions to duplicate the services of the white institutions. In 1967 a special federal grant was made to these Negro land-grant colleges to fund some research. Approximately $283,000 was granted to these sixteen colleges. This allotment of funds was not an equitable share of the funds distributed for research, but Dr. Hill felt that it was a notable beginning in providing federal funds for research in agriculture and home economics in these colleges.

He noted that the number of students enrolled in agriculture has been continuously dropping in all of these institutions. Kentucky State College has no program in agriculture, but it does offer programs in home economics and mechanic arts.

President Hill related that his college expects to keep up with the projected enrollments of the future. The enrollment in 1963 was approximately 700 students, and in 1966 it had increased to 1,540 students. His college had been able to meet the added needs for student housing and academic facilities. Even integration was found to be a partial source of increased enrollment because a number of white students have enrolled in Kentucky State College.

He believed that there had been no great changes in the philosophy of the Negro land-grant colleges. The traditional philosophy was still in existence. The open-door policy of admission was the only change that he had noted.
Research was limited by the amount of money in the operating budget that could be allocated for this purpose. Research could be increased and improved if one restriction in particular was removed. This was the restriction that provided that money could not be used from the operating budget to pay the salaries or the parts of the salaries of the professors who were released from teaching duties to perform research. It would be extremely beneficial to remove this restriction.

Dr. Hill pointed out that the ability to obtain adequate support was still one of the major problems of these institutions. His college received about eighty percent of its operating budget from the state. The federal government contributed approximately two percent, and student fees provided funds for the remainder of the operating budget. In this area federal funds would be very useful. The federal grants and loans that have been made available to the colleges for the purpose of providing housing facilities and academic buildings have been invaluable to the expansion programs of the colleges. In Kentucky seventy percent of the college students attend school at state colleges; therefore, these institutions must be adequately supported in order to meet the major challenge of providing quality education.

In some instances it may be advisable for some of the Negro land-grant colleges to discontinue the unnecessary duplication of services. He said that in cases where two of these colleges were in close proximity they could undertake co-operative programs that
would provide more efficient operations for both institutions involved. Programs of this nature could both cut costs and provide greater educational benefits.

An Interview with Dr. W. S. Davis, President of
Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University

Dr. Davis reported, in the interview that was conducted on August 22, 1967 in Nashville, Tennessee, that student housing can be a very serious matter for administrators who are facing the problem of increasing student enrollments. He stated that housing was not a problem at his university because enough loans had been available in the past to provide for these needs. The important factor to consider here is that the college officials must make accurate projections as to what their anticipated enrollments will be in a designated year, and then they must make the necessary provisions for this housing at the proper time. Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University has been fortunate in the past to have been allocated adequate state-funding to keep up with its housing needs. This is not necessarily true for all of the Negro land-grant colleges.

Integration has not had any appreciable effect on the racial composition of this institution at the present time. The basic composition is still predominantly Negro. In another way integration has been helpful to many of the colleges because it has provided increased educational benefits for Negro elementary and high school
youths. The general achievement levels of the Negro children have risen in many areas of the South in the past decade, and it has been felt that integration has been one of the influential factors; therefore, many of these Negro students are now better prepared for college entrance.

President Davis related that many of the colleges had difficulties in attracting and holding faculty members. The grant-in-aid program that was instituted in this university has encouraged many top level students to join the faculty. Under this program the university grants money to promising students who have obtained their masters' degrees to receive further advanced training at other universities. Programs of this nature should be researched by these colleges, and the most successful ones should be adopted.

Curricular offerings and services at the university have broadened and deepened in the tradition of the land-grant colleges. In the fields of agriculture and home economics the school has actually strengthened its position when one considers that its extension service programs are now serving more than ten thousand persons per year in the State of Tennessee. No major change can be noted in the philosophy of the institution.

A significant factor mentioned was that although the federal government now only contributed a minor share of the support of the Negro land-grant colleges, it certainly could provide important leadership for them. An example of this was in 1967 when the government granted funds to these institutions for research. Under
this grant Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University had received approximately twenty thousand dollars to be used for research. This noteworthy example of leadership had provided a historic beginning for the Negro land-grant colleges.

An Interview with Dr. Leon W. Bonner, Director of Graduate Studies at Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College

On August 23, 1967 in Normal, Alabama Dr. Bonner related that many of the Negro land-grant colleges had the common problem of incurring difficulty in recruiting new faculty members who were of the high quality that the colleges wished to employ. He emphasized that the top graduates of his institution were sought by many prestige institutions who were able to pay considerably higher salaries than his own college. It was his conviction that programs should be developed to attract these individuals, and programs such as sabbatical leaves, grants, fellowships, and opportunities for advanced study should be investigated.

A number of students were not accepted at his institution in the past year because the college did not have the facilities to handle them. A working plan to provide for the educational needs of these students or a plan to channel them to other institutions certainly should be devised. He believed that many of these applicants would not be able to attend another college solely because of financial reasons.
Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College had received a grant to study what the effects of an intensive training program upon one hundred incoming freshmen would be. Ten faculty members were assigned to this group on a full-time basis, and these instructors were available to supervise, tutor, and to help these students whenever it was necessary. These men had the further responsibility of keeping a constant check on their students' progress, and they were to attempt to institute corrective measures whenever weaknesses were noted. It was the purpose of this investigation to determine what effects this type of program would have on the achievements of the students involved. Dr. Bonner stated that much research on all levels of Negro education is needed in order to find ways to close the gap that exists between the achievement levels of Negro and white students. This study possibly could supply some suggested measures for improvement.

An Interview with Dr. Waldo W. E. Blanchet, President of Fort Valley State College

On the campus in Fort Valley, Georgia on August 24, 1967 Dr. Blanchet noted that traditionally the land-grant colleges have emphasized instruction, research, and service. This basic philosophy remains virtually unchanged. Within certain areas of the curriculum changes are being made. In the area of agriculture the emphasis is changing from production to primarily research. This is the nature of the changes that are being made at the present time.
In 1967 the federal government made special grants to the Negro land-grant colleges for the purposes of conducting research. Under this grant Fort Valley State College received approximately eighteen thousand dollars, and with these funds the college is pursuing a project on human nutrition which involves both the areas of agriculture and home economics. Dr. Blanchet related that this special federal grant which was made to the Negro land-grant colleges for research was certainly both justified and appropriate. At this time this group of institutions needs funds to carry on research in order that they will be able to contribute more to the fields of research and experimentation in the future.

He stated that his college had been able to keep up with the increasing enrollments. It was pointed out that Georgia was developing a comprehensive junior college system which would operate on a state-wide basis, and this system would help to provide for the increasing collegiate enrollment in the future. The enrollment at his college was projected to reach three thousand students by 1975, and this figure would reflect an increase in student population in excess of ninety percent of the current enrollment.

An Interview with Dr. B. L. Perry, Jr., Director of Research and Grants at Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University

At the university on August 25, 1967 Dr. Perry stated that his institution felt the need to make further provisions for
remedial training. A proposal for a learning and developmental re-
source center for remedial services and counseling had been sub-
mitted prior to this interview. This center undoubtedly would re-
quire either federal or private funding. It would be an extremely
important factor in attacking the remedial areas of the deficient
students.

It was pointed out that desegregation had not affected the
racial composition of the student body to any significant extent.
About fifteen non-Negro faculty members have joined the university
staff since integration was adopted. Desegregation has caused fac-
ulty recruiting problems on the doctoral level because many Negro
professors on this level are now in demand by white colleges.

The university was happy to receive its first direct contribu-
tion for research from the federal government in 1967 which
amounted to approximately fifteen thousand dollars. This allocation
was felt to be a stimulus, and most of the institutions in this
group believe that they must expand more in the fields of research
and experimentation.

Twelve National Teacher Fellowships have been granted to the
university for the 1967-1968 year. The recipients of these fellow-
ships will serve as full-time teaching assistants, and they are
going to be used to relieve a number of professors from their as-
signments. These professors will use this released-time to evaluate
the programs in certain departments in an effort to revise and up-
grade some of the courses.
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University has been engaged in a building program, and the Graphic Arts Building has just been completed. Federal funds and state funds were used in the current project. Dr. Perry states that the university has projected its needs for science buildings in the future.

Projections

The enrollments in the majority of the Negro land-grant colleges should continue to increase significantly. Most of the student populations should approximately double by 1975. Several of these institutions have already turned away applicants in the past because they did not have the facilities to enroll them. With adequate expansion in the future they should be able to accept most of the qualified students who apply.

States undoubtedly will increase the amount of funds that they allocate to these institutions in the future in order to provide for physical expansion, advanced degree programs, and more services. These institutions are becoming more valuable to the states as time passes because most of these colleges are providing needed services to their states. It is indicated that most of the Negro land-grant colleges are reaching more people in their states through their extension services each year, and this trend is likely to continue.

In states where integration takes place fully the Negro and the white land-grant institutions have the possibility of merging
into one institution. In this case the Negro college would lose its designation as a separate land-grant college. In other cases the two colleges could still keep their own identities, but they could institute co-operative programs of study or research.

Negro land-grant institutions will be doing more research work, and the federal government will be funding a large portion of it. There is increased pressure being placed on the government to make research appropriations directly to the Negro land-grant colleges, and the federal government undoubtedly will exercise more leadership and control over appropriations for research.

In the coming years many of these colleges will enter into co-operative educational plans with both state and private institutions. This will be an efficient way of sharing the resources of two or more colleges. Furthermore, these plans will allow some colleges to drop certain programs and in turn specialize in others.

The federal government may increase its support to these institutions through additional legislation. Many building programs, service programs, and experimental programs in these colleges will be funded, either fully or partially, by the federal government in the future. If these Negro land-grant colleges develop properly they will be in excellent positions to dispense valuable services to their nation, states, and local communities. If the smaller colleges have low income ratios they may have increased problems in maintaining attractive salaries and recruiting new faculty members. They may have other financial problems which could be alleviated
with more federal support programs. The smaller institutions will have to research ways to operate efficiently, and to make needed expansions. With the increased need for higher educational institutions it would be presumed unwise for states to close any of these colleges unless there were justifying circumstances.

Conclusions

The Morrill Act of 1890 was the instrument that created the majority of the Negro land-grant colleges. These Negro colleges were a product of the land-grant movement just as were the white institutions which were established under the Morrill Act of 1862. Many of these Negro colleges would not have been established without the Second Morrill Act which encouraged the Southern states to provide land-grant colleges for Negroes.

Negro land-grant colleges developed through both Negro and white leadership. Many of these institutions were organized and established through the efforts of outstanding Negroes. In other cases the white community donated sites, and the Southern communities aided in their development. Four Negro Congressmen were active in organizing, founding, and administering these colleges. A great number of the principals and presidents of the Negro land-grant colleges have been prominent men. These schools have been instrumental in developing Negro leaders in education, in government, in professional fields, and in social programs. Certainly these men and institutions have had a pronounced effect on the
educational programs and social climate of the Southern Negroes.

As the Negro land-grant colleges developed locally each institution was organized and developed in its own unique way. All these colleges had one similarity, and this common factor was created to provide Negroes with an educational system that would be orientated toward their practical and necessary educational needs. These colleges endeavored to turn out students who could support themselves in their communities and who would be successful and happy in their relationships in their society.

These institutions had a second common element in their early years which was slow growth. This pattern of growth was regulated very much by financial support and the general educational programs offered the Negroes in the South. Federal funds have been inequitably appropriated to these institutions in the past, and historically federal support has been inadequate to sustain their operations.

The Southern community realized that an adequate education was necessary to both whites and Negroes as the South became industrialized. A more tolerant attitude developed as leaders of the community exerted efforts for better educational services. The Negro land-grant institutions actually became true colleges in the 1930's when an increased number of public high schools for Negroes were opened to relieve these colleges of the burden of educating students on the secondary level.

Negro land-grant institutions grew in size and offerings from
1931 to 1964. Enrollments in these colleges rose from 5,250 college students in 1929-1930 to 35,793 college students in 1963-1964. This reflects an increase in growth of more than seven hundred percent in thirty-four years. Ten of these institutions now confer master's degrees, and they have been revising their programs to meet modern educational needs.

This collegiate group has been aware of its inadequacies, and the group has steadily worked to improve many of their deficiencies in library services, accreditation requirements, military training, engineering, and plant renovation. The state governments have increased their support to the Negro land-grant colleges in the past decade, and if there is adequate state and federal support in the future these institutions should be able to expand much more rapidly than they have in the past. The federal government should make necessary funds available to these institutions to carry on organized research at the college and university levels. Certainly the Negro land-grant colleges have overcome many handicaps and obstacles in the past in order to render service to society and humanity in the true land-grant college tradition.
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IV. UNPUBLISHED DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS

Chapman, O. J. "A Historical Study of Negro Land-Grant Colleges in Relationship with Their Social, Economic, Political, and Educational Backgrounds and a Program for Their Improvement." Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation. Ohio State University, 1940.

APPENDIX I

Maps on pages 157 to 173 indicate the locations of the land­grant colleges in the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.
LOCATIONS OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

*Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College
(Negro at Normal, Alabama)

#Auburn University
(white at Auburn, Alabama)
University of Missouri (white at Columbia, Missouri)

Lincoln University (Negro at Jefferson City, Missouri)
Virginia State College (Negro at Petersburg, Virginia)

Virginia Polytechnic Institute (white at Blacksburg, Virginia)

CLEARTYPE COUNTY OUTLINE VIRGINIA

Scale of Miles

MAP NO. 211

AMERICAN MAP COMPANY, INC.

172
West Virginia University
(white at Morgantown, West Virginia)

West Virginia State College
(Negro at Institute, West Virginia)
Discontinued as a separate land-grant institution
on March 4, 1957
APPENDIX II

APPROPRIATIONS TO NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FROM THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD, EXCLUSIVE OF GRANTS FOR MEDICAL EDUCATION, 1902-1960

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College Name</th>
<th>Appropriations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ala. Ag. and Mech. College</td>
<td>$204,164.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag., Mech., and Normal College</td>
<td>200,812.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware State College</td>
<td>7,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida Ag. and Mech. University</td>
<td>311,596.86</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kentucky State College</td>
<td>11,000.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Southern Univ. &amp; Ag. &amp; Mech. College</td>
<td>141,631.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland State College</td>
<td>14,983.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>55,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural and Tech. College of N. C.</td>
<td>20,951.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn Agricultural and Mech. College</td>
<td>256,233.44</td>
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<tr>
<td>Langston University</td>
<td>95,000.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Carolina State College</td>
<td>646,760.55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tenn. Ag. and Indus. State University</td>
<td>139,354.92</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prairie View Ag. and Mech. College</td>
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<td>Virginia State College</td>
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<td>West Virginia State College</td>
<td>21,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Valley State College</td>
<td>$270,652.97</td>
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</tbody>
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APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by John F. Sullivan has been read and approved by members of the Department of Education.

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

January 29, 1969  
Date  

[Signature]

Signature of Adviser