A HISTORICAL STUDY OF NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES
IN RELATIONSHIP WITH THEIR SOCIAL, ECONOMIC,
POLITICAL, AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS

AND

A PROGRAM FOR THEIR IMPROVEMENT

Dissertation
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Approved by:

Adviser
Every tenth resident of the United States is a person of African descent. Our twelve million Negroes, in other words, constitute one-tenth of the total population. Of the 31,500,000 children 5 to 17 years of age in our population, almost 3,000,000 or another 10 percent are colored. Proportionate comparisons end here, however, for as commonly known, these three million children of the Negro race suffer most unfortunate discrimination. Their school terms average 2 months less than the white school year; attendance is difficult and irregular; enrollment is congested in the first three grades; buildings are dilapidated and inaccessible; and teaching equipment is meagre or lacking. Even more serious is the instructional situation under which large numbers of unqualified teachers are still retained and paid salaries averaging less than half of the white school salaries. Dominating all else is the problem of financial support, involving a current annual expenditure of $87.22 per child for the United States as a whole but an annual expenditure of only $12.57 for the average Negro child.

Notwithstanding the discrimination cited above, amazing progress has been made in all phases of Negro education during the last twenty years. Nor is this a problem of the South alone. Two million Negroes now live outside the South with thousands more moving North annually. Moreover, the South could not possibly meet the situation adequately, even though inclined to do so, since the per capita wealth of this region in 1930 was only $1,785, as compared with $3,080 for the country as a whole, and $3,609 for the North and West or Non-South. Rather is the issue one of national responsibility, significant to the North as well as to the South and to be solved only through Federal participation and financial aid.
The development of any race depends upon its leadership, and leadership, in turn, is dependent upon advanced education. This at once establishes the importance of collegiate education for Negroes and reveals the significance of the Negro land-grant College.

The writer first became interested in the Negro land-grant college in the fall of 1929 when he journeyed to Virginia State College as a member of the Lincoln University (Pa.) football team. During his short stay at this land-grant college a professor there gave him a brief description of the atmosphere and activities of several such institutions. During the next three years the writer visited eight other land-grant colleges as a member of the track and debating teams of Lincoln University.

In the fall of 1937 the writer became an instructor in the Negro land-grant college at Pine Bluff, Arkansas. There, as Director of the Division of Education, he began an ever expanding experience which brought him into direct contact, as a visitor, with six other Negro land-grant colleges in the deep South and Southwest. Through friends, teachers, and officers of Negro land-grant colleges additional knowledge of a rather intimate sort has been gained concerning every institution of this type in every Southern State.

During the summer of 1938 the writer began to collect data for a historical study of the Negro land-grant college in Arkansas. He had not advanced very far, however, until he realized that there were sixteen other colleges with a similarity of origin, background, and problems, which might be included along with the Arkansas A. M. and N. College. A new study, dealing with all the Negro land-grant colleges in the country, was therefore undertaken.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express his gratitude to the persons who helped in the preparation of this study. Professor Harry Q. Good, under whom this dissertation was written, has given valuable suggestions from the standpoint of historical research and interpretation. Thanks are due also to Professor Roscoe H. Eckelberry for his constructive criticism of the first draft of the study when it was presented in the Ph. D. seminar at Ohio University. Professors D. H. Eikenberry and Horace B. English, who kindly consented to serve on the author's Advisory Committee, have given important help.

The author is deeply indebted to President John W. Davis of the West Virginia State College for supplying valuable data. Considerable help was obtained from the N. Y. A. students of the Arkansas A. M. and N. College and the deans and registrars of the Negro land-grant colleges. These people by their co-operation and assistance made the collection of data for some of the chapters possible. The author regrets that they can not all be mentioned by name. Professor Richard Allen Carroll of the Arkansas A. M. and N. College and Professor J. Saunders Redding of the Elizabeth City State Teachers College spent many hours reading the manuscript, and the author deeply appreciates their generous aid.

Finally to his wife, Mildred Acree Chapman, and his mother Millie Catherine Chapman, whose constant encouragement, sympathetic understanding, and self-sacrifice have greatly aided him during the entire period of graduate study in Education, the author affectionately dedicates this work.

O. J. C.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

**Purpose of This Investigation.** The main purpose of this investigation is to present, within the limits of a single volume, a clear picture of the historical conditions, legal foundations, rise, and development of Negro land-grant colleges, and to propose an education program for these colleges in the light of the present needs of Negroes in the South. It is not intended to present here in chronological order all the events in the history of the colleges. The object is rather to interpret the events, the social, economic, political and educational forces which have affected the establishment and development of these institutions, in order to furnish an integrated background upon which to project the problems that arise from an inquiry into the present place and function of this group of colleges in the general scheme of higher education in the United States. The narrative does not attempt to solve problems, or to teach lessons, but to bring concrete educational data before the mind of the reader for his own observation and judgment.

It is to be hoped and to be expected that the serial presentation of educational problems and practices of the land-grant colleges for Negroes may reveal to us in a new light and with greater clearness the complex educational problems of the Negro in the South, and that it may give us an
enlarged conception of the responsibility of all American citizens to provide public education, elementary, secondary, and collegiate, for all classes in this country, regardless of race, color, or creed, and the necessity of doing this if our democratic state is to be maintained.

In this study of Negro land-grant colleges the author is not vain enough to imagine that he has seen or read all the truth, nor that he has always placed the proper emphasis upon the facts which he here presents. Every investigator necessarily has his own personal equation or point of view. The author has endeavored to see the Negro land-grant college, its virtues and weaknesses, not as a Northerner, nor as a Southerner, but as an American citizen. He has accepted no statement as a fact, however generally made, until he was fully convinced from his own personal investigation that what he heard and read was really a fact and not a rumor.

The author has offered his conclusions, not in a spirit of antagonism, nor in behalf of any party or section of the country, but in the hope that, by inspring a broader outlook, these conclusions may lead finally, to other conclusions more nearly approximating the truth than his. He has tried to describe the Negro land-grant college as it has developed in response to the changing social, economic, political and educational conditions of the South.

Outline of the Problem. This discussion of Negro land-grant colleges will center around the following points: (1) the historical development of the American system of agricultural education from about the middle of the sixteenth to about the latter part of the nineteenth century; (2) the origin and early history of colleges from 1862 to 1900; (3) the development of
the colleges from 1900 to 1939, with consideration of some of the factors which have conditioned this development; (4) the social, economic, political and educational conditions of Negroes of the South as a background for a program for the colleges; (5) a proposed program for the colleges in the light of the present needs of Negroes in the Southern states; and (6) the philosophy of the colleges, major conclusions and recommendations.

Significance of the Problem in the Light of the Present Background of the Colleges. The assumption that the principles, practices, and problems of Negro land-grant colleges are the same as those for the non-Negro group has generally prevailed in spite of the fact that Negroes are members of a segregated, underprivileged, minority group in American life. Inasmuch as these facts exist, it seems reasonable to question this assumption. In the Southern part of the United States, where the large majority of the Negro population resides, and in which these colleges are located, the dual system of education is at the present time a legal requirement and a generally enforced social policy. The states making up this area are Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Missouri, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia. In addition there is considerable separation of the races in schools without legal compulsion in other states bordering this area, especially in their southern counties, as in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana, and even in such important cities as Trenton, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Columbus, and Cincinnati. This practice gives rise to problems in education peculiar to such a situation, problems which do not appear in those areas where the segregation of the two races in schools is neither a legal requirement nor a social policy. As a result, Negro schools are not only confronted with the same
problems as schools in general, but, in addition, must meet and solve
those arising from the policy that demands that they be conducted as units
separate from those patronized by the white people of the same communities.

Since the states legally supporting two systems of school are, in
general, the poorest economically, and hence the least able to afford the
extra expense involved, such problems as the distribution of public school
funds between the two races, the enforcement of compulsory educational
laws, the qualifications of teachers of different races who are required
to do the same work on different salary scales, and others of similar nature
become acute and are constantly forcing themselves, through painful expe­
rience, upon the attention of Negroes within and outside of these areas.

The future of the Negro land-grant college in America depends upon
the attitude of the American people in general toward its program. This
is so obvious that it needs no elaboration. But whatever is done in this
field, if it is to be effective, must be projected and carried forward as
the result of conference and co-operation between the races. Those whose
opinions on the matter will determine largely the nature of the efforts
in this field, in their capacity as molders of public opinion, are the
college and university men and women who are intensively engaged in the
study of our educational problems. For purposes of this discussion these
students of education may be considered as constituting three groups: (1)
the white people of the North and West; (2) the white people of the
South; and (3) the Negroes.

The majority of these students belong to the first group, those liv­
ing in the North and West, and hence, outside the area where the majority
of the Negroes reside, and in the area where Negro education is not so
acute a problem. In general the members of this group, excepting those individuals who happen to be migrants from the South, are naturally somewhat uninformed and consequently indifferent to questions pertaining to the Negro and his education except in a purely academic sense. This is due partly to their geographical remoteness from those areas where such problems are very much alive, partly to the presence of new questions of greater interest and urgency, and partly to a vague conviction that most matters concerning the Negro were settled with the passage of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States. In short, the Negro and his affairs are not generally looked upon as the concern of this group and seldom come to its attention, and what is true of the students of education is also largely true of the general population in the same area. That this group, constituting a large majority of the people of the United States, should be ignorant of or indifferent to a major problem of such social significance as the education of one-tenth of the total population in the United States is regrettable. Certainly this condition gives point to the present study.

For, from this group must ultimately come much of the financial support and some of the ideas by which the Negro land-grant college will be carried on. This generalization, of course, does not apply to those promoting organized philanthropy either with or without religious affiliation; but even the zeal of churchmen in these areas is gradually subsiding as 1865 becomes more and more remote. During the high tide of economic prosperity in the 1920's, the index of financial support for Negro land-grant colleges lagged behind the general economic upturn.

To the second group of students of education, those of the white race
who are located in the South, the problems arising from the education of the Negro are always present and of the most vital interest, since they concern not only the immediate welfare of one-third of the population of the Southern States but also the ultimate happiness of the other two-thirds. As a result, there is in this area a genuine and sympathetic awakening of interest in matters concerning the education of the Negro. A number of important investigations in this field have been made in recent years and are now being made by Southern white men and women in the colleges and universities of that section, in an effort to furnish reliable information as a basis for rational procedures in dealing with the educational problems which are incident to social conditions in the South. But even the Southern white students, in attacking some of the most vital problems in this field, must keep clearly in mind the historical factors which form the basis of interpretation of many of their findings.

It goes without saying that the third group of students of education, the Negro students, cannot afford to forget the foundations upon which Negro education has been developed, and reasons for the difficulties which it has encountered at any given time. It is impossible, of course, for the Negro in the South to forget for a moment that he creates a problem. The spirit of segregation and discrimination in its myriad forms constantly reminds him of this stubborn fact. The progressive Negro student is justly intolerant of the grave inequalities, which he observes in educational

facilities at all levels, and naturally demands immediate reform. This attitude is necessary and wholly commendable from one standpoint, but one fears that the reformer has fallen into the error of ignoring the long, slow processes of human experience and social evolution that produced the present attitudes in the South. Negro students, too, must continue to gather facts with persistence and to present them with logic. Their interpretations, at the same time, must be made in view of the history of the relations of the two races, particularly in the United States.

Thus fortified, the earnest students of education of both races and all sections, if true to their trust, will constantly work toward an ideal democracy, recognizing always from their respective viewpoints the defects in present practices and striving to correct these defects through the mediums of scientific investigations and ethical interpretation. For these reasons the author has dwelt at some length upon those historical aspects of the subject which center around the foundations of the American system of agricultural education and the first and second Morrill Acts, which are responsible for the establishment of land-grant colleges for Negroes.

**Method and Sources of Data.** The research student working in Negro education soon finds that he must use a wide variety of sources of data. Often material on Negro education is not contained in general categories where it should logically be found. Different methods of accounting, carelessness, and the ill-defined place of the Negro school are the major factors responsible for the difficulties of securing usable data in connection with Negro education.

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. Moreover, one finds it impossible to obtain the most elementary information from a few of the institutions.

The method employed in this investigation is primarily historical. On the basis of the facts presented and in view of the present situation in American education, it is hoped that some guiding principles may be established upon which justifiable modifications in practice relative to this group of schools can be effected. The selection of data has been made from such sources as: federal and state statutes, reports of surveys and statistical material issued by the United States Office of Education, correspondence, personal interviews with authorities familiar with the development of Negro land-grant colleges, reports of surveys and studies by educational associations and other reliable sources, catalogues and other periodical publications of the various Negro land-grant colleges, annual reports by the presidents of Negro land-grant colleges and the Association of Negro Land-Grant Presidents, reports, audits, and documents written by executive officers of the several Negro land-grant colleges, and questionnaires sent to all the deans of the Negro land-grant colleges in 1939.

Scope of This Investigation. This investigation is necessarily limited in scope. In view of the purpose indicated, a study of the individual Negro land-grant college is neither necessary nor desirable, since historical sketches of the individual schools can usually be found in the
successive annual issues of their respective catalogues or elsewhere.

Related Studies. The author knows of only three other studies concerning Negro land-grant colleges that are related to the present one. They are: (1) "The Survey of Negro Land-Grant Colleges and Universities," made by the U. S. Office of Education in 1930. This study is found in volume II, bulletin No. 9, which deals with the National Survey of all land-grant colleges in 1930. (2) "Land-Grant Colleges for Negroes," by John W. Davis. This study has statistical data on the growth of Negro land-grant colleges and is found in the West Virginia State College Bulletin, No. 5 (April, 1934). (3) The Evolution of the Negro College, by Dr. D. O. W. Holmes. There is a chapter in this study which deals with the origin of Negro land-grant colleges. Dr. Holmes' study was published in 1934 as a Ph.D. thesis at Teachers College, Columbia University.
CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE AMERICAN SYSTEM
OF AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION FROM THE LATTER PART OF
THE SIXTEENTH TO THE LATTER PART OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

EARLY MOVEMENTS AND INFLUENCES.

The Revival of the Scientific Attitude and Method. The rise of experimental science in modern times may be traced pretty definitely to the heritage handed down from classical antiquity. The interest of men like Leonardo da Vinci and Michael Angelo in sixteenth century Italy was greatly stimulated by the belated recovery of Greek science. Another source of recovery of the mathematical and scientific achievements of Greece was through the Moorish influence, which had begun to be felt in the intellectual life of Christendom as early as the twelfth century. The slow progress of several centuries before the sixteenth, when the scientific attitude received a new and fresh expression, as well as the all-but-forgotten contributions during that period of magicians and astrologers and alchemists are not to be ignored, even though we may in this connection give them only this scanty mention.

The last half of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth presents us with such a rich scientific contribution that it is convenient to regard that period as the real beginning of modern science. In 1543, Nicholas Copernicus published his system of the universe, according to which the earth was displaced from its central position in the scheme of things in favor of the sun. The astronomical theories of Copernicus were tested and further corroborated by the discoveries of Tycho Brahe (d. 1601), John Kepler (d. 1630), and Galileo Galilei (d. 1642).
The century and a half following the death of Copernicus was a difficult time for independent and daring minds. Giordano Bruno, who died at the stake in Rome, a victim of the Inquisition, in 1600, suffered his martyrdom because he enthusiastically accepted and developed some philosophical implications of the new astronomy. Galileo suffered persecution during the latter part of his life at the hands of the Inquisition. And when not actually suffering extreme penalties for their intellectual daring, men of science found themselves under suspicion and restrained by the threat of persecution whenever the results of their thinking and investigation endangered the position of the official orthodoxy of the Church. During that time, however, the new science was extending its conquests and becoming more and more authoritative. The seventeenth century exhibits a long line of scientific discoveries in every field. Gilbert in 1600 published an important work which laid the foundations for later studies of magnetism and electricity. Also to be mentioned are Harvey's discovery of the circulation of the blood; Malpighi's description of capillary circulation; Torricelli's invention of the barometer and other discoveries in the field of pneumatics; Boyle's experimentation in chemistry and physics and his statement of the law of gases. These are only a few instances of widespread and fruitful scientific investigation. It remained, however, for Isaac Newton to place the new science in a position of unassailable authority and unimpeachable respectability.

The culmination of over a century's testing and corroboration of the main positions of Copernicus was the publication in 1687 of the Principia of Isaac Newton (d.1727). This work may truly be described as epoch-making, for it supplied a universally applicable
hypothesis, the theory of gravitation, which was applied to a wide range of discovered facts and mathematically demonstrated to hold true. Newton supplied a new law of the heavens; and from his time on the conception of a physical universe operating according to natural law become incontestably the starting point of all progressive thought about the world and man's place therein.

From among the many men who made their contributions during this early period of the revival of natural science, two deserve to be pointed out for their conscious attention to the method of scientific research, namely, Francis Bacon (d. 1626) and Rene Descartes (d. 1650). Bacon was not primarily a scientist, although he carried out a rather comprehensive research on the nature of heat. His efforts to describe the actual process of scientific investigation, as given in his *Novum Organum*, is rather fantastic in places, and it has been said that probably no scientific discovery has ever been made by means of the method which he therein suggests. One thing can unquestionably be laid to his credit, and that is his recognition of the very great importance to be attached to negative instances when corroboration of a scientific hypothesis is being sought. This outline of inductive method gives too little weight to the place of hypothesis, yet when all the limitations of his scientific insight and accomplishments are admitted, Bacon occupies an honorable place in the history of modern science.

Hardly less important support to the new cause than that of Bacon was brought by the French mathematician, René Descartes, who is ordinarily regarded as "the father of modern philosophy." Descartes, like Bacon, was out of patience with the vast body of unproved assumptions which were the stock in trade of the theology and the philosophy of the schools. He
determined to do away with every such assumption, taking nothing for granted that he could not prove,—that did not stand up as indubitable in the light of reason. Another phase of Descrates' philosophy that was of great importance was his complete separation of the realm of matter from the realm of mind and his downright insistence upon the mathematical-mechanical nature of the physical universe.

In summarizing the intellectual attitude and method of the new science, Reisner noted three characteristics of it. (1) "There was in it a definite determination to disregard authority and to undertake new and original observations and experiments for the discovery of truth and fact. (2) There was also put into operation the experimental method—the method of setting up definitely controlled experiments out of which scientific fact and law might be obtained. (3) Finally, there was a determination to describe natural occurrences and laws in mathematical terms, thus adding to the testimony of the senses the authority of numbers, which could not lie."

Development of Agricultural Education in Europe. With the beginning of modern science in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, a desire to use the new knowledge in education soon appeared. Among those who influenced this movement was Rabelais (d. 1553), who would have pupils study nature as well as books and use their knowledge in their daily occupation. John Amos Comenius (d. 1670) aspired to have "the complete reorganization of human knowledge along Baconian lines." His teaching and textbooks, especially the Great Didactic, which was published in the vernacular in 1649, were based on "presenting the object or idea directly to the child.

Samuel Hartlib (d. 1670) introduced the writings of Comenius to England and in 1651 published a little book entitled *An Essay for the Advancement of Husbandry-Learning: of Propositions for the Erecting of a College of Husbandry*. This contains a detailed statement of the subjects to be taught and the means to be used in securing financial support for the institution. In the *Tractate of Education*, published in 1644 and addressed to Hartlib, Milton followed very largely the plan of education suggested by Rabelais, which involved a very broad study of classical literature, including agriculture, as described by Cato and Varro. Here is found also the definition of "complete and generous education," as "that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices both private and public of peace and war."

In the seventeenth century there arose in protest to the narrow, humanistic curriculum of the Latin Grammar Schools, the Non-Conformist academies. In England, the Oratorian and Port Royalist schools in France, the Economic-Mathematical Realschulen in Germany, and, during the first quarter of the eighteenth century, the English Grammar Schools in the United States. These schools offered a more practical curriculum than did the traditional Latin Grammar Schools, and prepared boys to engage in the daily pursuits of life.

Jean Jacques Rousseau (d.1776) held that the educational materials


should be the facts and phenomena of nature and dealt much on the importance of manual and industrial activities in education.

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (d. 1827), being influenced by Rousseau, entered on an agricultural life, and from his experiences with his own children developed a more positive and practical scheme of education. From 1771 to 1780, he conducted a school for poor children at Neuhof, Switzerland, where part of the children's time was spent in raising farm products, spinning, and weaving of cotton.

Phillip Emanuel von Fellenberg (d. 1844), from 1806 to 1844, conducted very successfully two manual-labor schools at Hofwyl, Switzerland. As will be shown later in this chapter, these had a very considerable influence in the United States. These schools were for the upper classes and peasants, respectively. They were located on an estate of six hundred acres, and the boys of both schools had gardens and were expected to do farm work. There was also instruction in science related to agriculture, a printing press, and workshops for making clothing and agricultural and scientific instruments.

**Early Agricultural Schools in Europe.** A brief mention of some of the agricultural schools in Europe during the latter part of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries will enable the reader to see the wide spread of interest in agricultural education as preparation for more detailed treatment of the American movement.

Ferdinand Kinderman (d. 1801) a Bohemian, sometimes called the "father of industrial education," under the patronage of Maria Theresa, founded an elementary school in which agriculture, music, and religion were taught.

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along with the three R's. This plan was also followed in other schools.

In Bohemia an agricultural school was opened at Tirnova in 1791.

In Hungary agricultural schools were established at Zarvas in 1779; at Nagy-Micklos in 1786; the Georgicon Academy at Kezhely, founded in 1779, was for fifty years "the model agricultural college of Europe."

Near the end of the eighteenth century Frederick the Great undertook the development of agricultural schools as a part of a broad plan for improving the agricultural conditions of Prussia, and his example was followed by successors. Albrecht Thaer (d. 1828) successfully engaged in practical and scientific farming, and when visitors to his farm at Celle, in Hanover, became numerous he began in 1802 to give them instructions, and this led to the establishment of the agricultural institute in that town. In 1806 he founded an agricultural school at Moeglin, near Berlin, which became famous and which was raised to the Royal Academy of Agriculture in 1828. Through his school and his writings Thaer had a broad influence on the progress of agriculture and agricultural education. In 1811 the academy at Tharaudt, in Saxony, was founded and a little later the agricultural college of the University of Leipzig. In Württemburg, the agricultural college of Hohenheim was founded in 1818, which had a large model farm. This institution was very successful and soon attracted great attention in other European countries.

**Early Agricultural Societies in Europe.** Another evidence of the growing interest in the promotion of improved agriculture is the development of agricultural societies. The first agricultural society in Germany was

established in 1764. In France there was an early Society of Agriculturists. This was succeeded by the Academy of Agriculture of France. In Russia the Free Economical Society was established by the Empress Catherine in 1765, with a large experimental farm near St. Peterburg. The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufacture, and Commerce, organized in London in 1754, included agriculture in its program. In Scotland the first organization was the Society of Improvers in the Knowledge of Agriculture in Scotland, begun in 1723, and continued for more than twenty years. In Ireland the Dublin Society for Improving Husbandry, Manufactures, and Other Useful Arts was founded in 1731 and began in 1737 to publish Weekly Observations. In 1746 it received a grant of five hundred pounds a year from the Government, and was incorporated in 1750 as the Royal Dublin Society. The British Board of Agriculture was established under an act of Parliament in 1793. The functions of the board, as stated by its first president, Sir John Sinclair, in a formal address to it in 1797 were as follows:

1. Collecting, printing, and circulating information on agricultural and other important subjects connected with the internal improvement of the country.

2. Making, under the inspection of the board itself or a committee of its members, useful experiments in agriculture.

3. Submitting to the consideration of Parliament such regulations as may tend to promote the general improvement of the country and recommending to its attention such useful discoveries of an agricultural nature as may be entitled to reward.

In their organization and work the early American agricultural societies were greatly influenced by the examples set by the Societies in Great Britain.

Early Agricultural Societies in the United States. The American Philosophical Society, founded in 1744 under the leadership of Benjamin Franklin, in its earlier years published many articles on agricultural subjects but was developed chiefly as a scientific society. This led to the organization of the Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture, in March, 1785. Its object was to promote "greater increase of the products of land within the American States", and for this purpose the "society would print memoirs, offer prizes for experiments, improvements, and agricultural essays, and encourage the establishment of other societies throughout the country." The South Carolina Society for Promoting and Improving Agriculture and Other Rural Concerns was organized in Charleston, August 24, 1785, and ten years later was incorporated under its present name as the Agricultural Society of South Carolina.

An agricultural society was formed at Hallowell, Maine (then Massachusetts) in 1787, probably through the efforts of Charles Vaughan. Whether the original agricultural society continued for any considerable time is not known, but in 1807 there was an association called the Kennebec Agricultural Society. In 1829 the Winthrop Agricultural Society was incorporated by the Maine Legislature and this in turn was merged into the Kennebec Agricultural Society in 1832.

An organization entitled the New Jersey Society for Promoting Agriculture, Commerce, and Arts was established as early as 1781, but nothing is known of its work. The Burlington Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Commerce, and the Fine Arts was chartered on June 19, 1787, and from 1792 to 1794 the Burlington Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Commerce, and the Fine Arts, New Jersey, was in existence.

Ibid. p. 8.
culture and Domestic Manufactures was organized February 6, 1790, and was active for at least ten years. It gave prizes in contests in agricultural production and published numerous essays on agricultural subjects in newspapers. The first permanently organized state (N.J.) agricultural society did not appear until 1855.

The original prospectus of King's College (afterwards Columbia College of Columbia University) issued May 31, 1754, included husbandry and commerce among the subjects to be taught there. Laws and orders adopted by the governors of the college June 3, 1755, include "agriculture and merchandise" in the course of study.

About the same time the New York Society for Promoting Arts was organized and in 1766 offered premiums for reports on matters which the Society deemed of interest to farmers. The New York Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Arts and Manufactures was organized February 6, 1791 and was incorporated March 12, 1792.

When the New York Legislature in 1792 granted funds to the trustees of Columbia College for additional professorships, a professorship of natural history, chemistry and agriculture was established, and Samuel L. Mitchill (d. 1831), a distinguished physician, was appointed to fill this position. Doctor Mitchill was active in promoting the agricultural interests of New York for many years. He contributed articles on grasses, canker-worms, and delivered addresses on agricultural subjects in different parts of the State.

11 Ibid., p. 222.
In 1804 the name of The New York Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Arts, and Manufactures was changed to the Society for the Promotion of Useful Arts, which greatly influenced the establishment of the New York State Board of Agriculture in 1819. In 1824 it united with the Albany Lyceum of Natural History and formed the Albany Institute, which continued for many years as a scientific society. In 1832 the New York State Agricultural Society was organized by the combined efforts of the county societies.

The Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture was organized May 31, 1792, under a State charter resulting from a petition to the legislature signed by twenty-eight prominent men in the agricultural, business, and political life of the State. Its object was to promote "useful improvements in agriculture". In 1814 the legislature of Massachusetts appropriated to the society $1,000 annually for printing and circulating the publications on agriculture, the raising of seeds, and plants, and agricultural experiments. In 1801 the society undertook the establishment of a professorship of natural history and a botanic garden at Harvard College. This was done in 1803. The plan for this garden "provided for scientific observations of the growth of vegetation and of the habits of noxious insects, that methods might be devised for their destruction, and a cultivation, for sale and distribution, of the seeds and roots of useful plants."

Beginning with the organization of the Society for Promoting Agriculture in the State of Connecticut on August 12, 1794, similar state agricultural societies were established in Connecticut, Kentucky, Michigan, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Virginia from 1820 to 1860. Local

13 Alfred C. True, op cit. p. 11.
14 Ibid. p. 12.
and County agricultural societies began to be organized after 1800 and soon spread over the country with the progress of settlement westward. In 1852 it was estimated that there were about three hundred such active organizations in the thirty-one States and five Territories, and by 1860 there were nine hundred and forty-one agricultural organizations recorded in the books of the United States Agricultural Society. On June 20, 1852, at a convention called by twelve State Agricultural associations, the United States Agricultural Society was organized at Washington, D.C. 16.

As time progressed the agricultural societies "became more democratic and brought a considerable and growing body of the most intelligent and progressive farmers into active relations with a nation-wide movement for the advancement of agriculture". Through their meetings, fairs, correspondence, publications, and articles in the agricultural and other papers they sought to make the public feel that the interests of agriculture and farming populations were entitled to more consideration by Congress and the State legislatures. The agricultural societies were increasingly active and influential in the efforts to establish State boards of agriculture, a national Department of Agriculture, the teaching of agriculture in schools and colleges, the carrying on of experiments and scientific investigations for the improvement of agriculture, and the building up of agricultural journals and books.

Early American State Boards of Agriculture. The first State board of agriculture was established in New York under a law passed April 7, 1819.

15 Ibid. p. 12.
16 Ibid. p. 23.
but was not actually organized until January 10, 1820. This law was largely due to the efforts of men who were connected with the New York Society for the Promotion of Useful Arts, whose active leader was the late Governor De Witt Clinton (d. 1828). He advocated the establishment of such a board in his message to the New York Legislature in January, 1818, and 1819. The measure finally passed was "an act to improve the agriculture of this State" and appropriated $10,000 per year for two years, "to be distributed among the several counties" as offset for money raised by the county agricultural societies to be used for premiums and reports. At the organization of the board twenty-six counties were represented and Stephen Van Rensselaer was elected the president. The board ceased to exist by expiration of the law in April, 1825. The functions of a board of agriculture were performed to a considerable extent for many years by the New York State Agricultural Society, which was organized in 1832.

The example of New York was very soon followed in New Hampshire by the passage of an act on December 19, 1820; in Ohio by the passage of an "act for the encouragement of agriculture" (which provided for a State board of agriculture as well as agricultural societies) on February 27, 1846; and in Massachusetts by the passage of an act "to establish a State board of Agriculture for the encouragement of agricultural education and the improvement of agriculture in all its departments in the State" on April 21, 1852.

Influence of the Lyceum Movement. Among the factors which broadened the educational outlook of the American people and laid the foundation for
vocational education was the lyceum movement. Josiah Holbrook (d. 1854) originated this movement in 1826. He was brought up on a farm at Derby, Connecticut, and graduated from Yale in 1810. In 1819 he began an industrial school on the Fellenberg plan and in 1824 undertook an agricultural school at Derby. When this failed through the lack of sufficient financial support, he began a propaganda campaign for the more general diffusion of education among adults (1) "to procure for youths an economical and practical education and to diffuse rational and useful information through the community generally, and (2) to apply the sciences and the various branches of education to the domestic and useful arts and to all the common purposes of life."

The societies were to have meetings, institute regular courses by lectures, procure books, apparatus, and collections, and aid in establishing institutions for a thorough education and "in application of the sciences to agriculture and other useful arts and for qualifying teachers." In November, 1826, Holbrook organized the Millbury (Mass.) Lyceum as No. 1 Branch of the American Lyceum. A State association was formed in 1830 in Massachusetts, and the American Lyceum Association was organized in 1831 at a meeting in New York City at which Stephen Van Rensselaer presided and seven states were represented.

In 1831 about nine hundred towns had lyceums, and for the next twenty years many public lectures were delivered before such organizations. These lectures covered a wide range of subjects, and the lecturers were often very distinguished men in literature, science, and political affairs, in-

21 Alfred C. True, op. cit. p. 31-32.
Influence of the Manual-Labor Movement. A movement which had a more direct relation to the early efforts to establish agricultural schools in this country grew out of the influence of the teachings and work of Fellenberg in his schools at Hofwyl, Switzerland. Information regarding the success of his enterprises was brought to the United States by American visitors to Hofwyl during the first quarter of the nineteenth century, and by publications issued at home and abroad. Certain features of Fellenberg's theories and activities fitted into the educational and financial conditions here in the first half of the nineteenth century, and excited so much interest that wide-spread efforts were made to conduct schools which were based at least in part on his ideas.

The advocates of the manual-labor movement had hoped that the labor of both teachers and students on school farms and in workshops would make the institutions and their students partly or wholly self-supporting. Students of that day "were very often dyspeptic from lack of physical exercise, which the Fellenberg system would supply." It was also believed that manual labor which was associated with intellectual pursuits had a definite educational value.

was organized in 1831, with Theodore F. Weld as field agent. This society attempted to promote the manual-labor movement on a broader scale. Its only permanent influence on educational progress was in promoting gymnastics in schools. The manual-labor school at Whitesboro, New York, which was in operation between 1827 and 1834, may serve as a good example of the manual-labor schools of this period. The students in the Whitesboro school worked three hours a day at farming, horticulture, and mechanic arts, and the remainder of the day at classroom work.

Broadening of the American College Curriculum after 1800. Much had to be done during the last half of the eighteenth century to create favorable sentiment in the United States for agricultural and industrial education, even if the country were predominantly rural, because collegiate education of that period was strictly traditional and classical. Authority held sway—the authority of the Church, the ecclesiastical council, the bishop, and the Bible; it was difficult therefore to change from language to science, from words to things, from a verbalistic to a scientific system of education. The college curriculum prior to 1800 was loaded with Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and contained little, if any, consideration of the earth, air, water, and plant and animal life. Only the spirit of revolt against an eighteenth-century iron-clad college curriculum made industrial and agricultural education possible for America in the nineteenth century.

The following examples will show that the curriculum of the American colleges began to be broadened about 1800. A professorship of natural history was established at Harvard in 1804. A chair of chemistry was provided at Princeton in 1795, at Columbia in 1802, and at Yale in 1803. Instruction in physics and chemistry was given at Dartmouth College and in physics at
Union College before 1800. At Yale College, Benjamin Silliman was elected
professor of chemistry, geology, and mineralogy in 1801. Williams, Bowdoin,
William and Mary, Dickenson, and Hobart Colleges, and the universities of
Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina were among the institutions giv­
ing instruction in some branches of natural science prior to 1820. The 
early instruction was mainly by lectures, supplemented to a limited extent 
by the exhibition of specimens or by demonstrations conducted by the teachers.
Princeton, however, had a chemical laboratory about 1800, Williams College 
fitted one up in 1812, and Harvard provided one a little later. The Rens­
selaer School established at Troy, New York, in 1824, had a wide influence
on the teaching of natural sciences by observational and experimental methods. 
On account of its early relations to agricultural education further refer­
ence to this school will be made in a subsequent discussion.

The constant growth of the natural sciences, the development of the
literature in the various modern languages, and the accumulation of know­
ledge in other branches, as well as the contact of American students in 
larger numbers with foreign institutions of higher learning, particularly 
in Germany, led to the widening of the curriculum in the leading American 
colleges, and an increase in the number of professorships in the newer sub­
jects after 1800.

An event of very great importance in the history of science teaching 
in this country was the coming of Louis Agassiz to Boston in 1847 to de­
 deliver a course of popular lectures at the Lowell Institute. This eventu­
ally led to the establishment of the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard 
University in 1847, in which school Agassiz became professor of zoology and 
geology. True writes the following about Agassiz:

26

Ibid. p. 34.
He traveled and lectured extensively in this country. In this way and through his writings, including textbooks on physiology and natural history and on methods of teaching natural history, he gave a great impetus to the movement for incorporating science more broadly in the curricula of colleges and secondary schools. He also helped greatly to infuse life into science teaching by his insistence on actual participation of the students in the examination and handling of the objects of scientific study.

Agassiz was for several years a member of the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture and had a direct connection with the movement for agricultural education, particularly in his relation to the establishment of the Massachusetts Agricultural College.

Influence of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. Stephen Van Rensselaer (d. 1839) founded the Rensselaer School at Troy, New York in 1824. This institution occupied a unique position in the early movement for scientific education related to agriculture and the mechanical arts. Van Rensselaer had become by inheritance a patron of a district which comprised what are now Albany, Columbia and Rensselaer Counties. This great tract, as developed up to his death in 1839, contained over three thousand farms, which were leased on moderate terms. Van Rensselaer was greatly interested in the improvement of agriculture. He became an officer of the State Society for the Promotion of Useful Arts, and in 1820 was elected president of the newly created State Board of Agriculture. He graduated from Harvard College in 1782, and through his interest in education, was made a regent of the University of the State of New York, and in 1835 became its chancellor. He was also active in politics, being a member at different times of each of the houses of the New York State Legislature, and lieutenant governor.

27

for six years. He was later a member of Congress, where he served as chairman of the House Committee on Agriculture.

About 1820 Van Rensselaer came in contact with Amos Eaton, who had already attracted considerable attention as an itinerant lecturer on natural science. Eaton (d. 1842) was the son of a farmer at Chatham, New York. He graduated from Williams College in 1799, studied law and practiced this profession at Catskill, New York. In 1810 he began to give popular lectures on botany and compiled an elementary treatise on this subject. Then he went to Yale College and studied chemistry, geology, and mineralogy under Professor Silliman. In 1820 he was called to the professorship of natural history at the Medical College at Castleton, Vermont.

What attracted the greatest attention in connection with Eaton's lectures was that he not only illustrated them with specimens and demonstrations but led his students to make collections in the field and to construct simple apparatus for various purposes. Impressed by the unusual ability of Eaton, Van Rensselaer then employed him in the summer of 1824 to traverse the state of New York on or near the line of the Erie Canal (being provided with sufficient apparatus and specimens) to deliver, in all principal towns where an audience of business men or others could be collected, a series of lectures, accompanied with experiments and illustrations, on chemistry, natural philosophy, and some or all of the branches of natural history. This undertaking was entirely successful.

To perpetuate and to broaden such work Van Rensselaer established in the fall of 1824 a school to instruct persons "in the application of science to the common purposes of life." Referring to the success of Eaton's summer lectures in western New York, Van Rensselaer declared that his principal object in establishing such a school was "to qualify teachers for in-

Alfred C. True, op. cit. p. 40.
structing the sons and daughters of farmers and mechanics in the application of experimental chemistry, philosophy, and natural history to agriculture, domestic economy, the arts and manufactures." He appointed a board of nine trustees, and chose Eaton as "senior professor of chemistry and experimental philosophy, and lecturer on geology, land surveying, and the laws regulating town officers and jurors."

During the first ten years the institution was, for the most part, a school of science, placing emphasis on the practical applications of science. The requirements of the school were relatively severe and comparatively few students were able to meet them. The school did not have more than twenty-five or thirty students at any one time, and a considerable number of these were either college students or college graduates.

Courses which were related to surveying and other branches of engineering were gradually developed. In 1835 the name of the school was changed to Rensselaer Institute, and the curriculum was divided into the departments of natural science and engineering. The latter department gained ascendancy and about 1850 the institution became a school of engineering under the name of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.

This institution undoubtedly had considerable influence on the movement for scientific education relating to agriculture and the mechanical arts which culminated in the land-grant act of 1862. The school was well known to those leaders in New York and other States who were promoting the establishment of colleges and other public agencies for the promotion of agriculture. Many of the school's graduates became prominent figures in the industrial and agricultural fields.

Agricultural Work in the Early Private American Colleges. A brief mention should be made at this point of the role played by the early private
colleges in providing agricultural instruction during the first half of the
nineteenth century. In 1824 the first catalogue of Washington (now Trinity)
College at Hartford, Connecticut announced that "an agricultural establish­
ment will be connected with the institution, and the students will have an
opportunity of becoming acquainted with this primary art of living." A
botanic garden was also maintained at the college for a considerable period
and courses in "practical applications of chemistry and botany" were list­
ed in a number of early catalogues.

Benjamin Bussey of Roxbury, Massachusetts, left a will dated July 30,
1835, which gave to Harvard College half the income of about three hundred
thousand dollars ($300,000) and his farm of over two hundred acres on the
condition that there be established on this farm "a course of instruction
in practical agriculture." The will was probated in 1842, and the Bussey
Institution was established in 1870 as a branch of Harvard College to give
instruction in agriculture and related sciences. It has since been con­
ducted mainly as a research institution.

In 1843 Amherst College in Massachusetts listed in its catalogue in
1843 a "lecturer on agricultural chemistry and mineralogy" and in 1852 a
scientific department "entirely independent of the regular course." 30

An institution named the Farmers' College was organized in 1846 at
College Hill, Ohio, about six miles from Cincinnati. This was an outgrowth
of a literary school known as Pleasant Hill Academy, which was established
in 1833 by Freeman G. Gary (d. 1888). In 1845 a plan was made to enlarge
the school by issuing stock for "building for an institution of learning

29
F. H. Fowler, "Early Agricultural Education in Massachusetts," Mass­

30
Alfred C. True, op. cit. p. 44.
especially suited to the wants of the agricultural and business community."
A charter was issued by the Ohio Legislature on February 23, 1846, which
created a corporation known as the Farmers' College of Hamilton County.
The object of this association was to direct and to cultivate the minds of
the students in a thorough and scientific course of studies, particularly
adapted to agricultural pursuits.

About seven and a half acres of land adjoining the site of the old
Pleasant Hill Academy were obtained and on this tract two buildings were
erected. Later one hundred acres of land were purchased "for a model and
experimental farm." Benjamin Harrison, afterwards President of the United
States, was a student at this institution from 1848-1850. In 1855 the leg­
islature of Ohio gave the college authority to grant the A. B. and A. M.
degrees.

The college grew in popularity and in 1856 had three hundred students.
But its funds were not sufficient to maintain it on the scale on which it
was being operated, and as the shadows of the Civil War approached it was
difficult to secure adequate financial support. Two memorials were sent
to Congress asking for grants of land for the college, but without avail.
An effort to have this college made the beneficiary of the land-grant act
of 1862 also failed. In 1884 the institution became Belmont College and
this merged into the Ohio Military Institute in 1890.

DEVELOPMENT OF A DEFINITE MOVEMENT FOR
PUBLIC SUPPORT FOR AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES

The Movement In New York. While the teaching of agriculture in purely
private institutions was being attempted with small success, friends of
agricultural education began to look forward to State aid for such instruction,
and in a few states movements were begun which were to lead eventually up
to the establishment of State agricultural colleges and their endowment under
the Federal land-grant act of 1862. In 1819 Simeon De Witt, cousin of Gov­
ernor Clinton, published anonymously at Albany, New York a forty-two page
pamphlet, entitled "Considerations on the Necessity of Establishing an Agri­
cultural College and Having More of the Children of Wealthy Citizens Educat­
ed for the Profession of Farming."

De Witt now attempted to show that farming is "not only honorable, but
may be profitable, and that even its difficulties and hardships are much
better for men to contend with than a life of idleness." His proposed in­
stitution was intended not so much to give instruction to farmers as to
make farmers from other classes of society. The primary object of the
school was "to teach the theory and the practice of agriculture with such
branches of other sciences as may be serviceable to them." De Witt's
plan for an agricultural college was given considerable publicity in num­
erous ways in New York and other states, and undoubtedly laid a somewhat
definite basis for future consideration of this subject in the legislatures
of various states.

As a member of the committee on agriculture of the New York Assembly
in 1823, Jesse Buel, (d. 1839) brought in a report favoring an agricultural
school, but no action was taken on the matter. In 1832 at the first meet­
ing of the new State Agricultural Society, a committee was appointed to re­
port on a plan for an agricultural school. On February 14, 1833, the com­
mittee reported a plan for such a school, with a farm of four hundred acres.

31 See "Simeon De Witt" in the National Cyclopedia of American Biography,
and with an estimate of expense on the basis of an attendance of two hundred students. The committee also proposed a bill to be introduced in the New York Legislature, asking for authorization to issue stock certificates to the amount of one hundred thousand dollars ($100,000) with an interest at five (5%) percent, to be sold at auction. The State Agricultural Society presented this plan and bill to both houses of the legislature, through a subcommittee of which Buel was a member. Favorable reports on the project were made; but the legislature took no action.

In 1835 the legislature was again asked to charter an agricultural school without State aid. The bill passed the house with only three opposing votes, but the senate committee held it until near the end of the session and then reported it with amendments, which changed its character and prevented its passage.

On April 15, 1853 the New York State Agricultural College was incorporated. The act provided that "a farm and grounds belonging and attached to the said college shall consist of not less than 300 acres." The trustees named in the act incorporating the college very soon elected John Delafield president and appointed a committe on its location. Arrangements were made to obtain subscriptions to the capital stock of the institution. Little had been accomplished, however, when the sudden death of Mr. Delafield, October 22, 1853, put an end this enterprise.

The next move was made by the academy at Ovid, New York under the leadership of Rev. Amos Brown (d. 1874). He was born and reared on a small farm at Kensington, New Hampshire. He graduated from Dartmouth College in 1832 and then studied at the Andover Theological Seminary. He

Alfred C. True, op. cit. p. 49.
came to Ovid in 1852 to become principal of the academy there. The school had been chartered in 1826. Brown and his friends secured from the New York Legislature on March 31, 1856, a loan of forty thousand dollars ($40,000) for twenty-one years, for the establishment of an agricultural college on condition that an equal amount be raised by subscription. It was stipulated that the college should be located in Seneca County and should include a farm of three hundred acres. This arrangement fitted in well with Brown's plans, as he had desired for a long time to connect an agricultural college with the academy. Largely through Brown's efforts forty-seven thousand dollars ($47,000) was subscribed and the trustees purchased six hundred and eighty-six acres of land at Ovid.

Provision was made for professors of chemistry, mathematics, philosophy, and astronomy. A course was also planned covering three years, divided into two terms from April 15, to November 1, and December 1, to March 1. A college building had been partially erected when the college opened on December 5, 1860. But the Civil War broke out before the end of the school year and Major Patrick, the president of the College, went into the Army. The school was closed and efforts to reopen it after the war did not succeed. Ultimately the State was forced to take over the farm and buildings, which were used as a hospital for the insane.

In 1850 a movement for a People's College was begun in New York by Harrison Howard, a member of the Mechanics' Mutual Protection Society. Howard aroused interest in a project for the establishment of a school for educating mechanics. His proposal interested many important men of the State, including such men as Horace Greeley, editor of the New York Tribune.

and T. C. Peters, editor of the *Wool Grower*. Peters urged the mechanics and farmers of New York to combine their efforts in an attempt to establish an institution suited to their needs. On August 12, 1851, such an organization was realized, when a group of farmers and mechanics, organized the People’s College Association at Lockport, New York. Through the influence of Peters, Greeley, and others, a plan for a People’s College was outlined, in which science related to agriculture and mechanical arts would be taught.

When fifty thousand dollars ($50,000) was subscribed and paid (of the hundred thousand dollars ($100,000) which was to be raised by dollar subscriptions, from the estimated 125,000 mechanics in New York), the trustees were to locate the college. Subscriptions to the stock, however, went on slowly and it was not until 1856 that Charles Cook, of Havana, made a proposition to make up the remainder of the fifty thousand dollars ($50,000) required for the location of the college. As a result the college was located at Havana. On April 12, 1853 a bill was passed, incorporating “the People’s College for the purpose of promoting literature, science, arts, and agriculture.” Erection of buildings began in 1857 at Havana (now Mount Falls), Schuyler County, New York. Rev. Amos Brown was appointed president of the college in August, 1858, and Charles Cook was made chairman of the executive and building committees.

In April, 1862, the legislature appropriated to the college ten thousand dollars ($10,000) a year for two years, “but on technical grounds the controller refused to pay this sum.” Largely through the efforts of Mr. Cook and President Brown an act giving the Federal land-grant fund to this college
was passed by the New York Legislature on May 14, 1863. The act contained conditions, however, which the People's College could not meet and this enterprise came to an end. In 1872, Elbert W. Cook, a younger brother of Charles Cook, turned over to the Baptist State Convention the main building and forty acres of land of People's College, together with over forty thousand dollars ($40,000) endowment to establish Cook Academy. The academy was chartered with a board of trustees and opened for students on September 17, 1873. Since 1925 Cook Academy has been maintained as a standard secondary school, serving also as a high school for the village of Montour Falls.

The Movement in Michigan. As early as 1844 Jonathan Shearer ably advocated "the more thorough education of the farmers" in the magazine, the Michigan Farmer. In 1849 State and county agricultural societies began to appeal to the legislature for funds for agricultural education. Their appeal to the legislature explained that "a labor school" was contemplated which "should be attached to, or form a branch of the State university." As a result of this appeal the legislature passed a resolution on April 22, 1850, asking Congress to give Michigan three hundred and fifty thousand acres of land for agricultural schools.

In 1852 the Michigan State Agricultural Society (organized in 1849) 35

This was done, however, on condition that within three years the college should meet all the requirements of the Morrill Act, should have at least ten professors, a farm of 200 acres supplied with stock and agricultural machinery, a building for at least 250 students, a suitable library and all needed scientific apparatus. An investigation by a committee of the regents of the University of the State of New York in February, 1865, showed that the college was unable to meet the conditions imposed by the legislature. Its faculty was, therefore, disbanded that year. On April 27, 1865 a bill was passed by the New York Legislature establishing Cornell University at Ithaca and giving it the entire land-grant fund for New York.

again appealed to the legislature to establish a "State Agricultural College."
The act of March 25, 1850, relative to the normal school at Ypsilanti, pro-
vided that this institution should "give instruction in the mechanic arts
and in the arts of husbandry and agricultural chemistry." When this school
was established in 1852, it made an effort to give instruction in agriculture.

The State superintendent of public instruction urged the State agri-
cultural society to approve the teaching of agriculture at the normal school
on the ground that "a concentration of the means afforded by the State for
the advancement of agriculture must be considered an object of importance,
at all events, for years to come." Henry P. Tappan, Chancellor of the State
university, informed the society on March 14, 1853 that an agricultural school
had been organized at the University of Michigan. But a committee of the
Michigan State Agricultural Society passed a resolution on December 12, 1854
"that an agricultural college should be separate from any other institution."
This was followed by a memorial to the legislature, which was petitioned to
take action on the resolution without delay. On February 12, 1855, a bill
was passed by the legislature, which established the Agricultural College
of the State of Michigan as a separate institution under the supervision
of the State board of education, on a large farm near Lansing and directed
that "the chief purpose and design of the college shall be to improve and
* teach the science and practice of agriculture".

The Movement in Maryland. The Maryland Agricultural Society was or-
ganized in 1818 "for the Eastern Shore" of the State. This society developed

Further development of the agricultural movement in Michigan will be
found in Alfred C. True's book entitled A History of Agricultural Education
in the United States.
into the Maryland State Agricultural Society in 1848. In 1852 a committee on agricultural education of the State agricultural society reported in favor of the establishment of a professorship of agricultural chemistry at St. John's College at Annapolis, Maryland. The next year this recommendation was modified to include professorships of natural history and chemistry and a practical farmer at some existing college.

On March 6, 1856, the Maryland Legislature passed "An act to establish and endow an agricultural college in the State of Maryland." Funds for the college were to be raised by stock subscriptions and the stockholders were to constitute the corporation, which would elect twenty-two trustees representing the several counties and the city of Baltimore. Nearly five hundred persons made subscription within a short time and the institution was organized. A farm of four hundred and twenty-eight acres in Prince George's County, within ten miles from Washington, D. C. (the present site of the University of Maryland at College Park) was purchased and the cornerstone of the main building was laid on August 24, 1858. The college opened for students in September, 1859.

In 1865 the college was given the income from the Federal land-grant act, and in 1866 the legislature granted it forty-five thousand dollars ($45,000), in three annual installments, for the payments of its debts and the purchase of furniture and apparatus, but on condition that the State of Maryland be made "equal joint owner of all the property of the college."

In 1914 the legislature passed an act to fore-close the mortgage on the college property held by the state. By this action the State, which already owned a half interest, took over the balance, with the consent of the private stock holders, and thus the college became wholly a public institution. In 1916 its title was changed to the Maryland State College of Agriculture,
and in 1920 the institution was combined with the other schools in the University of Maryland.

The Movement in Pennsylvania. Under the leadership of the Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture a convention, held at Harrisburg, on January 21, 1851, organized the Pennsylvania State Agricultural Society. A committee of the society was appointed on January 18, 1853, to consider the expediency of creating a school to be called "The Farmers' High School of the State of Pennsylvania." The committee reported in favor of holding a convention of delegates from the local agricultural societies and other friends of agricultural education. This convention met at Harrisburg on March 8, 1853, and unanimously adopted a resolution favoring the establishment of a school "for the education of farmers," and appointed a committee to appeal to the legislature. The resolution of the State convention of agricultural societies was put before the legislature by Frederick Watts in January, 1854. An act was passed on April 13, 1854, incorporating an institution with the above name. This was to be "an institution for the education of youth in various branches of science, learning, and practical agriculture as they are connected with each other." The school was to have a farm of at least two hundred acres, but the income from its property was not to exceed twenty-five thousand dollars ($25,000).

The legislature gave to the school ten thousand dollars ($10,000) in 1855, and the State agricultural society undertook to raise an equal amount. The trustees considered various propositions for the location of the school, but finally accepted General Irvin's donation of two hundred acres of land in Centre County (the present site of the Pennsylvania State College), to-

38 Alfred C. True, op. cit. p. 68.
gether with ten thousand dollars ($10,000) from the people of that County.

On May 20, 1857, the legislature gave to the school twenty-five thousand dollars ($25,000) to be offset by an equal amount already secured by subscription. This act also provided that "an office should be established at the school for the analysis of soils and manures sent in by citizens and that reports of experiments with plants, soils, and livestock should be sent to at least one paper in each county monthly, or as soon as results were available."

Financial troubles growing out of the advent of Civil War made it very difficult to secure the funds which were necessary for the continuance of the school, but on April 18, 1861, an act was passed by the legislature granting forty-nine thousand and nine hundred dollars ($49,900) to the school to complete its building program. The terms of the charter of the school made it possible under State law to change its name by court order, and on May 1, 1862, it became the Agricultural College of Pennsylvania. The school continued to have this name until January 26, 1874, when by a similar process it became the Pennsylvania State College. The changes of the name of this institution may be considered as representing the growth of the ideas of its managers and the public regarding its status in the educational system of the State.

The Movement in Illinois. In Illinois the movement which ultimately led to the establishment of the University of Illinois, with its college of agriculture, centers in Jonathan S. Turner (d. 1898). He was born at Templeton, Massachusetts, in 1805, brought up on a farm, studied at Salem Academy, and graduated from Yale College in 1833. He was a professor in

Ibid. p. 69.
the Illinois College at Jacksonville from 1833 to 1848, when on account of failing health he returned to the farm.

Through the influence of Professor Turner the first of five conferences of Illinois farmers met at Granville on November 13, 1851 to consider what action might be taken for the establishment of a university in Illinois which "would meet the needs of the industrial classes in the State." The immediate cause for this meeting was the agitation in the State regarding the disposal of the "college and seminary fund" of about one hundred and fifty thousand dollars ($150,000) and seventy-two sections of land, which had accumulated from the sale of the State's public lands and the Federal land-grant in accordance with the "enabling act" of 1813. A considerable number of private colleges in the State thought they ought to share in the fund, but there was strong opposition to its use for this purpose by the industrial and agricultural classes of the State. Turner suggested, therefore, that this money be applied "to meet the needs of the working class since other classes were already provided for in other types of schools."

Influenced by Turner, the first farmers' convention expressed approval of the education which provided for those who aspired to the learned professions and then formulated the common man's educational Bill of Rights of which the three most notable declarations follow:

1. As representatives of the Industrial classes, including all cultivators of the soil, artisans, mechanics, and merchants, we desire the same privileges and advantages for ourselves and our posterity in each of our several pursuits and callings, as our professional brethren enjoy in theirs.

2. The institutions originally and primarily designated to meet the wants of the professional classes as such cannot, in the nature of things, meet ours, anymore than the institution we desire to establish for ourselves, meet theirs.
Immediate measures should be taken for the establishment of a university in the State of Illinois, expressly to meet these felt wants of each and all of the industrial classes of our State.

Turner's plan for an industrial university was based, however, on the presumption that society is made up of two classes, professional and industrial.

The second conference of Illinois farmers resulted in a petition to the Illinois Legislature asking that the "college and seminary fund" be devoted to a single institution maintained by the State and suggesting an appeal to Congress "for an appropriation of public lands for each State in the Union for the appropriate endowment of universities for the liberal education of the industrial classes in their several pursuits." During the next two years three other conventions were held to promote the adoption of Turner's plan for an "industrial university." The third conference resulted in the organization of the Industrial League of the State of Illinois, with Turner as director. Its main purpose was to "raise funds for disseminating information on the subject, of an industrial university in this State." In 1853 (when the fourth conference was held at Chicago) a memorial of this character was addressed directly to Congress. Turner and other members of the Industrial League supported the petition by systematic campaigns of publicity.

On February 21, 1862, the Illinois Legislature granted a charter for the Urbana-Champaign Institute, as "a seminary of learning, comprehending an agricultural or other departments as the public may demand." No State aid was given to this institution. The Civil War brought financial dif-

ficulties and work on the seminary building was suspended. After the passage of the land-grant act of 1862 the project to use this building for the agricultural and mechanical college was revived. On May 4, 1864, the board of supervisors of Champaign County passed a resolution which requested the legislature to locate such a college in that county and thereby entered into the negotiations with the Urbana-Champaign Institute to purchase the seminary property if the legislature granted their request. An agent of Champaign County visited Springfield on December 6, 1864, to confer with a committee of farmers who were advocating the establishment of an "industrial university." He succeeded in his attempt to amend their (farmers' committee) bill which would locate such a university at Urbana. A joint committee of the legislature visited Urbana on January 21, 1865 and reported favorably on the offer of Champaign County, which included the completed seminary building and grounds and one hundred acres of land.

In September, 1865, the supervisors of Champaign County decided to submit to the people a proposition to bond the county for one hundred thousand dollars ($100,000) to purchase the seminary building and a farm for the industrial university and to bear other necessary expenses to secure the location of the university in that county. Through the persistent efforts of Champaign County forces, the legislature located the university at Urbana.

The plan of Professor Turner for an "industrial university" materialized on February 28, 1867, when an act was passed by the legislature, providing for the organization and maintenance of the Illinois Industrial University. Largely through the influence of the alumni, the name of the institution was changed to University of Illinois in 1885.

41 Alfred C. True, op. cit. p. 183.
It was Professor Jonathan B. Turner who, along with Rev. Amos Brown and Congressman Justin S. Morrill, became most active in the dissemination of publicity for the passage of the national land-grant act of 1862. The influence of these men in this connection is shown in the succeeding pages of this chapter.

**Origin and Enactment of the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862.** Jonathan B. Turner's plan for industrial universities was brought to the attention of the United States Agricultural Society, which at its meeting on February 2, 1853, adopted a resolution favoring a Federal department of agriculture with a cabinet officer at its head. The author of the resolution was Richard Yates, then a Congressman from Illinois, and a former student of Professor Turner. In 1851 Turner's plan for an industrial university in each State of the Union attracted wide attention throughout the country and this interest was intensified by the adoption of the fourth Illinois farmers' convention in 1853 of a resolution that Congress be asked to use the "proceeds of the sale of public lands to endow educational institutions." On February 8, 1853, the Governor of Illinois approved a resolution unanimously passed by both houses of the State legislature, asking the support of Congress in the public land educational project. An excerpt from that resolution follows:

Resolved, by the House of Representatives, the Senate concurring herein, That our Senators in Congress be instructed, and our Representatives be requested, to use their best exertions to procure the passage of a law of Congress donating to each State in the Union an amount of public lands not less in value than five hundred thousand dollars, for the liberal endowment of a system of industrial universities, one in each State of the Union.

This memorial to Congress from the Illinois Legislature was presented in the House of Representatives at Washington on March 20, 1854, by Congressman Elihu B. Washburne and in the Senate by Senator James Shields.

42. Ibid. p. 91.
where it was referred to the Committee on Public Lands. Congress, however, took no action on this resolution.

On April 14, 1854, Congressman Yates then asked Professor Turner to prepare a bill which would embody his plan for industrial universities in the various states. Turner prepared such a bill, but Yates was not re-elected and nothing further was done in Congress with this matter during President Pierce's administration. President Pierce had shown his opposition to land-grants, however, by vetoing in 1854 a bill which carried such a grant for the support of the indigent insane.

Meanwhile Turner and his associates were active in disseminating information and arousing interest regarding the proposal of Federal endowments of industrial universities. President Tappan, of the University of Michigan, approved of Federal aid for education, and on his invitation Professor Turner addressed an educational meeting at Detroit in August, 1856. When James Buchanan became President of the United States in 1857, the friends of Federal land grants for industrial universities decided to bring this matter again to the attention of Congress. On October 7, 1857, Turner wrote Senator Lyman Trumbull, of Illinois, that "in conversation with Senator Douglas on the cars the other day he expressed his opinion that such a grant could be obtained at the next session." Turner then followed this up by sending Douglas a copy of a pamphlet which concerned a plan for industrial universities. Senator Trumbull wrote to Professor Turner on October 19, 1857, as follows:

Since receipt of your letter I have reread the pamphlet in regard to industrial universities. The idea is a grand one, if it could be carried out and made practical.
The author and successful promoter of the National land-grant act of July 2, 1862 was Justin Smith Morrill, who entered Congress as a Representative from Vermont on December 4, 1855. He was born on a farm at Strafford, Vermont, on April 14, 1810, and was the eldest son of Nathaniel and Mary (Hunt) Morrill. His father was a country blacksmith, and like many mechanics of his time he owned and operated a farm.

When Morrill had completed the elementary course in a small, red school house in Strafford, he went for one term to Thetford Academy and another term to Randolph Academy. At the age of fifteen, he entered on the career of a merchant because he was told that thus he might be "more sure of an independence." In 1834 he accepted a proposition made by Judge Harris and became his partner. Their business soon expanded until they had four stores— one near the Canadian line. Six years later the firm of Morrill, Young and Company was formed and by 1848 this and other business undertakings of Mr. Morrill had proved so successful that he retired and settled down to manage a small farm.

As early as 1844 Morrill was Chairman of the Orange County Whig committee; then he became a member of the State committee of that party in 1848 and a delegate to its national convention at Baltimore in 1852. Two years later he was elected a Congressman from Vermont by a plurality of only fifty-nine (59) votes. The closeness of the contest was due to a split in the Whig Party, which was caused by the free-soil movement. This led in 1855 to the formation of the Republican Party, which in Vermont was aided by Morrill. It is not within the purpose of this work to follow in detail Mr. Morrill's legislative career, but a brief statement regarding his work in promoting the Federal land-grant act of 1862 may serve to show the strength of his influence and wisdom.
He was a delegate to the meeting of the United States Agricultural Society in February, 1856, at which the Illinois plan for a Federal land-grant for universities was discussed. On February 28, 1856, Mr. Morrill showed his interest in agricultural education by an unsuccessful attempt to introduce in Congress the following resolution:

That the Committee on Agriculture be requested to inquire into the expediency of establishing one or more National agricultural schools upon the basis as naval and military schools, in order that one scholar from each Congressional district and two from each State at large may receive a scientific and practical education at the public expense.

Just what happened between this action on Mr. Morrill's part and the introduction of his first land-grant bill on December 14, 1857 is not definitely known. Mrs. Mary (Turner) Carriel, daughter of Jonathan B. Turner, in her biography of her father states that after his receipt of a letter of October 19, 1857, from Senator Trumbull, "it was decided to send all documents, papers, and pamphlets to Mr. Morrill with the request that he introduce a bill. This at first he was reluctant to do, but after much persuasion he consented." This is substantially confirmed in a statement of Burt C. Powell who states that J. R. Reasoner, of Urbana, Illinois, told him "that at one time he (Reasoner) had a long conversation on the subject of the land-grant act with Jonathan B. Turner, who told him that he (Turner) had taken the matter of having the bill introduced in Congress to Mr. Morrill."

No evidence, however, has yet been produced to show whether Turner

44 Ibid, p. 97.
himself corresponded with Morrill or sent the papers in this case to some
Representative of Illinois for transmission to Mr. Morrill. On the other
hand, Mr. Morrill has left no written statement which indicates that he
had ever received such papers as described above. But he did state publicly
on several occasions that he did not know where he received the first hint
of his college land-grant bill. This lack of any clear recollection obviously
does not serve to refute the definite statement of Turner's associates.

The first land-grant bill was introduced in the House of Representa-
tives by Representative Morrill on December 14, 1857. The title of this
bill was: "A bill donating public lands to the several States and Territories
which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic
arts." Section one of this bill (H. R. 2) stated:

> Be it enacted by the Senate and the House of
> Representatives of the United States of America in
> Congress assembled, That there be granted to the
> several States and Territories, for the purpose,
> hereinafter mentioned 6,340,000 acres of land, to
> be apportioned to each State a quantity equal to
> 20,000 acres for each Senator and Representative in
> Congress to which the States are now respectively
> entitled, and to each Territory 60,000 acres.

The bill was received by the Committee on Public Lands on December
15, and was printed December 16. It remained in the custody of the com-
mittee four months and was then adversely reported on April 15, 1858, by
Mr. Cobb of Alabama, the chairman. Many of the Southern Representatives
were not in favor of the bill. Since the South was so predominately agri-
cultural it would have seemed easy and natural for public sentiment and
political leaders there to favor a measure likely to result in Federal grants
for agricultural education. But at the same time the South felt very
strongly that anything was inimical to its interests which even to a slight
extent imperiled the doctrine of State rights, which it considered abso-
On April 20, 1838, a pending motion to postpone consideration of the bill permitted Mr. Morrill to deliver a speech submitting a substitute bill to be recommitted to the Committee on Public Lands. He recognized that the chief argument against the bill would be that it was unconstitutional. To offset this he pointed out that under the Constitution of the United States a way had been found to protect and promote commerce, to educate officers for the Army and Navy, to open up fields for internal trade by immense grants to railroads, to protect literary labor by copyright, and to encourage inventors by patents. But the direct encouragement of agriculture had been withheld. This had prevented the improvement of agriculture, with the result that our soils had been widely exhausted through the lack of proper treatment and fertilizers, and our live stock had suffered greatly from diseases which might have been prevented or cured if trained veterinarians had been available. In his speech submitting a substitute land-grant bill for the adversely reported bill of April 13, 1838, Mr. Morrill stated: "Let us have such colleges as may rightfully claim the authority of teachers to announce facts and fix laws, and to scatter and broadcast that knowledge which will prove useful in building up a great nation."

The substitute bill offered by Mr. Morrill differed from the original bill by the omission of all reference to the Territories and by the addition of a provision that "where lands shall be selected from those which have been raised to double the minimum price, in consequence of railroad grants, they shall be computed to the State so selecting at double the quantity." Mr. Morrill's substitute land-grant bill was agreed to as an amendment to the original bill and was passed in the House of Representatives by a vote of 105 to 100. In the Senate the bill was referred to the Committee on
Public Lands and was reported back without recommendations. The bill then went over to the following session of Congress. On February 7, 1859, under the influence of Benjamin Wade, of Ohio, the bill was discussed at great length, and finally passed in the Senate by a vote of 25 to 22. Among the most active opponents of the measure were the Southern Senators: Clay of Alabama, Green of Missouri, Mason of Virginia, and Jefferson Davis of Mississippi. Their chief arguments were based on its alleged unconstitutionality. The greatest hope that President Buchanan would sign the bill "lay in his vote in Congress in 1827 in favor of the bill to grant public land for a deaf and dumb asylum in Kentucky." On February 26, 1859, however, he returned the Morrill land-grant bill to the House of Representatives with a veto message. His reasons for refusing to sign the bill have been well summarized by Dr. Powell of the University of Illinois, as follows:

(1) It was extravagant as its effects would be to deprive the almost depleted Treasury of the five million dollars ($5,000,000) which the sale of public lands was expected to produce during the next fiscal year.

(2) It was impolitic because it would encourage the States to rely upon the Federal Government for aid to which they were not entitled.

(3) It was injurious to the new states since it would force down the value of land scrip and make it possible for speculators to obtain large tracts within their borders.

(4) It was insufficient to assure the promotion of industrial education because, although the State legislatures were required to stipulate that they would apply the land to the purpose for which it had been granted, there was no power in the Federal Government to compel them to execute their trust.

(5) It was unjust since it would interfere with and probably injure colleges already established and sustained by their own effort.

(6) It was unconstitutional since there was no grant of power to the Federal Government to expand public money or public lands for the benefit of the people in the various States.

After the veto message of President Buchanan had been delivered in the House, Mr. Morrill in a brief and forceful speech asked for reconsideration of the bill. When the final vote was taken, one hundred and five (105) Representatives voted for and ninety-four (94) against the measure, and thus the veto of the President was not overruled.

Though greatly disappointed at the unsuccessful outcome of the great and widespread efforts in behalf of the first college land-grant bill, Mr. Morrill and friends of this measure did not lose hope of the final passage of a similar measure. A presidential election was approaching and its results might turn the scale in favor of such Federal grants for education. The United States Agricultural Society discussed the matter at its meeting in Washington in January, 1860, but an attack by one of its members on President Buchanan prevented favorable action by this body. In Illinois the State agricultural and horticultural societies joined in calling a meeting at Bloomington on June 27, 1860 to which representatives of all agricultural, horticultural and mechanical associations in the State were invited. The following resolution prepared by a committee of which Professor Turner was chairman was adopted by the representatives of these societies:

Resolved, That this convention hereby request the executive committees of our State agricultural and horticultural societies to appoint a committee whose duty it shall be to memorialize Congress to grant to each of the States of the Union such aid as was contemplated in the bill called the "Morrill bill," which passed the House and Senate at a recent session———.

Believing that Abraham Lincoln would be nominated for President of the United States, Turner asked him to support the college land-grant bill. Lincoln is said to have replied: "If I am elected, I will sign your bill for State universities." Stephen A. Douglas also assured Turner: "If I am elected, I will sign your bill." Douglas followed this up, after Lincoln had defeated him for the Presidency, by writing to Turner in June 1861, for his plan for an "industrial university" and its history in order that he might introduce the bill at the next session of Congress. But his death, in the meantime, prevented even a reply by Turner to this friendly message.

Mr. Morrill introduced in Congress the second college land-grant bill on December 16, 1861. The bill was referred to the Committee on Public Lands, of which Mr. Potter, of Wisconsin, was chairman. Mr. Potter was instructed to report the bill adversely on May 29, 1862. Meanwhile, Senator Wade, of Ohio, had introduced a similar bill in the Senate on May 2, 1862. It is generally believed that the Senator Wade did this by arrangement with Mr. Morrill. This bill was referred to the Committee on Public Lands of which Senator Harlan, of Iowa, a friend of the measure, was chairman. The bill was favorably reported on May 16, with two amendments. Opposition then centered in Senators Lane of Kansas and Wilkinson of Minnesota. The feeling among Senators from the new States that too much land granted under this bill might be located in single States led to the introduction of an amendment by Senator Lane that "not more than 1,000,000 acres should be located in any one of the States; that no such locations should be made before one year from the passage of this act." Senator Lane contended that this amendment was necessary to prevent non-residents from acquiring "every foot of valuable public lands in Kansas before the State could select her
school lands or get her share of railroad lands." This amendment was sup­ported by Senator Wilkinson, who expressed his belief that without it the bill would interfere with the operation of the homestead act which had just passed Congress, and that "speculators would get the scrip and locate the best lands, against the interest of soldiers serving at this time in the Union Army."

So much sentiment in favor of Senator Lane's amendment was aroused in the Senate that Senator Wade, who was in charge of the bill, said on May 30, that he would not oppose it. The amendment above cited was adopted with another by Senator Collamer, of Vermont, on June 10. Collamer's amendment states that "no State shall be entitled to the benefits of this act unless it shall express its acceptance thereof by its legislature within two years from the date of its approval by the President of the United States." This amendment was aimed probably at the Southern States, which were then in re­bellion against the Union. An amendment of Senator Pomeroy, of Kansas, that all scrip issued should bear upon its face a statement that it was issued under this law, that no assignment of the scrip should be valid unless it was annexed to the face of the scrip, and furthermore that no one person should receive an assignment of more than six hundred and forty acres, was finally adopted by the Senate by a vote of 32 to 7. The bill was passed in the House on June 17 by a vote of 90 to 25, and the long struggle to ob­tain this land grant for colleges was finally over.

President Lincoln signed this second college land-grant bill on July 2, 1862, having already on May 15 approved the bill creating the United States Department of Agriculture. The act of 1862 was practically the same measure as the bill of 1857. The important differences were: (1) the omissions of the territories; (2) the increase of the land grant for
each member of Congress from 20,000 to 30,000 acres; (3) the exclusion of the benefits to States while in the act of rebellion; and (4) the requirement to teach military tactics.

The enactment of this Federal legislation, frequently called the First Morrill Act of 1862, provided for the establishment of the most comprehensive system of scientific, technical, and practical higher education the people of this country had ever known. Three most important features of this act are:

(1) That there be granted to the several states an amount of public land equal to 30,000 acres for each Senator and Representative in Congress to which the states are respectively entitled by the apportionment under the census of 1860. That the land aforesaid shall be apportioned to the several states in sections or subdivisions of sections, not less than one quarter of a section; and whenever there are public lands in a state subject to sale at private entry at $1.25 per acre, the quantity to which said state shall be entitled shall be selected from such lands within the limits of such states; and the Secretary of the Interior is hereby directed to issue to each of the states in which there is not a quantity of public lands subject to sale at private entry at $1.25 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 state and the proceeds thereof applied to the uses and purposes prescribed in this act, and for no other use of purpose whatsoever.

(2) That the proceeds of the land-grant sales are to be devoted 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 mechanic arts in such a 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 of life.

The third and most important feature of the Morrill Act of 1862 obligated the states to maintain the endowment intact, without diminution and to replace it if lost. Thus, the Federal Government actually established the land-grant colleges through endowments from grants of public lands.
and then made it incumbent upon the various states to furnish the necessary additional funds for their future development and expansion. On this particular point the Act reads as follows:

(3) That all monies derived from the sale of the lands by the states to which lands are apportioned, and from the sale of land scrip hereinbefore provided for shall be invested in stocks of the United States or of the states, or some other safe stocks; and that the monies so invested shall constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which shall remain forever undiminished—and the interest to which shall be inviolably appropriated by each state which may take and claim the benefit of this act.

That 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 fund shall remain forever undiminished; and the annual interest shall be regularly applied without diminution to the purpose heretofore mentioned, 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. No portion of said fund, nor the interest thereon, shall be applied, directly or indirectly, under any pretense whatever to the purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or buildings.

Two amendments to the land-grant act of July 2, 1862 have been added. On July 23, 1866, an act was approved, which extended the limit of the time of acceptance of the land grant to three years from the passage of this act, and the establishment of the colleges to five years after the filing of acceptance in the General Land Office, and providing that when any Territory shall become a State, it shall be entitled to the benefits of this act by expressing acceptance within three years after its admission to the Union, and providing a college or colleges within five years after such acceptance, and providing further that any State which has heretofore accepted the act
shall have five years to provide at least one college after the time for doing this named in the act of July 2, 1862 shall have expired." On March 3, 1883 an act was passed which permitted States having no State stock to invest the proceeds of the sale of the land scrip "in any other manner after the legislatures of such States shall have assented there-to," and engaged that land-grant fund shall yield not less than five per cent and that the principal shall forever remain unimpaired.

States' Acceptance of the Morrill Act of 1862. The first state to accept the terms of the Morrill Land-Grant Act was Iowa, on September 11, 1862, Vermont accepted the Act on October 29, and was followed by Connecticut on December 24, of the same year. Fourteen States accepted the Act in 1863, followed by two in 1864, one in 1865, six in 1866, four in 1867, three in 1868, one in 1869, and two in 1870. Within a period of eight years after the passage of the Morrill Act of 1862, thirty-six states had agreed to carry out its provision for the establishment of a new type of college in this country.

The Southern States which were then in rebellion against the Federal Government and could not, therefore, benefit by the provisions of the Act found themselves unable to comply with its terms until after the termination of the Civil War in 1865. After the War, however, these states rapidly accepted the terms of the Act and by 1870 all of them had agreed to receive the Federal land grants and to organize the type of college for which such grants were available. Three general plans were followed by the states in their effort to fulfill the provisions of the Morrill Act. Some states assigned their land-grant fund to private colleges within their borders; others gave it to their state
universities; while another group of states used the fund to establish separate agricultural and mechanical colleges within their borders, many of which later became state universities. Colleges for Negroes in Virginia, Mississippi, Kentucky, and South Carolina received a small portion of the land-grant fund, as will be shown in the next chapter of this narrative.

Summary. It was the purpose of this chapter to trace in a broad outline the historical development of the American system of agricultural education by noting briefly some of the more important factors which have contributed to this development from the latter part of the sixteenth to the latter part of the nineteenth century. We began with the revival of the scientific attitude and method, beginning roughly with Copernicus' published system of the universe in the year 1543 and then considered the influence of such factors as (1) the development of agricultural education in Europe; (2) early agricultural schools in Europe; (3) early agricultural societies in Europe; (4) early agricultural societies in the United States; (5) early American State boards of agriculture; (6) the lyceum and manual-labor movements; (7) the broadening of the American college curriculum after 1800; (8) the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute; (9) agricultural work in the early, private, American colleges; and (10) the development of a definite movement for public support for American agricultural education, including a brief mention of such a movement in New York, Michigan, Maryland, and Illinois, and a rather broad view of the origin and enactment of the Morrill Act of 1862 and the acceptance of this act by the thirty-six states by 1870.

So far only a very scanty mention has been made of Negroes and their relationship with the land-grant act of 1862. It will be the purpose of the next chapter to consider more in detail the influence of the first Morrill
Act of 1862 upon Negroes, especially in the South. We shall consider also the origin and enactment of the second Morrill Act of 1890, and the early history of Negro land-grant colleges up to about 1900.
CHAPTER III

ORIGIN AND EARLY HISTORY OF THE COLLEGES, FROM 1862 TO 1900

The Negro land-grant college actually came into existence as a result of the first and second Morrill Acts. As we have seen, the First Morrill Act, which was passed July 2, 1862, gave to each of the several states thirty thousand acres of the public domain for each senator and representative to which it was entitled in Congress. The states within whose borders there was not enough public land received land scrip to make up the balance. The money derived from the sale of these grants was to constitute an endowment fund, the interest of which was to be used for the establishment and maintenance of a college of agriculture and mechanical arts. Unfortunately, the first Morrill Act of 1862 did not provide for a division of Federal funds on racial lines. As a result of this omission, the funds received by the Southern states from the sale of the land given to them by the Federal Government were, in most cases, used for the development of colleges which Negroes were not allowed to attend.

Establishment of the Four Negro Land-Grant Colleges out of the Funds Derived from the First Morrill Act of 1862. Shortly after the Civil War three states, however, set aside a portion of their funds for the support of land-grant colleges to serve their Negro population. In 1871 the state of Mississippi received $188,928 for its scrip under the Morrill Act of 1862. It gave three-fifths of this amount to what was then called Alcorn University.

* Negotiable certificates issued by the Federal Government, each entitling the holder to become the owner of a certain amount of public land.

and the remaining two-fifths to the University of Mississippi, which was designated as the white land-grant college of the state. In 1874 the legislature of Mississippi transferred the Federal fund to Oxford University, another Negro school in Mississippi, because, with the regular state appropriation added to the land-grant fund, Alcorn's income was greater than its needs. In 1878, however, the grant was returned to Alcorn University. In the same year, the Mississippi Legislature converted this school into a State Negro land-grant institution and changed its name to Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.

The second State to provide support for a Negro land-grant college from land-grants made under the original Morrill Act of 1862 was Virginia. This state received 300,000 acres of scrip from the Federal Government, and in 1872 it was disposed of for the sum of $285,000.00. After a somewhat prolonged debate in the State legislature over the question, an act was finally passed for the division of the income between a white and a colored land-grant college. The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, a private Negro school, was named as the Negro land-grant college to receive one-half of the yield of the endowment, while the other half was assigned to the white college at Blacksburg. This arrangement continued until 1920, when the Virginia Legislature decided to concentrate the Federal funds on its Negro State-operated institution located at Ettricks, known then as the Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute. In 1926 the name of this institution was changed to Virginia State College for Negroes. The income from the land-grant endowment was, therefore, withdrawn from the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute and assigned to the new institution.

The third state to establish a Negro land-grant college was South Carolina. In 1872 the scrip granted to that state by the Federal Government was for $191,800.00. The reconstruction legislature, controlled by Negroes, granted the income of this fund to Claflin University, a school established and maintained by the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. For some reason the fund was used for other than educational purposes, thus depriving Claflin of the expected income. In 1896 South Carolina established the Colored Normal, Industrial, and Mechanical College as a state institution in Orangeburg, where Claflin is located, and transferred the land-grant money to that institution.

Although Kentucky assigned a part of its land-grant fund under the Morrill Act of 1862 to a Negro school, no action was taken until 1879 when it granted one-twelfth of the income from its share of the Federal fund to the Kentucky State Industrial School at Frankfort, which was later called the Kentucky State Industrial College.

It is evident from the foregoing sketch that only a very small beginning had been made under the first Morrill Act of 1862 toward the establishment of land-grant colleges for Negroes. The real incentive came with the enactment by Congress of the second Morrill Act in 1890.

Second Morrill Act of 1890. Senator Morrill introduced the second college land-grant bill in the Senate on April 30, 1890. This bill was "to apply a portion of the proceeds of the public lands to the more complete endowment and support of the land-grant colleges." It carried an appropriation of fifteen thousand dollars ($15,000.00) to each State and Territory and an annual increase of this sum by one thousand dollars ($1,000.00) for ten years, after which the annual

appropriation would be twenty-five thousand dollars ($25,000.00). No dis-
tinction of race, or color was to be made in the admission of students; but
an exception was made for the Southern states, which will be explained later.
Reports of finances and work were to be made annually to the Secretaries of
Agriculture and the Interior. None of the Federal fund was to be spent "for
the purchase, erection, preservation, or repairs of buildings." The Secre-
tary of the Interior was charged with the administration of the Act.

This bill was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor of which
Senator Blair was the Chairman, and was favorably reported by him, with amend-
ments, on May 17, 1890. The amended bill was passed by the Senate on June 23
"by almost an unanimous vote." The next day the bill was read in the House of
Representatives and referred to the Committee on Education, by which it was
favorably reported, without amendment, on July 2, 1890. It was passed by the
House, with an amendment, by a vote of 135 to 39. The amendment adopted in the
House restricted the use of the Federal funds to the teaching of "agriculture,
the mechanic arts, the English language, and the various branches of mathe-
matical, physical, natural and economic science, with special reference to
their applications in the industries of life and to the facilities for such
instruction." The Senate approved of this amended bill on August 20, and the
bill was signed by President Harrison on August 30, 1890.

The Nelson Amendment to the Act of 1890 was passed by Congress on Feb-
uary 21, 1907 and was approved by President Theodore Roosevelt on March 4,
1907. This measure provided each State and Territory with an additional
appropriation under the terms of the Morrill Act of 1890. This fund began
with five thousand dollars ($5,000.00) the first year and five thousand
dollars ($5,000.00) more each year for four years, after which the annual
sum was to be twenty-five thousand dollars ($25,000.00).
One section of this amendment states that the land-grant institutions "may use a portion of this money for providing courses for the specific preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and mechanic arts." Therefore, the Nelson Amendment permitted the land-grant colleges to use the Federal funds appropriated by the acts of 1890 and 1907 for instruction not only in basic courses in agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics but also in courses intended as preparation for teaching these subjects. The usefulness of the Nelson Amendment was further expanded by the ruling that the funds could be used in providing supervision and special aid to teachers in service, and to the instruction of teachers of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics in summer schools. Therefore, the Morrill Act of 1890, with its Nelson Amendment of 1907, has now increased the Federal grants to fifty thousand dollars ($50,000.00) annually to each state. The Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935 made still further increases and the amount now authorized annually for the states for their land-grant colleges totals five million dollars ($5,000,000.00). These allotments for general maintenance are annual cash grants in a flat sum, except that the Bankhead-Jones Act provides some funds for the general maintenance of the land-grant colleges for distribution on the basis of total population.

It was not until August 30, 1890, when the second Morrill Act was passed that Federal funds were equitably divided in those states where separate schools for two races were maintained. The second Morrill Act of 1890 prohibited payment of any appropriation to any college, where distinction of race or color is made in the admission of students, but allowed through its provisions the establishment of separate colleges for white and colored students.

The language of the Act on this point is as follows:

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 the white and colored students shall be held in compliance with the provision of this act if the funds receive 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 2, 1862 (first Morrill Act), 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 revenues, for the education of colored students in agriculture and the mechanical 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 that 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 1862, 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.

The roll of the seventeen states indicating their acceptance of the terms of the Second Morrill Act of 1890 is given as follows:

(1) Alabama, February 13, 1891 (9) Mississippi, March 30, 1892
(2) Arkansas, April 9, 1891 (10) Missouri, March 13, 1891
(3) Delaware, February 12, 1891 (11) North Carolina, March 6, 1891
(4) Florida, June 8, 1891 (12) Oklahoma, March 10, 1899
(5) Georgia, November 26, 1890 (13) South Carolina, December 24, 1890
(6) Kentucky, January 13, 1893 (14) Tennessee, February 26, 1891
(7) Louisiana, January 23, 1893 (15) Texas, March 14, 1891
(8) Maryland, March 15, 1892 (16) Virginia, March 12, 1693
(17) West Virginia, March 17, 1691


The legal statements as taken from the acts of the legislatures of the seventeen states and prepared by Dr. Walton C. John, Senior Specialist in Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education at Washington, D. C. will be found in the appendix on p. 386.
We have therefore presented the historical facts of the legal establish-
ment of the seventeen separate land-grant colleges for Negroes. The sev-en-
teen institutions, which are, for the most part, the direct result of the
second Morrill Act, are not only unique as a collegiate type in the same sense
as colleges for white students, as established in accordance with the terms
of the National Land-Grant Act of July 2, 1862, but also unique in that the
National Government made it possible for the Southern states to set up separate
land-grant colleges for white and colored students. The data on page 64 will
reveal that within a decade of the passage of the second Morrill Act of 1890
all the states where separate schools for the two races are legally required
had agreed to establish land-grant colleges for Negroes.

An examination of Table I reveals that nine of the seventeen colleges
were established before the passage of the second Morrill Act of 1890.
Table I reveals also that one institution, Georgia State Industrial College,
was established the same year in which the state in which it is located
accepted the terms of the second Morrill Act and seven were established later.

Six of the colleges (located in Kentucky, Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana,
Florida, and Missouri) were established between the period from 1862 to 1889
either as outright state schools or as private schools and become state land-
grant colleges after the passage of either the first or the second Morrill
Acts. Three of the colleges (located in Maryland, Texas, and Mississippi)
were privately established between the period from 1862 to 1889 and were
privately supported, but became either Negro or state Negro land-grant
colleges by being selected to receive the share of the second Morrill land-
grant funds allocated to the education of Negroes in their

* Princess Anne College became a Negro land-grant college in 1892 but
did not become a state institution until 1934.
### Table I*

**Present Names, Location, and Date of Establishment of Land-Grant Colleges for Negroes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Institution***</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Date of Estab.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State A. and M. College</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>1875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. M., and Normal College</td>
<td>Pine Bluff</td>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State College for Colored Students</td>
<td>Dover</td>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida A. and M. College</td>
<td>Tallahassee</td>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia State Industrial College</td>
<td>Industrial College</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky St. Industrial College</td>
<td>Frankfort</td>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>1877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern U. &amp; A. &amp; M. College</td>
<td>Scotlandville</td>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>1880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne Academy#</td>
<td>Princess Anne</td>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>1887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn A. and M. College</td>
<td>Alcorn</td>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>1871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>Jefferson City</td>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>1866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Negro A. &amp; Technical College</td>
<td>Greensboro</td>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>1894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored A. &amp; Normal University</td>
<td>Langston</td>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>1897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Colored N., I., A. &amp; M. College of South Carolina</td>
<td>Orangeburg</td>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>1896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee A. and I. State Teachers College</td>
<td>Nashville</td>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View State N. &amp; I. College</td>
<td>Prairie View</td>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>1879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Va. State College for Negroes</strong></td>
<td>Ettricks</td>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>1883-1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Va. State College</td>
<td>Institute</td>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>1892</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adapted from Table I of an article by J. W. Davis, "The Negro Land-Grant College," *Journal of Negro Education*, vol. II, no. 3, p. 316, July, 1933.

**In 1920 Virginia State College began to receive Federal funds instead of Hampton Institute.**

***A number of the colleges listed have changed their names since establishment.**

#Name was changed to Princess Anne College in 1934.
respective states. The remaining eight colleges (located Delaware, Georgia, North and South Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia) were established either as state Negro land-grant colleges, or as private schools which were later converted into such institutions between the period from 1890 to 1920.

**States' Plans of Establishing Negro Land-Grant Colleges in Accordance with the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890.** As we have already shown, Kentucky and Mississippi had established Negro land-grant colleges under the first Morrill Act so that the proportionate share of funds received by these States under the second Morrill Act were turned over to these institutions. Virginia and South Carolina turned over a portion of the funds derived from the first Morrill Act to private Negro Colleges within their borders on the condition that they would provide the type of education specified in the Act. After the passage of the second Morrill Act, however, these states established their own Negro land-grant colleges and designated them to be the recipients of the funds derived from both the first and the second Morrill Acts.

In the case of Kentucky, a State Normal and Industrial school was designated as the recipient of the funds derived from the first Morrill Act for Negroes in that State, and was made into a State Negro land-grant college in 1886. Five other States, which are mentioned below, adopted the same plan of converting their Negro Normal Schools into Negro land-grant colleges. In 1875 Alabama organized the Huntsville Normal and Industrial School for Negroes at Huntsville. Upon accepting the terms of the second Morrill Act in 1891, the State legislature made this institution the Negro land-grant college of that State. Later its name was changed to the State Agricultural and Mechanical Institution and it was moved to Normal a short distance from Huntsville. Arkansas has been operating the Branch Normal

8 D. O. W. Holmes, op. cit. p. 30-43.
College at Pine Bluff for Negroes under the control of the University of Arkansas since 1872 and designated this institution in 1891 as its Negro land-grant college. In 1922 its name was changed to the Agricultural, Mechanical, and Normal College of Arkansas. Ten years prior to the enactment of the second Morrill Act, the State of Louisiana had established the Southern University for Negroes in the city of New Orleans. Upon the acceptance of the second Morrill Act in 1893, the State legislature made this institution its Negro land-grant college. In 1914 the name was changed to Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College of Louisiana and it was moved to Scotlandville. Florida had been operating a State Normal School for Negroes, since 1887. With the acceptance of the second Morrill Act in 1891 this school was converted into the State's Negro land-grant college. In 1909 it was named the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College. This institution is located at Tallahassee. In the case of Missouri, Lincoln University, formerly known as Lincoln Institute, located at Jefferson City and a State-operated teacher-training school for Negroes, was designated in 1891 as the Negro land-grant college of that State. This institution, established in 1866, was originally a private Negro college.

Two states, Maryland, and Tennessee, adopted the plan of assigning the Federal land-grant funds to private Negro colleges within their borders, with the understanding that they were to provide agricultural, mechanic arts, and other types of education specified in the second Morrill Act. Maryland made a contract with Princess Anne Academy, then a Negro institution on the Eastern Shore of the State and operated as a branch of Morgan College in Baltimore, to provide the Negroes of the State with the instruction specified in the second Morrill Act and paid over the proportionate share of the Federal land-grant funds to it annually. By a subsequent act in
1927, the Negro land-grant work conducted by this school was placed under the control of the University of Maryland, although Princess Anne Academy, itself, remained under the control of Morgan College. In 1934 Maryland purchased Princess Anne Academy from Morgan College and made it a State land-grant college for Negroes in that State. The name of this institution was changed to Princess Anne College in 1937. Upon accepting the terms of the second Morrill Act, the State of Tennessee made arrangements to pay over the proportionate share of the Federal land-grant funds for Negroes in the State to the Knoxville College, a private Negro institution at Knoxville. This college was recognized as the Tennessee Negro land-grant college until 1913 when the State established the Agricultural and Industrial Normal School at Nashville, which became the official Negro land-grant college. Later its name was changed to the Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College.

There were six states that proceeded within a period of seven years after the acceptance of the second Morrill Act to establish either new Negro land-grant colleges under State control or to convert certain private Negro schools within their borders into state Negro land-grant colleges. By an act of the Georgia State Legislature in 1890 the Georgia State Industrial College was organized at Savannah as a branch of the State University for the purpose of educating and training Negro youth in a program embracing the studies required under the Morrill Act 1890. The State General Assembly of Delaware in 1891 passed an act for the establishment of the State College for Colored Students of Delaware, located just outside of Dover, as its Negro land-grant college. In the same year the Legislature of North Carolina organized the Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, which was designated as its Negro land-grant college. The West Virginia Legislature
passed an act also in 1891 establishing the West Virginia Collegiate Institute, and in addition to State support, provided that it should receive a share of the funds under the Morrill Act of 1890. The institution is located a short distance from Charleston, and in 1929 the Legislature changed its name to the West Virginia State College. The Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College, originally a private college, was converted into a state land-grant college by an act of the Texas Legislature in 1891 and became a part of a system of agricultural and mechanical colleges organized by the State at that time. As Oklahoma was a Territory at the time of the enactment of the second Morrill Act, the State did not establish its Negro land-grant college until 1897. In this year the Colored Agricultural and Normal University, located outside of Langston, was organized by an act of the Oklahoma Legislature, but Oklahoma did not accept the provisions of the second Morrill Act until March 10, 1897.

In short, the Southern States adopted four plans in distributing the 1862 and 1890 Morrill land-grant funds among their Negro population. Four states, Virginia, Kentucky, Mississippi, and South Carolina followed Plan I of providing land-grant education from funds derived from the first Morrill Act of 1862, whereby they set aside a portion of their land-grant funds for the purpose of providing agricultural and mechanical education in the private and public (in the case of Kentucky) Negro schools within their borders, and later established State Negro land-grant institutions, which were designated to receive the grants derived from both the first and second Morrill Acts. The Negro land-grant college located in Mississippi was originally a private Negro school until it became a State Negro land-grant college in 1878. The Negro land-grant colleges located in South Carolina and Virginia were
established outright as State Negro land-grant colleges in 1896 and 1920 respectively. Kentucky, originally a State Normal School, became a State Negro land-grant college in 1886.

Five states, Arkansas, Louisiana, Florida, Missouri, and Alabama, followed Plan II whereby they provided agricultural and mechanical education for their colored populations by turning over the money derived from the second Morrill Act of 1890 to their own State-operated institutions for Negroes and thereby made their own colleges into Negro land-grant colleges as well.

Two states, Maryland and Tennessee, followed Plan III, whereby they assigned the funds derived from the second Morrill Act to private Negro colleges within their respective states, with the understanding that they were to provide the type of education specified in the second Morrill Act. As we have already seen, Tennessee established its own Negro land-grant college in 1913 and Maryland converted a private Negro school into a State Negro land-grant College in 1934.

Six states, Georgia, Delaware, North Carolina, West Virginia, Texas, and Oklahoma, followed Plan IV, whereby they proceeded almost immediately upon the acceptance of the terms of the second Morrill Act of 1890 to establish new Negro land-grant colleges under State control. Therefore, the states in this group actually established State colleges and Negro land-grant colleges at the same time. Today each of the seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes is also a state college and receives an annual appropriation from its state in addition to its designated land-grant money and other federal appropriations.

Some Economic Factors Conditioning the Early Development of the Colleges.

In 1862 the United States was in the midst of a Civil War over secession and Negro slavery. It was vitally important for the Government to control and develop the great empire west of the Mississippi River. Congress, therefore passed the Homestead Act of May, 1862, under which sixty-five million acres of
land were settled up to 1880. The railroads received one hundred and fifty-nine million acres between 1850 and 1871, in addition to fifty-five million acres given to them by various states. The war, the westward movement of population to engage in farming, the building of railroads, and the development of villages and cities caused a greatly increased demand for manufactures from 1860 and 1880. After 1860 the United States increasingly became the chief source of food products and raw materials for Europe. The Civil War greatly stimulated agricultural production. Scarcity of labor on the farms induced the use of more machinery, horses, and mules. Even before the War, reapers, mowers, cultivators, seed drills, and other improved machines had come into common use. After the War the variety and number of farm machines in actual use constantly increased.

As soon as the Civil War was over many of the million men who were in the Union Army, together with large numbers of Confederate soldiers, went to swell the huge hosts of natives and immigrants who were settling on the Western lands. The population of the grain States increased over forty percent between 1860 and 1870; and with the rapid building of railroads during the next decade, over two hundred and ninety-seven thousand square miles (an area equal to that of France and Great Britain) were added to the cultivated land of the United States. Improvements in the transportation of grain, general reduction of freight rates, as compared with those prior to the coming of the railroads, and the use of grain elevators also characterized this period.

To the South the Civil War brought disaster and impoverishment. The blockade largely prevented the exportation of cotton and tobacco - the South's two leading crops. The abolition of slavery wiped out the vast values represented by human chattels. Farm equipment was largely ruined. Great numbers
of white Southerners who would have been owners or managers of farms lost
their lives in the war. At first an attempt was made to continue the old
plantation system and this was helped somewhat by the high prices of cotton.
But overproduction soon reduced the price. Negroes were not accustomed to
a wage system of labor and would not work continuously or efficiently. Debts
which were incurred in the reestablishment of the plantation could not be paid
and excessive taxation by the carpet-bag governments made the planters' con­
dition more helpless. Many planters were forced to go out of business and
great tracts of land became idle. It is estimated that the money value of
southern farms declined forty-five percent between 1860 and 1870. Much
land was then purchased in small tracts by white southern farmers and a few
Negroes. The latter, however, were generally content to become tenants and to
work little farms for a share of the crop which was produced. By 1880 about
forty-five percent of the men working on southern farms were whites as compared
to only ten percent before the War. A credit system was established on a large
scale in the South after the Civil War and has ever since kept a multitude of
small farmers, especially Negro farmers, in financial bondage.

The great panic of 1873 was the culmination of a rapid expansion of agri­
culture, manufacturing, and railroad building. The capital of the country had
too largely been locked up in speculative and legitimate enterprises which were
giving little or no return. The efforts of the Federal Government to put money
on a sound basis by contraction of paper currency and the limitation of the
coinage of silver brought about the difficulties which usually accompany deflation.
The great fires in Boston and Chicago helped to make the financial situation
unsually bad. The general result of the situation brought about by this panic
was a great lowering of the prices of merchandise and agricultural products
and of wages and salaries.
Agriculture went on expanding after 1873, however, in the face of considerable economic difficulty. Free public land and cheap private land in the West lured great multitudes of men to seek their fortunes by farming on virgin soils and under freedom of pioneer conditions. The rapid expansion of agriculture, while it gave employment to multitudes of men and made comparatively easy the passage from the status of farm laborer to that of farm owner, constantly tended toward overproduction of crops and livestock. The railroad building which accompanied the agricultural expansion outran the limits of safe business and led to charges for transportation which often seemed unfair to the agricultural people. The necessary sale of farm products through commission merchants, who were often far away and had few personal contracts with the farmers, created suspicions of unfair dealings which were in many cases justified. To these things was added the heavy burden of mortgages with high rates of interest. The farmer, therefore, began to feel that he did not have a fair deal in a country where wealth was tending more and more to accumulate in the hands of a few. Though for a brief time after 1880 the farmers were somewhat more prosperous, the locking up of vast sums of money in farm lands and railroads again caused financial difficulties which culminated in the panic of 1884. At that time the price of wheat fell to sixty cents (60¢) a bushel. Agriculture then remained in a depressed condition until about the turn of the present century. These financial difficulties directly affected the Negro land-grant colleges.

The three originally private schools, located in Virginia, Mississippi, and South Carolina, and the originally public normal and industrial school, located in Kentucky, which became recipients of a part of the funds derived from the first Morrill Act, naturally made some progress in their development along with the rapid expansion of agriculture and manufacturing from 1860 to 1870. These institutions, however, were caught in the midst of the panics of 1873 and 1884, and their progress was, therefore, somewhat retarded from 1970 to 1890.
The five colleges, located in Alabama, Arkansas, Missouri, Florida, and Mississippi, which were established between 1866 and 1887 and operated as State Negro normal schools until after the passage of the second Morrill Act, when they became Negro land-grant colleges in their respective states, and the six colleges, located in Georgia, Delaware, North Carolina, West Virginia, Texas, and Oklahoma, which were established outright as Negro land-grant colleges by their respective states after the passage of the second Morrill Act, and the two private colleges, located in Maryland and Tennessee, which continued until well into the present century as the recipients of a part of the funds derived from the second Morrill Act for Negroes in these States— all these thirteen colleges, although they did not become Negro land-grant schools until after the economic depressions of 1873 and 1884, nevertheless, felt the influence of the panic of 1884, and their progress is not noticeable until after 1900. As we have shown, only one of these thirteen colleges, the Georgia State Industrial College, was established as a land-grant college in the same year that the second Morrill Act was passed. Ten of the remaining twelve colleges were established as Negro land-grant colleges (either out of existing private colleges and state normal schools or newly established state institutions) between 1891 and 1899 and the eleventh located in Tennessee, and the twelfth, located in Maryland, were established and organized in 1913 and 1934 respectively. Therefore, the period from 1890 to 1900 might well be considered as the period of establishment and organization for Negro land-grant colleges, especially those which resulted from the second Morrill Act. Some progress was naturally made in the development of these colleges, as well as those which resulted from the first Morrill Act, from 1890 to 1900, but the real growth and development of these institutions as well as similar institutions
for white students, occurred after 1900, as will be shown in the next chapter. And the delay in growth was due in part at least to the financial stringencies which have been named.

Influence of Private Negro Colleges upon the Development of Negro Land-Grant Institutions. The development of Negro land-grant colleges has been profoundly influenced by private institutions of higher education established in the Southern states. During the decade preceding and following the Civil War, eighteen such colleges for Negroes were organized through private enterprises; and these were missionary and philanthropic in character. Between 1875 and 1890 fourteen additional colleges were founded by the Southern Negro church organizations in the different Southern states and operated under the auspices of church conferences and assemblies. Subsequently other Negro colleges were organized largely through private endowment and support of church organizations. Except for the Hampton Institute, established in 1870, and Tuskegee Institute, founded in 1880, which until 1920 concentrated almost exclusively on teacher-training, vocational and agricultural education of a secondary grade, these colleges devoted themselves to the old academic instruction. The Negro youth prior to 1900 was imbued with the idea that a collegiate education consisted of cultural instruction as embodied in the liberal arts and sciences. A prejudice was, therefore, developed against the practical type of agricultural and mechanic-arts education, which were the principal objectives of the curricula of the newly established Negro land-grant colleges.

The effect of the existence of so many private Negro colleges in the Southern states emphasizing the cultural rather than the practical curriculum prior to 1900, as well as the existence of over three hundred white liberal-arts colleges, resulted in a distortion of the collegiate work of the Negro

land-grant colleges. The attempt to establish industrial and agricultural courses, except on a secondary level, failed too because of the shortage of enrollments and because Negro students in attending college preferred to go to private institutions where a liberal-arts higher education was available. To meet this situation, many of the Negro land-grant institutions concentrated their work on the classical and cultural courses throwing aside, at least temporarily, any efforts to give instruction in agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics of a collegiate grade. Even with this reversal of their objectives, the growth of Negro land-grant colleges was still retarded by the large number of private Negro colleges. Therefore the Negro land-grant colleges prior to 1920 were really to a great degree duplicating what the liberal-arts colleges were doing. We will discuss this point more in detail in the next chapter.

Although data are not available on the enrollments of all Negro colleges in 1900 or 1920, Table II will show the Negro population of the Southern states, including Delaware and West Virginia, the total Negro college enrollments, and the percentage of the total Negro college enrollment actually attending Negro land-grant colleges in 1928. An examination of Table II will reveal that even as late as 1928 (nearly forty years after the passage of the second Morrill Act of 1890) only twenty-seven per cent of all Negro college students was enrolled in Negro land-grant colleges. These enrollment figures clearly indicate the powerful influence of the private Negro colleges upon the development of Negro land-grant colleges.

As shown in Table II, the total enrollment of Negro college students in 1928 in the seventeen states amounted to 12,922 of which 9,395 or 73 per cent, were enrolled in colleges other than Negro land-grant colleges, while only 3,572 students, or 27 per cent, were enrolled in Negro land-grant colleges. In three of the States, the land-grant colleges were the only Negro institutions of higher education so that their percentage of the total enrollment of
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total colored population</th>
<th>Total Negro college enrollments</th>
<th>Enrollment in all Negro colleges except Negro land-grant colleges</th>
<th>Enrollments in Negro land-grant colleges</th>
<th>Percentage of total Negro college students enrolled in land-grant colleges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>892,700</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>503,800</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>29,100</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>441,700</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1,237,800</td>
<td>1,673</td>
<td>*1,567</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>208,800</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>687,400</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>258,400</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>936,656</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>201,300</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>849,800</td>
<td>1,398</td>
<td>**1,241</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>201,100</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>896,200</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>197</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>428,400</td>
<td>2,031</td>
<td>1,461</td>
<td>570</td>
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<tr>
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<td>802,100</td>
<td>2,068</td>
<td>1,350</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>711,900</td>
<td>1,336</td>
<td>952</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>110,200</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Includes enrollments in Georgia Normal Industrial College.  
** Includes enrollments in four State-supported Negro normal schools.  
Negro college students is 100. There are two other cases where the percentage ranges as high as 74 and 70 per cent. In the remaining states, however, a much smaller proportion of the total number of Negro students was enrolled in land-grant colleges. In five states the percentage varied between 20 and 36 per cent, while in six others it was 11 per cent or less. It is possible, therefore, to believe that the existence of the other Negro colleges in these states even as late as 1928 has had the effect of reducing the attendance of Negro land-grant institutions to a material extent.

Lack of An Extensive System of Education. A still greater difficulty encountered by the colleges was the lack of an extensive system of public education for Negroes in the South. For years only a limited number of Negro elementary schools were conducted, and only in the larger communities were public high schools operated. Even as late as 1930, when the National Survey of Secondary Education was made, there were 230 counties in the South with a Negro population of about 12% per cent of the total population without high school facilities for colored children. These counties contained 1,397,304 colored people, 159,939 of whom were between the ages of 15 and 19 years. These young people represented 16.5% of all Negroes between the ages of 15-19 years, in the fifteen Southern states included in the National Survey. From the very beginning, therefore, the major problem of the Negro land-grant colleges was to provide both elementary and secondary education in order to secure properly qualified entrants for their college departments. It has been only within recent years that the backwardness of public-school systems of the Southern states has been largely overcome and the Negro population has been given greater educational

opportunities. As late as 1928 the enrollment of high-school students in Negro land-grant colleges exceeded the enrollment of college students. This fact is illustrated in Table XXIV in the next chapter.

Period Of Uncertainty in Negro Land-Grant Colleges. The period of uncertainty for the land-grant colleges for Negroes began almost as soon as they were accorded legal status. Their educational objectives were seldom realized. The very names of most of the institutions expressed doubt and educational insecurity, as Table I will indicate. One might assume that the objectives, policies, and programs of white land-grant colleges would be carried out in the Negro institutions, since, both were of the same legal source, but the historic background of the Negro college was far different in many respects from that of the white colleges. Confronted with prejudices that existed against the members of the Negro race, with the lack of material resources and possessions, and with the shortage of elementary and secondary schools to prepare Negro students for college, offering an entirely new type of higher education was, therefore, seriously retarded from 1890 to the turn of the present century. Some of the difficulties which made for uncertainty in the beginning of the land-grant colleges for Negroes were:

1. Driving Negroes to work during the slavery period added indignity not dignity to labor. It was, therefore, not easy to persuade the children and grandchildren of slaves in 1890 to accept a type of education which emphasized the practical arts;

2. The private and denominational colleges, in the field long before the land-grant colleges for Negroes were established, had won Negroes over to their cultural curricular offering;
Negro education of all grades suffered because of racial hatred in the Southern states; many white people believed that Negroes were not educable; therefore land-grant colleges for Negroes were forced to work at the educational level of Negroes in the respective states, which necessity prevented them at the beginning from undertaking work of a collegiate type; and

The limitation of educational opportunity for Negroes by status, the restriction of suffrage, and attempts in many ways to minimize the personalities of Negroes had a deadening effect upon the early efforts of the land-grant college for Negroes.

These difficulties caused the Negro land-grant colleges to be uncertain in their educational objectives. The tardiness of approach on the part of Negro land-grant colleges to their special collegiate task and the inadequacy of the collegiate programs of private and denominational colleges to meet the widening educational needs of Negroes caused philanthropic boards to come to the rescue of Negroes in the South.

The long period from 1862 to about the turn of the present century saw many interesting developments in the general field of education for Negroes, some of which were:

1. The splendid contributions to the education of Negroes as made by (a) The Peabody Fund; (b) The Jeanes and Slater Funds; (c) The Phelps-Stokes Fund; (d) The General Education Board; (e) The Russell Sage Foundation; (f) The Carnegie Foundation; (g) The Rosenwald Fund; and (h) The Rockefeller Foundation.

2. The development of a virile leadership in education among Negroes themselves and the acquisition of many new advocates of education for Negroes among

white men and women, particularly in the South;

(3) A more tolerant attitude on the part of the white South as revealed in its willingness to have the facts on the lack of education for Negroes presented; and

(4) The need of education for whites and Negroes as seen by the South because the South was so rapidly becoming industrialized.

These developments helped to bring to a close the period of uncertainty of the land-grant colleges for Negroes.

Summary. It has been the purpose of this chapter to discuss the origin and early history of Negro land-grant colleges from 1862, when the first Morrill Act was passed, to 1900, when there was ushered in a period of general prosperity of American agriculture, which greatly influenced the growth and development of the colleges thereafter. We opened this chapter with a discussion of the four states which made use of a portion of the funds derived from the first Morrill Act of 1862 by either establishing Negro land-grant colleges or by subsidizing certain private Negro colleges, which were obligated to provide the type of education specified in the Act. We then considered the following topics in the order enumerated:

(1) The second Morrill Act of 1890, including the Nelson Amendment of 1907, and the roll call of the seventeen states, indicating the date of their acceptance of the terms of the Morrill Act of 1890;

(2) The plans of the various states in establishing Negro land-grant colleges in accordance with the provision of the Act of 1890;

(3) Some economic factors conditioning the early development of the colleges;

(4) The influence of private Negro colleges upon the development of Negro land-grant institutions;
The influence of the lack of an extensive system of Negro education in the South upon the development of the colleges; and

The period of uncertainty in the development of the colleges.

It is clearly seen, therefore, that Negro land-grant colleges are complementary to the white land-grant colleges. The original Morrill Act did not make any specifications that would insure the certainty of the Negroes' sharing in the provisions of the Act. As we have seen, only four states set aside a portion of the funds which were derived from the first Morrill Act for the education of the Negroes in the states. Sufficient pressure finally expressed itself legally through the second Morrill Act of 1890. This Act specifically provided for the establishment of Negro land-grant colleges in the South. The power of legal pressure was strongly evidenced in the generally immediate organization of Negro land-grant colleges in those Southern states which had previously ignored the Negro in accepting the terms of the first Morrill Act. As we have already indicated, the Federal funds created by the second Morrill Act of 1890 were appropriated either by organizing a new institution, by subsidizing an already-established private school, or creating a merger of the existing State normal school, which became a State land-grant college for Negroes, known as the State Normal or (and) University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.

With this general overview of the origin and early history of Negro land-grant colleges, we are now ready to consider their growth and development from 1900 to 1939. This will be the purpose of the next chapter, which will include also a section on the present status and current practices of the colleges, as they were in 1939.
General Agricultural Conditions Favoring the Growth of Negro Land-Grant Colleges between 1900-1914. By the opening of the twentieth century a period of general prosperity of American agriculture had set in. Economic conditions favored the multiplication and enlargement of industries and the expansion and diversification of agriculture. Settlement in the new agricultural regions in the West increased, and the rising prices of products and lands in the country generally encouraged young men to work on farms and acquire land for the establishment of homes in the country. Special difficulties which hampered production in various regions called attention to the desirability of more scientific farming and the need of a knowledge of the means of controlling plant and animal diseases and insect pests as such means were being developed by the United States Department of Agriculture and the experiment stations of white land-grant colleges.

While the relative number of people engaged in agriculture as compared with the number in other industries decreased, the total number of farmers increased, and conditions, including the invention and wide use of much farm machinery, resulted in a great increase in the efficiency of American farmers as measured by the yield of farm products per man.

The experiment stations and the United States Department of Agriculture were reaching great numbers of the more intelligent farmers and were assembling a great body of tested knowledge for use in the agricultural education. Not only were very many official publications freely distributed, but agricultural journals, manuals, and textbooks were rapidly increasing in numbers and extent.
of distribution.

In the land-grant colleges (Negro and white) agricultural educational facilities were growing larger, and more adequate material equipment for such work was being provided. The general content of the agricultural courses had been fairly well defined comprehensively, and specialization, particularly in the branches connected with agricultural production, was proceeding. There was much discussion of the problems connected with curriculum making for both long and short courses. The number of agricultural students was increasing, and their standing in the colleges and universities was much improved.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

Among the several educational enterprises subsidized by the Federal Government, one of the largest and most significant is the program of Cooperative Extension Work. Operating in over three thousand counties in the United States, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, the Cooperative Extension Service now employs a technically-trained staff of more than nine thousand extension workers. During 1938-39, approximately one million farm men and women participated in its program of agricultural and home economics education, and more than a million rural school children in its boys' and girls' club work. The total costs of this program approximate thirty million dollars ($30,000,000) annually, the bulk of the funds being supplied by the Federal Government. Obviously, any adequate consideration of the

* Unless otherwise noted, all quantitative data here used were supplied by Mr. W. H. Conway, Division of Cooperative Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture.
relations of the Federal Government to the education of Negroes must give major attention to the participation of Negroes in this vast educational enterprise known as the Cooperative Extension Service. But we shall first consider the Act itself.

SMITH-LEVER ACT OF 1914

The Smith-Lever Cooperative Extension Act not only greatly increased the extension work of the land-grant colleges but it also fundamentally changed their relations with the Federal Government and with the rural communities throughout the States. In its title and in its terms this Act provides definitely for close cooperation between the State colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture. The nature of the work and the cooperation contemplated are clearly set forth as follows:

That cooperative agricultural extension work shall consist of the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges in the several communities, and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications, and otherwise; and this work shall be carried on in such manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the State agricultural college or colleges receiving the benefits of this act.¹

Ten thousand dollars are appropriated to each State accepting the provisions of the Act and additional sums in proportion to the States' relative rural population out of lump-sum appropriations from the Federal Treasury, beginning with six hundred thousand dollars ($600,000) in 1915 and increasing by five hundred thousand dollars ($500,000) annually for seven years, after which this additional fund is annually to be four million and one hundred thousand dollars ($4,100,000). But the State will receive only so much of its annual allotment from this additional fund as is matched

by sums derived from sources within the State. Subsequent legislation, including the Clarke-McNary Act, the Capper-Ketcham Act, and the Bankhead-Jones Act, increased the amount available to the states for this purpose. The sum of all Federal funds authorized for extension services for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1938 was seventeen million and two hundred and fifty-six thousand dollars ($17,256,000). Under legislation now in effect the grants authorized for extension purposes will ultimately in 1942-43 reach a total of approximately eighteen million and five hundred thousand dollars ($18,500,000). Under the Smith-Lever Act the Federal funds are available in amounts not to exceed 50 per cent of the cost of the extension program, the remainder of the support being supplied by state or local sources. The later acts have increased the flat grants from ten thousand dollars ($10,000) to thirty thousand dollars ($30,000) to each state, and in the Bankhead-Jones Act the distribution of the remainder of Federal funds for extension services was on the basis of farm population instead of rural population.

The Smith-Lever Act was passed with the understanding that the county-agent system involved in the farmers' cooperative demonstration work and farm-management work carried on previously by the United States Department of Agriculture would be incorporated in the Smith-Lever extension work. For this reason the Act permitted contributions by counties, local authorities, or individuals, as well as by states and colleges, to be used to duplicate Federal funds granted for extension work. The land-grant colleges were thus obligated not only to extend their instructional operations throughout the states but also to establish centers for such instruction in the counties. The Smith-Lever Act contemplates close local union of rural communities with the land-grant college and the actual permanent functioning
of the college in these communities throughout the states.

To provide a practical plan for cooperation between the land-grant colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture in carrying on the work under the Smith-Lever Act a "Memorandum of Understanding" was signed by the Secretary of Agriculture and the white college presidents in forty-six States, and a similar understanding was reached more informally in the other two States. This memorandum provides:

(1) that the states shall organize and maintain a definite and distinct administrative division of the college for extension work;

(2) that the head of this division, commonly called extension director, shall administer all the extension work in the state as the joint representative of the college and the department;

(3) that all funds for extension work in agriculture and home economics shall be expended through such extension division; and

(4) that the U.S. Department of Agriculture shall be cooperative with the extension division of the colleges in such work done by the Department in the states.

One interesting result of the extension system projected in the Act of 1914 was the close and more permanent union of the home-economics work of the land-grant institutions with their agricultural work. In its relations with the rural communities the home economics extension work came to function through the extension divisions of the land-grant colleges. This matter will be discussed more in detail in the latter part of this chapter.

Nature of the Smith-Lever Extension Program. In keeping with its general purpose, the Cooperative Extension Service administers three distinct types of extension activities, farm demonstration, home demonstration, and boy's and girls' club work. In an appraisal of the extent to which Negroes
participate in the program, it is well to bear in mind the general nature of the educational services it affords.

Farm demonstration work is conducted primarily through agricultural advisers, generally referred to as "county agents." It is the function of the county agent to aid the farmers in his county to solve their agricultural problems. He visits the farms, makes a direct study of their problems, plans remedial procedures, calls upon specialists for aid when necessary, arranges and conducts farmers' institutes, distributes literature, utilizes the local press and radio for disseminating information, plans and executes a county-wide extension program, arranges local demonstration projects—in truck gardening, animal husbandry, soil conservation, etc., selects and trains local leaders to cooperate with his program and interprets and participates in administering the several emergency agricultural programs conducted by various agencies of the Federal Government. The county agent is essentially a field worker whose activities are as varied as the agricultural problems of his area.

Extension work in home economics is carried on by home demonstration agents and their assistants. As in case of the agricultural adviser, the home demonstration agent is primarily a field worker who deals with individual rural farm and non-farm families, and with organized clubs and groups of home makers. The goal she seeks is improved home practices in relation to such problems as child care and training, food selection and preparation, clothing, intra-family relationships, sanitation, home-nursing, home beautification, and the like.

In addition to its program for the rural adult population, the Cooperative Extension Service conducts a specialized educational enterprise for rural youth. This program centers around the "4-H Club" work for
boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 20. In many counties there are special boys' and girls' club agents, though frequently the agricultural adviser and the home demonstration agent share in the administration of this program. The 4-H Club work seeks to develop on the part of young people understanding, ideals, and abilities which are deemed essential for effective farming, homemaking, community life, and citizenship, together with a sense of responsibility for their attainment. The agent organizes groups of boys and girls into clubs in local centers under the leadership of some older person who is interested in and qualified to give guidance to rural youth. The clubs formulate their own programs, meet regularly at home or school, and conduct social and cultural, as well as technical, activities. Each club member carries out an individual farm or home project, for the dual purpose of "learning by doing" and of demonstrating an improved practice in his community.

From even this brief summary, it must be apparent that the Cooperative Extension Service is engaged in an educational enterprise of extreme significance, not only for the rural population which it serves, but for the entire nation which cannot but be affected by their welfare. In view of this fact, the extent to which Negroes share in the agricultural and home economics extension program is an important measure of their opportunities for public education. It is also an index of the adequacy with which this Federal program is achieving its general purpose.

PARTICIPATION OF NEGROES IN THE SMITH-LEVER EXTENSION PROGRAM

So far, our discussion of the Smith-Lever Act has been of a general nature. We shall now consider the Act in relation to Negroes and the
Negro land-grant colleges. Attention is here restricted chiefly to those seventeen Southern states whose general practice in public education entails the complete and mandatory separation of their white and Negro populations. It should be noted, however, that the six million five hundred thousand rural Negroes who live in these States constitute 24.2 percent of their aggregate rural population, and 96 percent of all rural Negroes in the United States.* Thus this area, whose population is approximately one-fourth Negro, includes within its borders all but 4 percent of those Negro Americans who are potential clients of the Cooperative Extension Service. It constitutes, therefore, quite an adequate "setting" for an appraisal of the extent to which Negroes participate in the Federal program of agricultural and home economics extension.

It should be noted, further, that attention is given solely to the relative participation of Negroes as compared with the white population. Underlying the analysis is the assumptions (1) that whatever public educational services are available in a given state should be equally available to all population groups, regardless of race; and (2) that the need of Negroes for extension services is at least as great as if not greater than that of the white population. These principles imply that, by any given unit of measure, services should be extended to Negroes in a proportion which is at least equal to their proportion of the total rural population.

**Number of Agents.** At the end of February, 1933, there were 4,852 extension workers employed in 1,498 counties in the seventeen Southern states with which this inquiry deals. They were distributed among the

following five classifications:

(1) Directors and assistant directors..................30

(2) Extension agents (state leaders, assistant
    state and district agents, county agents,
    and assistant county agents)....................3,734

(3) State committeemen in cotton adjustment.........10

(4) Assistants in cotton adjustment................603

(5) Other specialists..................................475

Total................4,852

The functions served by state directors, cotton adjustment workers, and
"other specialists" relate so generally to the extension program as a
whole that the racial composition of this group of workers does not, in
itself, afford a valid index of the extent to which rural Negroes share in
the services they render. Hence, they may well be ignored in this discussion,
and attention centered upon that 77 percent of the entire operative personnel
which is classified above as "extension agents".

Of the 3,734 extension agents employed in all sixteen Southern states,
some 448 were Negroes. Thus, representing 24.2 percent of the rural popu-
lation, Negroes constitute only 12.0 percent of the extension agents, or
approximately one-half of their "proportionate share." Only in Oklahoma,
where there are relatively few rural Negroes, does this ratio of Negroes
to total agents equal or exceed the corresponding rural population ratio.

2 Practically (if not quite) all of whom it is safe to assume are white
persons.

3 It is pertinent to remark, however, that the incidence of Negroes among
these groups of workers does provide a measure of the extent to which oppor-
tunities are afforded Negroes for employment in executive and highly specialized
positions in the Cooperative Extension Service.
In Texas there are 89.0 per cent as many Negro agents as the incidence of Negroes in the rural population would seem to warrant. In twelve of the sixteen states, the corresponding proportions are one-half or less.

It will be noted also from Table III on page 94 that, for both races, agricultural advisers and their assistants constitute the great bulk of the agents. Some 62 per cent of the white agents and 56 per cent of the Negro agents are engaged in farm demonstration work. Home demonstration agents constitute 35 per cent of the white workers and 42 per cent of the Negro workers. Only two per cent of the white and Negro workers, respectively, are special boys' and girls' club agents. Thus, though agricultural advisers constitute a slightly greater proportion of the white agents, and home demonstration workers a slightly greater proportion of the Negro agents, there appears to be no major racial difference in the distribution of agents among the three extension programs.

There are similarly slight variations among the three fields in the ratio of Negro to white extension workers. Negroes constitute 11.0 per cent of the county agricultural agents, 13.9 per cent of the home demonstration agents, and 9.5 per cent of the boys' and girls' club agents. Thus, considering the fact that Negroes constitute 24.2 per cent of the rural population, the number of Negro agents approximates a "proportionate share" by about 46 per cent in farm demonstration work, 58 per cent in home demonstration work, and 39 per cent in boys' and girls' club work.

In the field of farm demonstration work, in which a majority of all agents are engaged, the relative size of the potential clientele of the average white and Negro county agent is even more clearly expressive of racial differences in the adequacy of extension workers. In the sixteen states classified by the United States Census as "The South," there were
### Table III
**Number and Percent of White and Negro Workers in the Several Types of Extension Programs in Each of 16 Southern States, February 28, 1938**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Farm Demonstration</th>
<th>Home Demonstration</th>
<th>Boys' and Girls' Clubs</th>
<th>Total White</th>
<th>Total Negro</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
<th>Total Rural Population 1930</th>
<th>Total Extension Workers 1938</th>
<th>Proportionate Share of Extension Workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>133 26</td>
<td>69 21</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>99 8</td>
<td>93 10</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>60 8</td>
<td>40 9</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>182 23</td>
<td>95 22</td>
<td>3 1</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>169 4</td>
<td>58 1</td>
<td>9 0</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>95 12</td>
<td>71 7</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>32 2</td>
<td>28 3</td>
<td>3 0</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>129 29</td>
<td>83 29</td>
<td>6 2</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>147 10</td>
<td>51 0</td>
<td>4 0</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>187 31</td>
<td>83 13</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>91 9</td>
<td>89 8</td>
<td>4 0</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>129.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>69 18</td>
<td>54 15</td>
<td>3 0</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>178 10</td>
<td>72 9</td>
<td>3 0</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>284 43</td>
<td>202 34</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>565</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>89.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>141 29</td>
<td>55 8</td>
<td>2 0</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>58 0</td>
<td>31 0</td>
<td>20 3</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Totals...2,045 252 1,174-189 67 7 3,286 448 3,734 24.2 12.0 49.6

Adapted from data found in the *Journal of Negro Education*, VIII (July, 1938), 336.
2,342,129 white and 881,687 Negro farm operators in 1930. In June, 1938, there were 1,515 white and 185 Negro county agricultural agents in these states. Thus, for each white agent there was an average of 1,546 farmers, as compared with 4,766 farmers per Negro agent. The potential clientele of the average Negro agent was, therefore, over three times as great as that of the average white agent.

Objection might be raised to the inference drawn from these comparisons of white and Negro farmers and county agents. Since the incidence of share-croppers is much greater among Negro farmers than among white farmers, and since under certain conditions, a white county agent may serve an entire plantation through contact with its manager alone, one might contend that direct Negro-white comparisons between the ratio of farmers to county agents do not afford a valid measure of the relative extent to which extension services are available to those white and Negro "farmers" who are in position to receive them. Two general considerations are pertinent in this regard. In the first place, it is only on the very large, highly-organized, well supervised plantations that a cropper has little or no responsibility for crop planning and management. This type of agricultural unit predominates in only a few restricted areas of the South, and is gradually disappearing. Much more generally, a plantation is divided up into a number of relatively independent units on which a cropper's responsibility is closely comparable to that of an independent renter. Hence, it would be incorrect to assume that no share-croppers are potential candidates for agricultural extension services. A large proportion certainly are, though available data afford no reliable basis for estimating the percentage they

4. Data supplied by Mr. Joseph H.B. Evans, Rural Resettlement Division, United States Department of Agriculture.
constitute of the total. Secondly, state-to-state comparisons between racial differences in the incidence of share-croppers and racial differences in the number of "farmers" per county agent reveal no consistent relationship between the two variables. Rather, they suggest that, in general, racial differences in the incidence of croppers among total farmers are not significantly related to racial differences in the number of county agents per given number of farmers. Because of the peculiar relations of many share-croppers to agricultural production and the disproportionately great number of Negro croppers, it is reasonable to assume that the more than three-to-one difference in the ratio of white and Negro county agents to farmers does not represent a precise measure of racial differences in the availability of extension services. However, these considerations by no means invalidate the generalization that Negro agents have a much greater potential farmer-load than white agents; and hence, that there is a corresponding difference in the availability of extension services to white and Negro farmers.

It is especially significant that disparities between the proportionate numbers of white and Negro extension agents are gradually increasing, instead of decreasing. Whereas Negroes constituted 16.9 per cent of all extension agents in 1926, the corresponding proportion in 1938 (12.0%) was less than three-fourths as great. This trend is evident in all three extension programs. However, with the exception of boys' and girls' club work since 1932, it has been fairly general for the entire 12-year period as shown in Table IV on the next page. Thus, gradually, but definitely,

Table IV

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF WHITE AND NEGRO EXTENSION WORKERS\textsuperscript{a}
IN 16 SOUTHERN STATES: 1926 to 1938

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Farm Demonstration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>1,073</td>
<td>1,220</td>
<td>1,250</td>
<td>1,928</td>
<td>2,045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,246</td>
<td>1,401</td>
<td>1,444</td>
<td>2,154</td>
<td>2,297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Negro</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home Demonstration</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>808</td>
<td>1,041</td>
<td>1,174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>766</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>947</td>
<td>1,204</td>
<td>1,363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Negro</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys' and Girls' Clubs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Negro</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All types of Programs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>1,772</td>
<td>2,035</td>
<td>2,106</td>
<td>3,029</td>
<td>3,286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,072</td>
<td>2,344</td>
<td>2,443</td>
<td>3,424</td>
<td>3,734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent Negro</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} Including state leaders, assistant state leaders and district agents, county agents, and assistant county agents.

In 1930, Negroes constituted 24.2 percent of the total rural population in the 16 Southern states here represented.
Negroes are coming to share less and less equitably in the educational program of the Cooperative Extension Service.

**Expenditures.** About nine-tenths of the $4,580,000 available annually for extension work under the Smith-Lever Act may be disbursed to states only in amounts which are "matched" from state and local revenues. The same policy applies to approximately one-third of the $1,480,000 authorized by the Capper-Ketcham Act. By contrast, the much larger sums available under the Bankhead-Jones Act (beginning at $8,000,000 in 1935-36; to reach $12,000,000 in 1940-41) do not require matching by states. Thus, not only with regard to administration, but also as regards financial support, the agricultural and home economics extension program is a "cooperative" Federal-state enterprise.

Even though both state and Federal governments finance the Cooperative Extension Service, its support comes chiefly from Federal appropriations. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1938, for example, the total funds available for extension work in the sixteen Southern states were derived from the following sources:

- Federal: $8,538,740.41 (65.5%)
- State and local: $4,502,546.41 (34.5%)

Total: $13,041,286.82

Thus, approximately two-thirds of the funds available for extension work in the South are derived from Federal revenues. The proportion of those funds devoted to work among Negroes becomes, therefore, not only an index of Negro participation in the Cooperative Extension Program; but also, in

6. Public No. 95, 63rd Congress, Section 3.
7. Public No. 475, 70th Congress, Section 1.
8. Public No. 182, 74th Congress, Title II, Section 21.
a very real sense, a measure of Federal support for this type of Negro education.

Reports of the Cooperative Extension Service do not detail expenditures by race. However, that office has supplied an estimate of expenditures for work among Negroes in the South. These estimates, together with total receipts, are set forth by states in Table V on the next page.

It may be seen from Table V that, for the year ending June 30, 1937, an estimated total of $804,656.88 was spent for Cooperative Extension Work among Negroes. This amount represents 6.2 per cent of the total funds available for such work; and hence, since Negroes constitute 24.2 per cent of the rural population, only 25.6 per cent as much as a "proportionate" division was made in the expenditures for extension work among Negroes in the South. Since the Negro personnel in the Smith-Lever Extension Service are usually prepared by the Negro land-grant colleges, this discrimination in the number employed decreases the potential usefulness of the colleges.

LEGISLATIVE AND ADMINISTRATIVE CONDITIONS

OF THE SMITH-LEVER EXTENSION PROGRAM

The basic cause of such racial disparities as are here revealed inheres, of course, in the social structure of the South. They are part and parcel of that system of caste which defines for Negro Americans a position on the very margins of our culture, and which finds expression in all areas of social life. It is by no means strange that the Federally-aided program of agricultural and home economics extension, functioning in such a social milieu, should direct its services predominantly to the rural white population of the South. So it is with most other educational programs, including those financed by the Federal Government.
Table V

EXPENDITURES FOR EXTENSION WORK IN 16 SOUTHERN STATES:
 FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1937*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
<th>Total Expenditures for Work Among Negroes</th>
<th>Rural Populations for Extension 1930</th>
<th>Negro Percentage of:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$820,117.26</td>
<td>$96,385.00</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>785,591.43</td>
<td>33,153.00</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>411,507.67</td>
<td>33,081.00</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1,021,963.79</td>
<td>65,050.00</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>829,265.32</td>
<td>8,630.00</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>684,816.14</td>
<td>35,150.00</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>374,688.25</td>
<td>8,773.00</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>904,528.26</td>
<td>92,556.00</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>746,659.19</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>1,077,022.86</td>
<td>86,926.00</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>747,504.32</td>
<td>33,725.00</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>613,263.92</td>
<td>50,661.00</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>830,218.24</td>
<td>35,800.00</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>1,852,109.39</td>
<td>138,220.88</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>862,168.41</td>
<td>59,326.00</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>482,862.37</td>
<td>27,670.00</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13,044,286.82</td>
<td>804,656.88</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

*a Estimated by the Office of Cooperative Extension Work, United States Department of Agriculture; not including expenditures for Administration, publications, and subject matter specialists which are difficult to estimate.

*b Assuming that a "proportionate share" for Negroes entails the expenditure of that percentage of the total funds which equals the percentage Negroes constitute of the total rural population.

Adapted from data found in the Journal of Negro Education, VII (July, 1938), 339
Though racial discrimination in connection with the services rendered by the Cooperative Extension Program is not at all peculiar, it is by no means an inevitable accompaniment of the program. Brief consideration of several legislative and administrative conditions under which the program operates should suffice to make this clear.

Legislative Conditions. Federal funds allotted for agricultural and home economics extension are administered by the several land-grant colleges. It will be recalled that in each of the Southern states there are at least two such institutions, one for white students and one for Negroes. In recognition of this fact, the Smith-Lever Act directs that

In any such state in which two or more such colleges have been or hereafter may be established the appropriations hereinafter made to such state shall be administered by such college or colleges as the legislature of such state may direct...

Though the states had, and still have, clear authority under the law to provide for participation by Negro land-grant colleges in administering the funds, without exception they delegated this responsibility to their white institutions. This fact is probably not unrelated to the apparent neglect of extension work among Negroes.

During the Senate debate on the Smith-Lever Bill, Senator Jones, of Washington, tried vainly to insert an amendment to insure that rural Negroes would share equitably in the extension program. In lieu of that clause of the Bill quoted above, he would have substituted a requirement that the legislatures of states maintaining separate white and Negro land-grant colleges propose to, and have approved by the Secretary of Agriculture

9 Public No. 95, 63rd Congress, Section 1 (Cf. also the several extensions of this Act)
a just and equitable division of the appropriation...
between one college for white students and one
institute for colored students.

In view of the experience of Negroes with several earlier land-grant college
funds, Senator Jones predicted that without such an amendment, there would
be marked neglect of extension work among the rural Negro population.

During the heated debate over the proposed amendment, Senator Smith, of
Georgia, one of the sponsors of the bill, was queried concerning how his state
would have the funds administered if the bill were not amended. He replied:

I will tell the Senator frankly what we will do
with it. We will put it in our white agricultural
college. We would not appropriate a dollar in
Georgia to undertake to do extension work from the
Negro agricultural and mechanical college.

To which Senator Cummings of Iowa responded:

The State of Georgia gets a proportion of this
appropriation based upon a rural colored population
of more than 900,000. In getting that appropriation
a colored person has just as much influence as a
white man; but having gotten it, according to the
Senator's own statements, the State of Georgia is
to spend vastly less per person in the education
of the colored race than in the education of its
white race.

The accuracy of Senator Smith's prediction concerning the administration
of extension funds in Georgia—and practically all other Southern states—is
a matter of record. Further, the validity of the proposed amendment and of
Senator Cummings' argument in its behalf has been abundantly attested by more
than two decades of experience.

Just such safeguards for Negro education as Senator Jones proposed for the
Smith-Lever Bill have been written into law by Congress in three different

10. Congressional Record, 63rd Congress, Second Session, February 5, 1914,
pp. 2929-2948.
11. Ibid.
12. Ibid.
Administrative Provisions. Even though the 63rd Congress refused to incorporate explicit safeguards for Negroes into the Smith-Lever Act, it did lay the basis for administrative procedures which could be used to serve the same end. The reference is to the extent of the authority now exercised over the extension program by the Secretary of Agriculture.

It will be recalled that the Smith-Lever Act provides for the conduct of extension work according to procedures mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the state agricultural colleges. In practice, the colleges supervise the county programs and formulate state programs and policies. The Federal office counsels with state directors, approves state plans drawn up under their direction, and coordinates the program as a whole. Hence, indirectly through "counseling" the Federal office has tremendous influence over state policies. More directly, in exercising the power of approval to certify for reimbursement from Federal funds, the Secretary of Agriculture has final authority over the entire Cooperative Extension Program. The Federal office can, and in practice commonly does, dictate items to be included in "state plans."

Thus, administration of the Cooperative Extension Service is characterized by a high degree of "Federal control". That control, which is unquestionably benevolent, could be so exercised as to assure for Negroes an equitable measure of participation in the agricultural and home economics extension program. If the Federal office were so inclined, it could very easily re-

quire that state plans include provisions to attain this end. Doing so would be quite in line with long-standing practice of Federal administrative control over other aspects of the extension program. Further, it would involve no invasion of state sovereignty. There are no inherent "states' rights" so to disburse Federal funds as to discriminate against a minority racial group of American citizens, and thus, by so doing, to thwart full realization of the purpose for which they were appropriated.

There is one further administrative practice which merits attention in this regard. As was noted earlier, reports of the Cooperative Extension Service on the use of Federal funds do not detail expenditures by race. As a result, interested groups of citizens find it practically impossible to determine to just what extent the funds are used for work with either the white or Negro population. The fact of racial segregation in the agricultural and home economics extension program would seem to call for published reports of expenditures and accomplishments by race. This policy has already been adopted in case of most other Federal education funds. It should now be applied to reports of the Cooperative Extension Service.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

We have attempted to describe and critically appraise the extent to which Negroes in the South participate in the Federally-aided Cooperative Extension Service. The vastness of that program, together with its practical and useful services in improving farm and home life, makes the extent to which Negroes participate in its benefits an important measure of their opportunities for public education.

14. Such purely administrative safe-guards against racial discrimination have proved to be quite effective in the case of Federal emergency education programs, particularly those administered by the National Youth Administration and the Works Progress Administration.
Summary. In the analysis of the operative personnel and expenditures of the Cooperative Extension Service, data have been presented to substantiate the following generalizations for the sixteen Southern States with which this inquiry has been concerned.

(1) There are approximately one-half as many Negro Extension agents as would seem to be warranted by the proportion Negroes constitute of the total rural population.

(2) Expenditures for extension work among Negroes are about one-fourth as great as would be demanded by a proportionate distribution of funds.

(3) Racial disparities in the extension program are most marked in states with proportionately large rural Negro populations.

(4) Disparities between the extent of services and expenditures for the white and Negro rural populations are increasing, rather than decreasing.

(5) It is within the scope of the Federal legislative and administrative authority to assure for Negroes an equitable degree of participation in the Cooperative Extension Program.

Recommendations. A sound policy for all Federal aid to education would seem to require that the Federal Government accompany its financial assistance with adequate controls to insure that the funds are in fact used to increase equality of educational opportunity, rather than to decrease it. This obligation has not been met in the case of Federal funds for agricultural and home economics extension. As steps toward correcting the obviously inequitable practices of states which require and maintain separate schools for their white and Negro populations, it is recommended:

(1) That Congress enact legislation to require a "just and equitable" distribution between the white and Negro populations of all funds authorized
by the Smith-Lever Act and its several supplements and extensions.

(2) That the Secretary of Agriculture require, as one condition for approving "state plans" for agricultural and home economics extension work, the inclusion therein of definite provisions to assure the equitable participation of Negroes in the extension program.

(3) That the Secretary of Agriculture effect the publication by race of reports on the use of agricultural and home economics extension funds and the accomplishments resulting therefrom.

(4) That the Southern states enact immediate legislation which would require their Negro land-grant colleges to administer the proportionate share of Federal and state funds available for extension work for Negroes in their respective states. This action would mean that over two million dollars ($2,000,000) more would be available for this type of work among a racial group that needs it most. Such action would not only improve Negro farm and home life in the South but also materially aid the development of Negro land-grant colleges and insure employment for about four hundred (400) more graduates from agricultural and home economics divisions of those colleges.

SMITH-HUGHES VOCATIONAL ACT OF 1917

Nature of the Act. In 1917 Congress was persuaded to embark on a new venture in supporting educational facilities. This new program was embodied in the Smith-Hughes Act providing Federal aid for vocational education in schools of less than college grade. The statute included extensive prescriptions regarding the nature of the program to be maintained, and a Federal Board of Vocational Education was created to supervise the service. Like the earlier Smith-Lever law, the Smith-Hughes Act required matching of the Federal funds by state and local funds. The amount of the Federal

* Based on the figures for 1938.
appropriation in the Smith-Hughes Act increased gradually over a period of years to an annual total of seven million dollars ($7,000,000). These amounts were subsequently increased by the George-Read Act (1929), the George-Ellzey Act (1934), and the George-Dean Act (1936). The total amount authorized to be appropriated for vocational education in 1938-39 was $22,335,000 annually, of which $21,785,000 was for distribution to the states and $550,000 for administration of the Federal agency. The distribution to the states is on the basis of population ratios, with guaranteed minimums to each state.

The Act provided for promotion of vocational education through cooperation with the states "in paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects, and of teachers of industrial subjects and the preparation of teachers of agriculture, trade, and industrial, and home economics subjects." The Act required cooperation between the Federal Department of Agriculture and the states, as represented by the land-grant colleges, in providing funds and in planning and conducting extension work in agriculture and home economics. The plans adopted under this Act have set up in the several states an organization representing both the state and the Federal Government. The work in each state is in charge of a director, who is a joint representative of the State agricultural college and the United States Department of Agriculture. He has the franking privilege, and his salary comes from Federal and state sources. In the counties the Smith-Hughes teachers generally receive part of their salary from direct individual schools receiving the benefits of the Act.

In each state there is a board of vocational education, and the Federal board deals only with this state board and not with individual schools re-
The Federal funds are expended in accordance with plans submitted by the state boards and approved by the Federal board. The Federal authorities inspect the work and the expenditures in each state so far as to determine whether they come within the provisions of the law and entitle the state to reimbursement from the Federal funds. Beyond this the Federal board has only advisory functions and aids the work in the states by furnishing information through publications and by conferring with state officials in charge of different lines of work.

The land-grant colleges for Negroes were vitally affected by the passage of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Act of February 23, 1917. These institutions have for the past twenty years assumed the major responsibility for the preparation of agricultural, and home economics teachers for the Negro public schools in the rural communities of the South. While the Act itself does not specify to what institution the funds for this purpose shall be granted, the state boards of vocational educations have designated the Negro land-grant college in all the states. The Smith-Hughes Act, like the Smith-Lever Act, made no provisions for an equitable distribution of these funds along racial lines. We shall see later, moreover, how the Southern states have discriminated against the Negro in the spending of these funds.

The First Specific Provision for Federal Aid to Teacher-Training. As we have seen, the first Federal legislation to provide specifically for aiding the states in the preparation of vocational teachers was the Nelson Amendment to the Morrill Act of 1890. This amendment was approved March 4, 1907. The amendment states that said colleges (agricultural colleges) "may use a portion of this money for providing courses for the specific

* Charles W. Florence, op. cit. 293-296."
preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and mechanic arts. Through the actual provision of the Second Morrill Act and the Nelson Amendment, together with the interpretations of the scope and limitations of the Acts, the land-grant colleges were permitted to use the funds appropriated by the Acts for instruction not only in basic courses in agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics but also in courses intended as preparation for teaching those subjects.

The usefulness of the Nelson Amendment was further expanded by the ruling that the funds could be used in providing supervision and special aid to teachers in service, and to the instruction of teachers of agriculture, mechanic arts and home economics in summer schools. This definite provision for teacher training and the equally important stipulation, from the standpoint of the Negro, that the funds be equitably divided between the races in those states which by law require Negroes to attend separate schools, marked the new and more substantial program of teacher-training for Negroes. The Negro land-grant colleges made full use of these funds to the extent to which they were available.

In the past some of the Southern states seemed to consider the Federal funds as a substitute for state appropriations rather than supplements to state funds. Only a few examples of this practice are mentioned at this point. In 1928 the Negro land-grant college of the State of Alabama received $21,220 in Federal funds and the State of Alabama appropriated from its state treasury $22,500 for the support of this institution. The Federal funds represented 30.6 per cent of the total funds received by the college.

from all sources and the state appropriation represented 32.6 per cent of
the total funds.

For the year ending June 30, 1934 this Negro land-grant college re-
ceived $32,625 from Federal funds, exclusive of emergency funds, while the
state appropriation and local funds together for that year amounted to only
$11,533. The state appropriation was approximately one-third that of the
Federal funds received or about one-half of the amount received in 1928.

Federal funds received by Alcorn College of Mississippi in 1928 amounted to
$40,676 as compared with a state appropriation of $40,000 for the same year.

In 1938 this college received $25,219 from Federal sources and only $25,000
from state sources or 62.5 per cent of its 1928 state allotment. In 1933
the states of Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, and South Carolina appropriated
to their Negro land-grant colleges amounts only slightly in excess of the
permanent Federal funds received for that year. In 1935 Maryland actually
appropriated less in state funds to its Negro land-grant college than was
contributed in Federal funds—$15,513 states funds as compared with $20,961
in Federal funds. There has been this dangerous and persistent tendency
on the part of some states to force the Negro land-grant colleges to depend
to too great extent on the meager Federal funds allotted. The state seemed
to feel it had done its full duty when it had met the conditions stipulated
in the law. It must be borne in mind always that these Negro land-grant
colleges devote the greater part of their effort to the training of teachers
and these Federal funds augmented a rather meager budget available to them.

In its report of February, 1938 the Advisory Committee on Education,

* See Table XVIII on page 139.
which was appointed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, recognized the fore­
going tendency and recommended safeguards against such unfavorable propor­
tional state appropriations. It recommends:

For all states maintaining separate schools for Negroes, the proposed grants (for public schools) should be conditioned upon formulation of joint plans providing equitable distribution of the Federal grants between white and Negro schools without reduction of the pro­portion of state and local funds spent for Negro schools.

**Purpose of the National Vocational Education Act.** The passage of the National Vocational Education Act, commonly known as the Smith-Hughes Act, launched a nation-wide program of vocational education and, for the purposes of this discussion, marks the beginning of a definitely organized program of training for teachers of vocational subjects. Prior to the passage of this act February 23, 1917, there had been no such recognized program of teacher-training.

The purpose of this act is:

To provide further promotion of vocational education; to provide for cooperation with states in the promotion of such education in agriculture and the trades and industries; to provide for cooperation with the states in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects; and to appropriate money and to regulate its expenditure.

**To What Extent Have Negroes and Negro Schools Shared the Provisions of This Law for Training of Vocational Teachers?** An attempt will be made to answer this question on the basis of (a) the number of persons trained in this program, (b) the degree and extent to which Negroes participate in the general administration and application of the teacher-training program and its allied activities, and (c) the amount of money assigned to the Negro land-grant colleges to carry on the work of training vocational teachers.

The Smith-Hughes Act provided for the year 1918 an initial appropriation of $500,000 for agriculture, $500,000 for trades and industries including home economics, and $400,000 for the training of teachers in these subjects. The appropriations were made continuous and were to vary upward each year until 1926 when and after which the sum of $3,000,000 was to be appropriated to the states for paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors or directors of agricultural education; $3,000,000 to the same service in trades and industries including home economics and $1,000,000 for preparing teachers supervisors in the various fields of vocational education.

It should be noted here that since 1919 a minimum of $10,000 has been guaranteed to each state for the express purpose of training vocational teachers. So important did the authors and supporters of the National Vocational Act consider the matter of teacher training that they provided, in section five of the bill, that any state which did not take advantage of at least the minimum allowed for teacher-training, should be excluded from the benefits of the Act. So, from the very beginning, teacher-training has been at the very center of the vocational education program. While the financial factor is not the sole consideration in the promotion of an educational program, it is at least a major factor in the attempt to establish the facilities for carrying on the program.

From the very beginning the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the several state boards included the Negro land-grant colleges in the program of vocational teacher-training. The following states introduced vocational teacher-training the first year the Smith-Hughes Act was in effect: Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina. Other states which followed in

Ibid., Section 2.
order are: Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Oklahoma, and Kentucky. In 1938 all of the Negro land-grant colleges were doing work in vocational teacher-training except those of Alabama, Maryland and Missouri. The teacher-training program in Alabama is carried on at Tuskegee Institute. Hampton Institute and Virginia State College are both designated now as teacher-training institutions in Virginia.

During the early years of the operation of the teacher-training program the participation of Negroes in the Federal allotments was negligible. This is partly explained on the ground that the program itself was meager. As late as 1924-25 there were only 170 students enrolled in the agricultural teacher-training program of the 12 states then offering such training. However, it is quite conceivable that a more elaborate program, properly financed, might have attracted a larger and more select personnel at a time when there was great need for capable teachers in the vocational field.

In the records for the year 1934, seventeen years after the National Vocational Act with its teacher-training program went into effect, we find a basis for comparison, and therefore a partial answer as to the extent to which Negroes were sharing financially in the program. This year is chosen arbitrarily. The records of any other year would serve a similar purpose.

Enrollment in Vocational Teacher-Training Courses. To what extent are students taking advantage of the opportunity for training for service as vocational teachers? The records of the Office of Education show that the college enrollment in Negro land-grant colleges has grown from 12 students in

21 Federal Board for Vocational Education Bulletin, No. 111, Agricultural Series No. 28, p. 34.
The rather remarkable growth in the college enrollment in Negro land-grant colleges would lead one to believe that Negroes are taking full advantage of the Federally-aided program of vocational teacher-training. But a study of the distribution of the student enrollment in the various courses is not so reassuring.

Table VI on page 1/5 shows that both the actual and the proportional enrollment in agriculture and home economics are decreasing. This is true in spite of a temporary increase in 1929.

On the other hand, the enrollment in the arts and sciences and in general education courses is increasing. This enrollment trend away from the courses in agriculture, home economics, and mechanic arts is due to practical reasons involving (a) the nature of the courses themselves; (b) the nature of the work to be followed; and (c) the chances for placement. This preponderance of students in the arts and sciences is not due solely to misdirected guidance or to a lack of guidance. In spite of potential demand in vocational fields, the graduates of the general academic courses were more likely to secure employment offering permanence and comparatively satisfactory working conditions. Students are likely to be practical and realistic in the matter of preparing for a job. They will live up to the light they have and frequently furnish themselves with more light on job opportunities than is furnished them from guidance sources.

Table VI

DISTRIBUTION OF ENROLLMENT OF STUDENTS IN NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES
DURING SELECTED YEARS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Arts and Science</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Home Economics</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>All Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>1,919</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>3,671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td>3,615</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>1,149</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>5,374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>4,983</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>6,115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


c U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 2, p. 470. (This does not include special students. The addition of special student would bring the total to 6,481.).
There will not be any material increase in the enrollment in vocational courses until the departments of agriculture, home economics, and mechanic arts are raised to the same level of importance and dignity accorded heretofore to the departments of art and sciences, and to general academic education. There must be developed also greater assurance of a market for the type of training offered in the vocational departments either in teaching positions or in the actual practice of the vocations in the agricultural field, the field of home economics, and mechanic arts.

Vocational Teacher Supply and Demand. The lack of demand for vocational teachers among Negroes is due to a failure of school officials to provide vocational training for Negroes in the secondary schools of the Southern states. It might be well to examine the situation in the field of agriculture. In June, 1937, 152 men were graduated from Negro land-grant colleges as teachers of vocational agriculture. Of this number, eighty-nine were placed that year in positions as teachers of vocational agriculture. Thirty-nine were employed in positions not related to their preparations. A total of 128 or 84.2 per cent were placed and 24 or 15.8 per cent were not placed. We realize, of course, that during that year (1937), as well as most other years since 1929, there has been an oversupply of teachers in most fields all over the United States. In this case the supply is small, but in several states the actual demand at present seems to be even smaller than the supply. The main reason for this is the practical neglect and failure to provide vocational courses for the secondary school population of the Negroes of the South.

In February of 1938, Professor Charles W. Florence, a graduate student

at Harvard University, sent an inquiry to the state department of education in each of the Southern states concerning the supply of certificated teachers in certain fields. Among those returning usable answers four state departments, Alabama, Maryland, Tennessee and Texas, reported an oversupply of teachers of vocational agriculture. Three state departments, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia, reported an undersupply of teachers of vocational agriculture and seven state departments reported an equal balance supply and demand, namely, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and West Virginia.

Three presidents of the Negro land-grant colleges in the above states reported an oversupply of teachers of vocational agriculture. Six reported an undersupply and four reported an equal balance between supply and demand.

In the case of eight states the state department of education and the president of the Negro land-grant college differed as to the relationship between teacher supply and demand in the field of vocational agriculture.

In the field of home economics, the state department of only one state, Maryland, reported an oversupply of teachers, five reported an undersupply and six reported an equal balance between supply and demand. The presidents, or authorized officials of the Negro land-grant colleges, reported an oversupply in three states, Kentucky, South Carolina and West Virginia. Six presidents reported an undersupply of teachers in vocational home economics and four reported an equal balance between supply and demand in the field. In the case of five states, the state department of education and the officials of the Negro land-grant colleges differed as to the status of the supply of certificated teachers of vocational home economics.

In the field of trade and industrial teaching, only two state departments reported an oversupply, Delaware and West Virginia. Eight state departments
reported an undersupply and three state departments reported an equal balance between supply and demand. In answering the same question the presidents of the Negro land-grant colleges reported an oversupply in two states, Oklahoma and West Virginia, and an oversupply in eleven states.

It is quite evident that there is a predominant opinion among both the chief state officials and presidents of Negro land-grant colleges that there is a decided shortage of vocational teachers in the field of trades and industries. It is also quite evident that a thorough-going study of teachers supply and demand in each of these states is needed. Several state officials and several officials of land-grant colleges stated frankly that no reliable data were available for answering the question of the relationship between the supply of the certificated teachers and the demand for them. Others admitted that there data represented estimates and not established facts.

The writer has tried to determine through an investigation, which is still in progress, the extent to which vocational courses are offered in the secondary schools for Negroes in the South. Even incomplete returns indicate that a relatively small percentage of the secondary schools offer vocational training of such a quality and quantity that the schools is Federally reimbursed for its offerings. For example, the State of Arkansas, with a large Negro population, reports 101 schools doing some type of high school work. Of this number, only 37 schools offer a Federally-aided program in vocational agriculture, 39 in home economics and 4 in trades and industries. Other states vary in the nature and extent of their vocational offerings. The forthcoming publication of the U. S. Office of Education dealing with the problem of guidance among Negroes will throw a great deal of light on the general situation.
Participation of Negroes in Supervision and Administration. During 1937-38 twelve Negro colleges participated in the training program for teachers of vocational subjects. These institutions employed 17 resident teachers, 8 itinerant teacher-trainers, and 1 critic teachers. This seems like an adequate force for the present program but the real weakness is to be found in the fact that the vocational program has never been carried to the masses of the Negroes, or for that matter, to the masses of the whites. Vast areas of territory and large numbers of the population are entirely untouched by the program.

In states having large Negro populations a Negro assistant to the state director of vocational education and additional Negro supervisors could do much to improve the nature and extent of the benefits which Negroes derive from the Federally-aided program of vocational education. As we have seen, these supervisors not only could improve the present program but could help to show the value of the program of vocational education to school officials and to the masses for whom it was intended.

Distribution of Smith-Hughes Funds for Teacher-Training. The basic law specifically states that the funds for teacher-training under the Smith-Hughes Act shall be allotted to the states on the basis of their total population. Each state, therefore, receives its allotment on the basis of its entire population including, of course, its Negro population. The distribution of these funds between whites and Negroes does not seem to follow any pattern of population ratio. For example, Negroes constitute 35.7 per cent of the population of the state of Alabama but in 1928 only 10.5 per cent of the teacher-training funds were alloted to the Negro teacher-training institution of the state; 12.1 per cent in 1933; 21.3 per cent in 1934; and
15.6 per cent in 1938. In these four years, selected at random, the Negroes of Alabama never received their proportional share of the funds appropriated for teacher-training. The same is true of Delaware, Florida, and South Carolina. The Negro land-grant college of Arkansas, during those years, received as low as 1.2 per cent of the funds (1928) and as high as 24.4 per cent of the funds (1933) with none reported as received by Negroes in 1938. The Negro population of Georgia is 36.8 per cent of the total population. During the four years under consideration, the Negro teacher-training institution received none of the teacher-training funds (according to available reports) for two of the years. It received 10.9 per cent for one year and 13 per cent for the other year. Official records do not show that Negroes of Mississippi received any of the teacher-training funds since 1928, although Negroes constitute 50.2 per cent of the population of the state. None of the funds for teacher-training were allotted to Negro institutions of Maryland or Missouri during the period under consideration. It is interesting and rather surprising to note that North Carolina, during these years, allotted as low as 11.3 per cent, although the Negroes constitute 29 per cent of the population of the state.

The foregoing percentages are based on the entire amount allotted to the states for teacher-training rather than on the amounts received respectively by the white land-grant colleges and the Negro land-grant colleges. This basis is valid because Negroes participate to a meager and uncertain degree in the general administration and supervision of the teacher-training program.

Lack of Policy and Pattern for Distribution of Funds. The eccentricities noted in Table VII on page 121 would indicate that there is no consistent
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negro Land-Grant Colleges Located</th>
<th>Percent Negro Population is of Total</th>
<th>Percent of Funds Received by Negroses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1928(^a)</td>
<td>1933(^b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total  23.5  17.0  14.8  17.6  13.4

\(^c\) Report of Secretary of the Interior, 1934, p. 300.
\(^e\) No Smith-Hughes funds were actually received by the college, but the Arkansas Board of Vocational Education paid the full salary of one vocational teacher and half salary of two others.
policy in the racial distribution of funds for teacher-training. For example, Florida, whose Negro population is 29.4 per cent of the entire population, allotted to its Negro land-grant institution only 9.9 per cent of the funds for teacher-training in 1938 as compared with 13.2 per cent allotted in 1932. It might be noted that the state of Florida received more funds for teacher-training in 1938 than it received in 1928. Negroes of Florida received less absolutely and proportionately in 1938 than they received in 1928. Texas received, in 1938, the largest amount it received during the four-year period, but allotted to its Negro institution the smallest portion of the funds, 10.9 per cent.

A study of Table VII will indicate that certain states during certain years allotted to their Negro institutions more of the teacher-training funds than the Negro population ratio would demand. An instance of this kind is found in the record of Louisiana for 1934. However, during the other years the Negroes were not allotted their proportional share. In 1933, the Negroes of Louisiana received less than half of their share of the funds for teacher-training.

Not a single Southern state consistently gave to its Negro institution during this four-year period the portion of the funds which would come to Negroes by virtue of the fact that they form a definite per cent of the state's population. In states like Kentucky, Missouri, and West Virginia, where the Negro population is small, a division of funds on the basis of population does not give to the Negro institutions in these states a sufficient amount of aid materially in a program of teacher-training. In such cases the division should be on the basis of need with a guaranteed minimum such as that contained in the basic Federal law.

State officials who distribute the funds for teacher-training might
explain the foregoing discrepancies on the ground that the present program meets present demands for vocational teachers. However, a study of the vocational offerings in secondary schools for Negroes of the South reveals the fact that the potential demand for such teachers is many times greater than the present program provides for. Vast areas and large Negro populations are deprived of such opportunities.

**Increased Funds Through the George-Dean Act.** The problem of Negroes with respect to Smith-Hughes funds has been not only the securing of an equitable distribution of the funds, but the total inadequacy of the funds even if they were equitably distributed. The George-Dean Act was approved June 1, 1936 and went into effect July 1, 1937. This Act, the purpose of which is to provide for the further development of vocational education, authorized increased appropriations for vocational education and for preparing teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural, trade, and home economics subjects. A just and fair proportion of these additional funds should find its way into the service of Negroes.

A new feature introduced by the George-Dean Act is the Federal support for education in the distributive occupations. Distributive occupations as defined by the Federal Board of Vocational Education are those followed by workers directly engaged in merchandising activities or in direct contact with buyers and sellers when (a) distributing to consumers, retailers, jobbers, wholesalers, and others the products of farm and industry; (b) managing, operating, or conducting a commercial service or personnel service business, or selling the services of such a business. This Act makes ample

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provision for the support of such training and for the preparation of teachers for the work. No other area of economic life of the Negro is more in need of improvement. Educational leaders should make every provision for the Negro to share in this program.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions seem to grow out of the foregoing discussion:

1. That although the Federally-aided program of teacher-training did not go into effect until after the passage of the National Vocational Education Act, which was approved February 23, 1917, Negro land-grant colleges had depended to some extent upon the Morrill Funds as a part of their budget from the time they were allowed to share in such funds. Since their principal function was teacher-training, it is not entirely out of place to think of them as fostering a Federally-aided program of vocational teacher-training even prior to 1917.

2. The Southern states are allotted certain funds for teacher-training on the basis of their entire population and then consistently allot to Negro institutions less than the amount justified by the size of the Negro population. This is true in spite of notable exceptions pointed out in the discussion and noted in Table VII.

3. Neither state officials nor Negroes themselves are making much progress in increasing the demand for vocational teachers by bringing the program of vocational education to neglected urban and rural areas.

Recommendations:

1. That Negroes and state officials seek to increase the demand for vocational teachers by introducing vocational subjects in more of the high schools.
(2) Where Negroes are receiving less than their proportional share of Smith-Hughes funds, that the matter be brought clearly and persistently before state and Federal officials with a request for proper adjustment.

(3) That presidents of Negro land-grant colleges formulate and promote programs of vocational teacher-training which will justify larger use of the Federal funds allotted for this purpose. This would include greater participation in supervision and administration of the program.

(4) That Negroes acquaint themselves more fully with the provisions of various Federal laws governing grants-in-aid to education.

(5) That in all future Federal legislation making appropriations for support of either specific or general education in the states, it be clearly specified that the Negroes and Negro schools receive an amount not less than the amount which the ratio of the Negro population to the entire population would require.

(6) That for states which maintain separate schools for the races, the state and Federal reports covering Federally-aided programs of education, contain more complete and detailed analyses of the extent to which Negroes participate in, and are served by these programs. This refers more particularly to Federal reports because they are more easily available to the public.

If these recommendations are carried out, there should follow: (1) a greater improvement in Negro farm and home life in the rural areas of the South; (2) a greater development of the Negro land-grant colleges since more funds would then be available for vocational teacher-training in these institutions; (3) a greater supply of trained mechanics and tradesmen to meet the demands for such artisans among the Negro population.
especially in urban centers in the South; and (4) a greater supply of trained
agricultural and home economics teachers to meet the demands which would be created
for such teachers when the Federal and state funds for vocational education are
equitably divided between the two races in the public high schools.

FEDERAL SUBSIDIES AND THE FIELD OF OPERATION
OF NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

In order to see the full significance of the relationship of the Federal
Government to the development of Negro land-grant colleges, it is necessary to
make a close examination of the field in which the colleges have been operating
since 1910. The fields of operation for the Negro land-grant college are easy to
determine. Table VIII on the next page shows the percentage of Negroes in the
total population in the United States for the census years of 1910, 1920, and
1930 and Table IX on pages 128 and 129 shows the percentage distribution of
Negroes in the total population in the United States by states for the same periods.
Tables X and XI should be carefully studied also in order that a true setting of
the colleges might be seen in relationship to the Federal subsidies which we have
been considering.

Land-grant colleges for Negroes and whites of necessity placed much emphasis
upon farmers and farming. Millions of dollars of Federal and state money had their
expenditures justified in the number of farmers in a given state. Besides, the
Federal laws governing these institutions drew special educational attention to
those persons who are engaged in agricultural pursuits.

In Table X on page 130 attention is called to the number of Negro and white
farmers in the seventeen states which maintain separate land-grant colleges, for
the census years: 1910, 1920, and 1930. In Table XI on page 131 consideration is
given to the Negro farm population in each of the seventeen Southern states for
the census years: 1910, 1920, and 1930. The per-
Table VIII
PERCENTAGE OF DISTRIBUTION OF NEGROES IN THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE U.S. FOR THE CENSUS YEAR:
1910, 1920, 1930*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Year</th>
<th>Total Population in U.S.</th>
<th>Total Population of Whites and all others except Negroes</th>
<th>Total Population of Negroes</th>
<th>% of Negroes in the Total Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1910....</td>
<td>91,972,266</td>
<td>81,731,957</td>
<td>10,240,309</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920....</td>
<td>105,710,620</td>
<td>94,820,915</td>
<td>10,889,705</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930....</td>
<td>122,075,046</td>
<td>108,864,207</td>
<td>13,210,839</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>1910 Total Whites and Others</th>
<th>1910 Total Negroes</th>
<th>Per- cent of Negroes</th>
<th>1920 Total Whites and Others</th>
<th>1920 Total Negroes</th>
<th>Per- cent of Negroes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>1,229,811</td>
<td>908,282</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>1,447,522</td>
<td>900,652</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>1,131,558</td>
<td>442,891</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>1,279,984</td>
<td>427,220</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>171,141</td>
<td>31,181</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>192,668</td>
<td>30,335</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1,432,134</td>
<td>176,987</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>1,689,467</td>
<td>1,216,365</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>443,905</td>
<td>308,669</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>638,983</td>
<td>229,484</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>2,028,249</td>
<td>261,655</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>2,180,692</td>
<td>235,938</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>942,514</td>
<td>713,874</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>1,098,252</td>
<td>700,257</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>1,063,096</td>
<td>232,250</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>1,205,182</td>
<td>244,479</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>787,627</td>
<td>1,009,487</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>855,434</td>
<td>935,184</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>3,135,883</td>
<td>157,452</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>3,225,814</td>
<td>174,241</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>1,508,444</td>
<td>697,643</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>1,878,687</td>
<td>763,407</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>1,519,543</td>
<td>137,612</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>819,005</td>
<td>149,408</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>679,557</td>
<td>835,843</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>1,886,127</td>
<td>864,719</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>1,711,701</td>
<td>473,088</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>3,921,534</td>
<td>451,758</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>3,206,593</td>
<td>690,049</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>1,619,170</td>
<td>741,694</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>1,390,516</td>
<td>671,096</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>1,377,356</td>
<td>690,017</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>1,156,946</td>
<td>64,173</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>88,445</td>
<td>88,445</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Compiled from U. S. Census Report of 1930, Department of Commerce*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total Whites and Others</th>
<th>Total Negroes</th>
<th>Percent of Negroes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>1,701,414</td>
<td>944,844</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>1,376,019</td>
<td>478,463</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>205,778</td>
<td>32,602</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1,837,381</td>
<td>1,072,125</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>1,036,383</td>
<td>431,828</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>2,338,549</td>
<td>226,040</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>1,325,267</td>
<td>776,326</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>1,355,147</td>
<td>276,379</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>1,000,103</td>
<td>1,009,713</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>3,405,527</td>
<td>223,840</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>2,251,629</td>
<td>118,647</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>2,223,842</td>
<td>172,198</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>945,084</td>
<td>793,861</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>2,138,910</td>
<td>477,646</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>4,969,751</td>
<td>854,964</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>1,771,666</td>
<td>650,165</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>1,614,312</td>
<td>114,893</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table X**

**NUMBER OF NEGRO AND WHITE FARMERS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES**

**FOR THE CENSUS YEARS: 1910 - 1920 - 1930**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>1910 White</th>
<th>1910 Negroes</th>
<th>1920 White</th>
<th>1920 Negroes</th>
<th>1930 White</th>
<th>1930 Negroes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>152,458</td>
<td>110,443</td>
<td>160,896</td>
<td>95,203</td>
<td>163,566</td>
<td>93,829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>151,085</td>
<td>63,593</td>
<td>160,322</td>
<td>72,282</td>
<td>162,755</td>
<td>79,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>9,914</td>
<td>922</td>
<td>9,268</td>
<td>872</td>
<td>8,900</td>
<td>807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>35,295</td>
<td>14,721</td>
<td>41,951</td>
<td>12,954</td>
<td>47,923</td>
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<td>357,249</td>
<td>78,784</td>
<td>409,426</td>
<td>86,063</td>
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<td>47,786</td>
<td>130,937</td>
<td>39,673</td>
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<td>708</td>
<td>86,785</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>82,150</td>
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The percentage distribution of the Negro population of the United States in 1930 was farm, 48.9; village, 17.2 and urban, 33.9. The percentage distribution of the Negro population in the South was: farm, 56.6; village 18.3; and urban 25.1. It is fundamental in the operation of land-grant colleges, both for legal and service purposes, to appreciate the total farm population of the groups or group to be served. The early arguments for the establishment of land-grant institutions emphasized the educational needs of the rural family.

Table XI

NEGRO FARM POPULATION IN STATES WHERE THERE ARE SEPARATE LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR NEGROES FOR THE CENSUS YEARS INDICATED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>1910</th>
<th>1920</th>
<th>1930</th>
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<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>356,906</td>
<td>515,082</td>
<td>496,542</td>
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<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>177,491</td>
<td>333,636</td>
<td>324,611</td>
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<td>Delaware</td>
<td>5,345</td>
<td>8,953</td>
<td>6,755</td>
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<td>Florida</td>
<td>70,697</td>
<td>87,602</td>
<td>75,469</td>
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<td>Georgia</td>
<td>411,086</td>
<td>754,975</td>
<td>555,764</td>
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<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>37,537</td>
<td>73,267</td>
<td>47,849</td>
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<td>211,873</td>
<td>361,301</td>
<td>372,496</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>33,551</td>
<td>62,930</td>
<td>44,281</td>
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<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>472,594</td>
<td>721,565</td>
<td>762,836</td>
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<td>Missouri</td>
<td>18,330</td>
<td>19,984</td>
<td>29,613</td>
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<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>226,525</td>
<td>467,294</td>
<td>497,496</td>
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<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>34,259</td>
<td>78,005</td>
<td>79,514</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>351,927</td>
<td>639,470</td>
<td>457,554</td>
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<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>109,843</td>
<td>203,081</td>
<td>174,515</td>
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<td>Texas</td>
<td>217,930</td>
<td>415,211</td>
<td>409,922</td>
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<td>127,730</td>
<td>308,013</td>
<td>258,967</td>
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<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>2,450</td>
<td>4,021</td>
<td>3,815</td>
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</table>

The educational influence of supplemental Federal appropriations in advancing the cause of land-grant colleges can not be overlooked. The Hatch Act of 1887 set up in these institutions programs of scientific research.

* Taken from p. 25 of John Davis' "Land-Grant College for Negroes," West Virginia State College Bulletin, Series 21, No. 5, (April, 1904).
investigation and experimentation which have made them research centers in the field of agriculture. Not one of the states which supports a separate land-grant college for Negroes has established yet an experimental station in connection with the institutions for Negroes. The work of experimentation and research resulting from the original Hatch Act of 1887 has been the continuing life stream, however, of white land-grant colleges.

Another supporting claim of the land-grant colleges has been extension work for which huge sums of money have been appropriated by the Federal and state governments. As we have shown, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 provided for the giving of instruction and practical demonstration in agriculture and home making to persons not attending the land-grant colleges. Nothing has been more effective in building up the white land-grant colleges than extension work. The colleges, through this work, are carried to the people in the rural areas. Table XII on page 133 shows that Negro land-grant colleges have failed to receive their proportionate share of extension funds.

This condition becomes all the more alarming when as revealed in Table XX on page 149 not one of the land-grant colleges for Negroes had expenditures for extension work in 1938. An estimate of the amount of money which should be expended annually among Negroes for extension services on the basis of their population in the South is $2,293,572. Dr. John W. Davis' study shows: (1) the amount of Federal money the various Southern states received in 1933 for extension work and the amount they supplemented for this purpose; and (2) the amount that was spent on Negroes and the amount which should have been spent on them on the basis of rural percentages. Since this extension work is generally carried on by the graduates of the land-grant colleges, the development of these institutions has been greatly retarded by such discriminations. As we have seen, these discriminations have continued since 1933.

* John W. Davis, op. cit., p. 28.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
<th>Total From Federal Funds</th>
<th>Total From State Sources</th>
<th>Total of Federal Funds to Negroes for the Year 1931-32</th>
<th>Percentage of Negroes in States For Census of 1930 on Basis Of:</th>
<th>Estimated Amount of Money for Extension Work Which should go to Negroes on Basis of Rural Percentage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$ 661,898</td>
<td>$309,565</td>
<td>$352,333</td>
<td>$22,676</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>35.6 36.4 35.7 $235,635</td>
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<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>522,654</td>
<td>263,137</td>
<td>259,517</td>
<td>16,136</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>26.5 32.8 25.8 139,503</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>60,929</td>
<td>46,714</td>
<td>46,215</td>
<td>10,650</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>15.2 8.3 13.7 9,261</td>
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<td>Florida</td>
<td>366,405</td>
<td>152,640</td>
<td>213,765</td>
<td>27,368</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>31.2 18.7 29.4 114,318</td>
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<td>354,684</td>
<td>380,205</td>
<td>27,499</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>37.4 33.9 36.8 274,848</td>
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<td>240,305</td>
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<td>23,265</td>
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<td>278,341</td>
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<td>303,663</td>
<td>21,500</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# This column includes all Federal money received through Land-Grant Colleges for Negroes whether for extension, endowment of instruction.

The lack of adequate extension service among Negroes in rural areas robs Negro land-grant colleges of a type of support which is essential to their proper expansion and development.

From table XIII on page 135 may be seen the number of extension workers who were in service on October 31, 1933. The deficit of approximately $2,293,572 in extension service for Negroes might well be considered in connection with the number of Negro extension workers. Of 2,899 extension workers in 1933 only 377 were Negroes. The number of Negro extension workers should have been 733 if consideration were given to proportion of rural Negroes to rural whites. As we have already shown and will show later, little improvement in this direction has been made since 1933.

The field of operation of Negro land-grant colleges may be further seen by considering the operations of the Federal Board of Vocational Education and its relationship to the work of land-grant institutions. Reference is now made to the provisions and appropriations of the original Smith-Hughes Act of February 23, 1917 and supplementary acts. The basis of expenditure of money allotted to the states under these Acts is as follows:

(a) For paying the salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects the Federal money is distributed to the states in the proportion which their rural population bears to the total urban population of the United States.

(b) For paying the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics (only 20% to home economics, and industrial subjects) the Federal money is distributed to the states in the proportion which their urban population bears to the total urban population of the United States.

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<th>STATE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF COUNTIES</th>
<th>DIRECTORS AND ASSISTANT DIRECTORS</th>
<th>STATE LEADERS</th>
<th>ASSISTANT STATE LEADERS &amp; DISTRICT AGENTS</th>
<th>COUNTY AGENTS</th>
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</table>

**COLLAPSED FOR REGIONS, ON OCT 31, 1933**

**EXTENSION SERVICE—NUMBER OF WHITE AND NEGRO EXTENSION WORKERS IN STATES WHERE THERE ARE SEPARATE LAND-GRAIN HOME DEMONSTRATION WORK**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total White Workers</th>
<th>Total Negro Workers</th>
<th>Percentage of Negros in the Rural Population 1930 Census</th>
<th>Estimated Shortage of Negro Workers</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Alabama</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table XIII (continued)*
For preparing teachers and supervisors of agricultural, trade, industrial and home economics subjects, the Federal government distributes money to the states in the proportion which their population bears to the total population of the United States. No more than 60% nor less than 20% of the amount of the Federal money can be used for: (1) preparation of teachers and supervisors of agricultural subjects; (2) preparation of teachers of trades and industrial subjects; or (3) preparation of home economics subjects.

Table XIV on the next page shows the total number of Negro urban, village, and farm population and the percentage of each by states for 1930. These figures should be referred to when a comparison is made in subsequent tables (XV through XVII) of the extent to which Negroes in these states have received benefits from the Smith-Hughes Act.

Dr. H. O. Sargent of the Federal Board of Vocational Education has compiled the total Federal funds spent on the salaries of white and Negro teachers of agriculture and teacher trainers for 1932-1933. The compilation is now presented as Table XV on page 139. For comparison and for a more inclusive picture of the operation and use of Federal funds in states in which there are separate land-grant institutions for Negroes, two compilations in table form, as set up by Dr. John W. Davis, are now presented as Tables XVI and XVII on pages 140 and 141 respectively.

The enrollment in land-grant colleges for Negroes has been affected by the distribution and use of Federal and state funds just mentioned. In other words, the lack of proper allocation of Federal and state funds for work of the colleges makes it impossible to build up the type of public sentiment so essential to the program of these colleges. This reference includes very particularly those persons who do not and will not register in the colleges but who will learn to appreciate the program of the colleges even to the extent of having their children enroll in the future.
Table XIV  
NEGLIGENCE POPULATION BY STATES: 1930  
URBAN—VILLAGE—FARM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total Negro Population</th>
<th>Percent of Total Pop.</th>
<th>Urban Population Negro</th>
<th>Percent Urban</th>
<th>Negro Pop. in Villages</th>
<th>Percent Village</th>
<th>Negro Pop. on Farms</th>
<th>Percent Farm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>944,834</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>268,450</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>179,842</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>496,542</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>478,463</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>99,162</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>64,690</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>324,611</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>32,604</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>15,037</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>10,810</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>6,755</td>
<td>14.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>431,828</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>210,292</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>146,067</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>75,469</td>
<td>27.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1,071,125</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>316,637</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>198,724</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>555,764</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>226,040</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>116,561</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>61,630</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>47,849</td>
<td>4.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>776,326</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>257,463</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>146,367</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>372,496</td>
<td>45.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>276,379</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>159,654</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>72,444</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>44,281</td>
<td>18.7</td>
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<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>1,009,718</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>133,987</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>112,895</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>762,836</td>
<td>56.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>223,840</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>169,954</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>24,273</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>29,613</td>
<td>2.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>208,828</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>174,985</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>29,246</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4,597</td>
<td>3.7</td>
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<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>918,647</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>246,437</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>174,914</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>497,496</td>
<td>31.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>172,198</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>67,801</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>24,883</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>79,514</td>
<td>7.8</td>
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<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>793,681</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>138,354</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>157,373</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>497,954</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>477,646</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>240,168</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>62,963</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>174,515</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>804,964</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>329,229</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>115,213</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>409,922</td>
<td>17.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>650,165</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>213,401</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>177,797</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>258,967</td>
<td>21.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>114,893</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>31,324</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>79,854</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>3,815</td>
<td>0.9</td>
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</table>

Total(U.S.) 11,891,143 9.7 5,193,913 43.6 2,016,707 17.0 4,680,523 39.3

Urban Population includes all persons living in places above 2500; village population those in places below 2500; and farm population those living on land in the open country.

# Taken from U. S. Census Report for 1930, Department of Commerce.
### Table XV

**Total Federal Funds Spent on Salaries of White and Negro Vocational Teachers of Agriculture and Teacher Trainers 1932-1933 in States Which Maintain Separate Land-Grant Colleges for Negroes.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region and State</th>
<th>Vocational Funds</th>
<th>Teacher Training Funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region...........</td>
<td>$1,594,392.75</td>
<td>$2,184,472.81</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alabama...........</td>
<td>116,804.31</td>
<td>15,281.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arkansas..........</td>
<td>82,637.20</td>
<td>23,606.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida...........</td>
<td>34,781.00</td>
<td>8,300.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia...........</td>
<td>112,346.53</td>
<td>27,894.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky..........</td>
<td>125,050.47</td>
<td>2,883.12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Louisiana........</td>
<td>63,306.46</td>
<td>16,588.27</td>
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<tr>
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<td>32,620.70</td>
<td>907.91</td>
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<tr>
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<td>100,628.85</td>
<td>19,295.03</td>
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<tr>
<td>Missouri.........</td>
<td>121,685.70</td>
<td>2,628.64</td>
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<td>148,555.46</td>
<td>15,283.08</td>
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<td>95,881.38</td>
<td>12,150.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. Carolina.....</td>
<td>83,473.43</td>
<td>10,097.00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>105,921.45</td>
<td>12,435.04</td>
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<tr>
<td>Texas............</td>
<td>213,913.93</td>
<td>33,640.03</td>
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<td>97,419.26</td>
<td>14,679.89</td>
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<tr>
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<td>49,829.11</td>
<td>2,799.96</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delaware........</td>
<td>9,537.71</td>
<td>9,537.71</td>
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</table>

Since these States had then no vocational agricultural teacher-training institutions for Negroes, this amount is not included.

Georgia used $1,209.96 and Mississippi $500.00 of teacher-training funds on salary of colored supervisors. John W. Davis, op. cit., p. 31
Table XVI

ALLOTMENT OF FEDERAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FUNDS TO STATES WHICH MAINTAIN SEPARATE LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR NEGROES FOR THE YEAR ENDED

June 30, 1926, AND ANNUALLY THEREAFTER TO 1933*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>Agriculture for salaries of teachers and Directors</th>
<th>Trade, Industry and Home Economics for Salaries of Teachers</th>
<th>Teacher Training for Salaries of Teachers and Maintenance of Teacher-Training</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$157,988,45</td>
<td>$107,318.99</td>
<td>$28,363.90</td>
<td>$22,305.56</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>118,130.01</td>
<td>85,307.84</td>
<td>16,177.80</td>
<td>16,644.37</td>
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<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>65,570.98</td>
<td>35,755.06</td>
<td>19,815.92</td>
<td>10,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>194,569.14</td>
<td>126,526.79</td>
<td>40,534.53</td>
<td>27,507.82</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>162,302.06</td>
<td>104,864.16</td>
<td>35,282.06</td>
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<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>120,370.17</td>
<td>68,303.49</td>
<td>34,982.45</td>
<td>17,084.23</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>96,052.46</td>
<td>33,863.79</td>
<td>48,418.18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>120,871.42</td>
<td>90,489.79</td>
<td>13,372.36</td>
<td>17,009.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>227,762.49</td>
<td>106,052.25</td>
<td>88,374.76</td>
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<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>172,354.27</td>
<td>120,736.14</td>
<td>27,308.75</td>
<td>24,309.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>136,199.77</td>
<td>86,389.21</td>
<td>30,043.68</td>
<td>19,266.88</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>113,473.58</td>
<td>81,107.54</td>
<td>16,372.16</td>
<td>15,993.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>157,017.97</td>
<td>100,770.92</td>
<td>34,039.23</td>
<td>22,207.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>312,409.38</td>
<td>138,871.11</td>
<td>84,241.77</td>
<td>44,296.50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>154,902.82</td>
<td>96,433.38</td>
<td>37,534.22</td>
<td>21,935.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>98,324.19</td>
<td>63,888.31</td>
<td>20,550.03</td>
<td>13,903.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$2,407,317.15</strong></td>
<td><strong>$1,490,378.77</strong></td>
<td><strong>$545,368.12</strong></td>
<td><strong>$341,526.58</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>

*For years 1932 to 1941 allotments will be based upon returns of population at the Federal Census of 1930. See John W. Davis, op. cit p. 34.
Table XVII*

AMOUNT OF FEDERAL ALLOTMENTS, UNDER THE SMITH-HUGHES ACT WHICH ON THE BASIS OF THEIR PER-CENT OF THE TOTAL POPULATION, THE RURAL POPULATION, AND THE URBAN POPULATION SHOULD BE EXPENDED FOR NEGROES IN 1926, AND EACH YEAR THEREAFTER IN EACH OF THE SOUTHERN STATES FOR AGRICULTURE FOR TRADES AND FOR TEACHER TRAINING.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATES</th>
<th>Total which should be expended for Negroes in 1926 and each year thereafter</th>
<th>Amount which should be expended for salaries of Teachers, Supervisors, and Directors of Agriculture</th>
<th>Amount which should be expended for salaries of Teachers of Trades, Industries, and Home Economics</th>
<th>Amount which should be expended for salaries of Teachers and Maintenance of Teacher Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$61,616</td>
<td>$41,103</td>
<td>$11,948</td>
<td>$8,565</td>
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<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>30,874</td>
<td>22,289</td>
<td>4,092</td>
<td>4,493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>22,309</td>
<td>12,192</td>
<td>6,717</td>
<td>3,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>81,203</td>
<td>54,533</td>
<td>15,200</td>
<td>11,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>15,701</td>
<td>7,596</td>
<td>5,856</td>
<td>2,249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>47,092</td>
<td>29,348</td>
<td>10,599</td>
<td>6,645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>16,259</td>
<td>7,009</td>
<td>6,923</td>
<td>2,327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>63,238</td>
<td>48,864</td>
<td>5,496</td>
<td>8,878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>11,737</td>
<td>2,545</td>
<td>7,511</td>
<td>1,681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>51,369</td>
<td>35,496</td>
<td>8,629</td>
<td>7,244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>10,006</td>
<td>5,908</td>
<td>2,673</td>
<td>1,425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>58,338</td>
<td>43,635</td>
<td>6,483</td>
<td>8,220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>30,207</td>
<td>16,425</td>
<td>9,496</td>
<td>4,286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>49,848</td>
<td>30,338</td>
<td>12,467</td>
<td>7,043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>46,250</td>
<td>28,057</td>
<td>11,635</td>
<td>6,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>5,778</td>
<td>3,705</td>
<td>1,253</td>
<td>820</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total          | $601,825                                                                          | $389,543                                                                         | $126,978                                                                         | $85,304                                             |

*John W. Davis, op.cit. p. 36. Note: the State of Delaware is omitted from Dr. Davis' study.
A Typical Example of Discrimination against the Negro in the Spending of Federal Funds. In order to get a clear picture of the extent to which the Southern states misappropriate Federal funds for their Negro populations, some facts concerning the actual situation in Maryland today will serve as a typical example of what is now being done to a greater or lesser degree in the other sixteen Southern states to deprive the Negro of the use and benefit of Federal money appropriated for all citizens in the various states without regard for race, color, or creed. On page 29 of the Maryland Manual, 1939, the following quotation will be found:

The agricultural work of the University of Maryland naturally comprises three fields: research, instruction, and extension. The Agricultural Experiment Station is the research agency of the University which has for its purpose the increase of knowledge relating to agriculture, primarily for its benefit. It is also the real source of agricultural information for use in the classroom and for demonstrations in the field.

The Experiment Station work is supported by both State and Federal appropriations. The Hatch Act passed by Congress in 1887, appropriates $15,000 annually; the Adams Act passed in 1906, provides $15,000 annually; and the Purnell Act, passed in 1925, provides $60,000 annually. The state appropriation for 1938-39 is $74,000.

The University of Maryland Experimental Station has available $164,000 annually. There is no Station for Experiments provided for Negroes in Maryland, nor is there one in any of the other sixteen Southern states. Furthermore, Negroes are denied the privilege of doing research work at the University of Maryland, as is the case of Negroes wishing to do research work in similar universities in the other Southern states. It is apparent, therefore, that Negroes are being denied these usual privileges.
Under the Morrill Act of 1862 and its amendments, Maryland receives 
$50,000 annually for agricultural and mechanical arts training. Of this 
sum Princess Anne College receives $10,000. Two and four years of agri­
cultural, home-economics, and teacher-training work are offered to less 
than two hundred students.

Moreover, the operation of two other Federal Acts does not show up as 
well as that of the Morrill Act. Maryland receives annually from the 
Federal Government through the Smith-Hughes Act (1917) $96,052.46 which 
is appropriated on the basis of rural population according to the Federal 
census (up to 1930). This money should be expended as follows: (1) 
Agriculture, for salaries of teachers, Supervisors, and Directors, 
$33,863.79; (2) Trade, industry and home economics, for salaries of 
teachers, $48,418.18; (3) Teacher-training salaries and maintenance, 
$13,770.49. The total which should be expended for Negroes under these 
designations are: (1) $6,027.96; (2) $8,618.44; (3) $2,451.41. In 1937-38, 
the amount actually spent in Maryland for Negro work was, items (1) and 
(2) $1,907.91, item (3) nothing. The Negro population of Maryland is 17.8%. 
The white population is 82.2%. The total which should be expended accord­
ing to these percentages each year would be, white $78,955.12 and color­
ed $17,097.33 as against $1,907.91 actually spent. It seems to be a 
practice in Maryland to count the Negroes in order to receive Federal 
money, but to forget them when the money is disbursed.

The Smith-Lever Act (1914) provides Maryland with $139,283 and the 
State appropriates $249,337, making a total of $388,620 to be expended 
for the aid of persons who are not enrolled in the colleges, through 
demonstrations and instruction in agriculture and home economics. The
Maryland University catalogue for 1937-1938 lists 96 white extension service staff, county agents, and county home demonstration agents, and 7 local agents who are colored. The amount of money for extension work which should go to Negroes on the basis of rural percentages is $69,174. The amount of money actually expended for and by the local colored agents is not available. However, it is obvious they do not have $69,174 at their disposal.

In addition to these Acts, there are the Hatch Act, 1887; Adams Act, 1906; Purnell Act, 1925; Second Morrill Act, 1890; Capper-Ketcham Act, 1928; George-Reed Act, 1929, and the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935. Maryland receives several hundred thousand dollars annually from the Federal Government. The Negroes in Maryland, like Negroes in most of the Southern states, do not receive their proportionate share of Federal funds, and in many cases receive no benefit from them.

A Typical Example of Discrimination against the Negro in the Spending of State Funds. This same practice of denying the Negro a legal right, which is certainly his, is very evident in the State appropriations for higher education in Maryland. A study of the Governor's Budget for the past fiscal year (Sept. 30, 1937 to Sept. 30, 1938) reveals the following appropriations:


Adapted from data found on page 3 in the pamphlet of The Federation of Maryland Organizations, 1938.
University of Maryland...... $2,068,804.99  
John Hopkins University.... 75,000.00  
Maryland Institute......... 20,000.00  
Blue Ridge College........ 7,000.00  
Charlotte Hall School...... 9,500.00  
St. John's College......... 70,000.00  
St Mary's Seminary........ 11,000.00  
Washington College........ 65,000.00  
Western Maryland College... 50,000.00  
Morgan College............. $26,000.00

---

Total...........................$2,376,304.99

On the basis of population the Negroes of Maryland should have received $395,849.54.

State appropriation for Teacher-Training for the same fiscal year shows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>White</th>
<th>Colored</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Towson Normal School...</td>
<td>$207,726.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frostburg Normal School.</td>
<td>60,015.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salisbury Normal School.</td>
<td>64,265.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bowie Normal School....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$36,030.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Total...........................$332,006.00

On the basis of population the Negroes of Maryland should have received $52,579.00.

**Annual Appropriations of Negro Land-Grant Colleges Non-Proportional to the Negro Populations in the Seventeen Southern States.** A comparison of Table XVIII and XIX on pages 146 and 147 respectively reveals further discriminations against the Negro by the Southern states both in the matter of appropriating equitably funds for the support of Negro land-grant colleges, and in spending equitably Federal funds allocated to the various states on the basis of their rural populations, white and Negro. As
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Located in</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama A. &amp; M. College, Normal</td>
<td>$25,000</td>
<td>$25,219</td>
<td>$50,219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas, A. M. &amp; N., Pine Bluff</td>
<td>63,100</td>
<td>15,965</td>
<td>79,065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware, State College, Dover</td>
<td>44,255</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>54,255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida, A. &amp; N. College, Tallahassee</td>
<td>141,550</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>166,550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia, State Industrial College</td>
<td>39,995</td>
<td>18,732</td>
<td>58,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky, State Industrial College, Frankfort</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>12,066</td>
<td>112,066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana, Southern University, Baton Rouge</td>
<td>81,900</td>
<td>23,560</td>
<td>105,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland, Princess Anne College, Princess Anne</td>
<td>26,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>36,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi, A. &amp; M. Alcorn</td>
<td>52,500</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>79,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri, Lincoln University, Jefferson City</td>
<td>260,328</td>
<td>3,125</td>
<td>263,453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina, A. &amp; T. College, Greensboro</td>
<td>51,800</td>
<td>22,000</td>
<td>73,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma, A. &amp; N., Langston</td>
<td>138,521</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>146,521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina, State College, Orangeburg</td>
<td>73,000</td>
<td>35,954</td>
<td>108,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas, State College, Prairie View</td>
<td>205,180</td>
<td>12,500</td>
<td>217,680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia, State College, Ettrick</td>
<td>87,155</td>
<td>33,110</td>
<td>120,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia, State College Institute</td>
<td>187,760</td>
<td>12,049</td>
<td>199,809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTALS**................. $1,577,044 $295,280 $1,872,324

Compiled from data found in the 1937-38 official catalogues of the college.
Table XIX

STATE AND FEDERAL APPROPRIATIONS FOR WHITE LAND-GRAIN COLLEGES IN THE SOUTHERN STATES IN 1937-38

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Located in</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$910,554</td>
<td>$331,943</td>
<td>$1,242,497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>995,373</td>
<td>280,484</td>
<td>1,275,857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>421,906</td>
<td>141,080</td>
<td>562,976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>1,764,402</td>
<td>203,171</td>
<td>1,967,573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>709,271</td>
<td>301,808</td>
<td>1,011,079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>1,883,833</td>
<td>332,237</td>
<td>2,216,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>1,211,709</td>
<td>255,135</td>
<td>1,466,844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>1,524,866</td>
<td>211,672</td>
<td>1,736,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>1,277,231</td>
<td>296,425</td>
<td>1,573,656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>991,213</td>
<td>379,407</td>
<td>1,270,620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>1,508,144</td>
<td>344,249</td>
<td>1,852,393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>1,374,152</td>
<td>236,423</td>
<td>1,610,575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>1,208,626</td>
<td>256,768</td>
<td>1,465,394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>1,911,971</td>
<td>334,584</td>
<td>2,246,555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>3,213,020</td>
<td>372,406</td>
<td>3,585,426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>1,672,807</td>
<td>310,703</td>
<td>1,983,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>2,256,895</td>
<td>254,885</td>
<td>2,511,780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>$24,835,973</td>
<td>$5,143,370</td>
<td>$29,979,343</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compiled from data found in the 1937-38 Blue Book of American Colleges.
shown in Table XVIII and XIX, the total appropriation, State and Federal, for white land-grant colleges in the Southern states equaled $29,979,343. in 1937-38, while the total appropriation, State and Federal, for Negroes land-grant colleges equaled only $1,872,324 or less than 1/16 as much. Yet the Negro population in these states equals 1/3 of the total population.

An Analysis of the Expenditure of Federal Funds by Negro Land-Grant Colleges. An analysis of the participation of Negroes in permanent Federal funds, shows that the interests of this group are to a large extent stalemated at some point between Federal lethargy and an inertia based upon the doctrine of individual rights of states. The Federal Government acknowledges its obligation of interest in this sad educational plight of Negroes but at the same time feels that it must not make any suggestion to a given state to remedy the educational ills of its suffering Negro group. To this attitude of the Federal Government must be added an apparent lack of functioning public goodwill within given states to cause remedial action to be brought about for Negroes within the states. Facts support the contention that unless a Federal Act, as in the case of the second Morrill Act of 1890 or the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, indicates how the Federal appropriations are to be divided between Negroes and whites or between Negro and white land-grant colleges, the Negro will receive far too little of the benefits of the educational program or of the money which is appropriated to support the program.

In Table XX on pages 149-151 an effort has been made to show the application of permanent Federal funds to Negro and white land-grant colleges in given states for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1937. Specific congressional acts are cited, and the amount of money from each act is designated for the Negro and white college in each state. It is clear from
Table XX

FEDERAL FUNDS RECEIVED BY WHITE AND NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1937 IN THOSE STATES WHICH MAINTAIN SEPARATE LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR NEGROES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>1 Morrill Act of 1862</th>
<th>2 Other Land-Grant Funds</th>
<th>3 Supplementary Morrill Funds</th>
<th>4 Hatch-Adams Funds</th>
<th>5 Smith-Lever Funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ala.</td>
<td>20,280</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>$51,549</td>
<td>$29,238</td>
<td>$30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ark.</td>
<td>6,633</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56,407</td>
<td>21,153</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>2,250</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56,777</td>
<td>14,194</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fla.</td>
<td>6,236</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37,992</td>
<td>37,992</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga.</td>
<td>10,510</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54,571</td>
<td>27,285</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ky.</td>
<td>26,611</td>
<td>1,255</td>
<td>68,963</td>
<td>11,695</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La.</td>
<td>14,556</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>49,285</td>
<td>29,281</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Md.</td>
<td>4,424</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>63,620</td>
<td>13,081</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss.</td>
<td>5,914</td>
<td>12,592</td>
<td>35,491</td>
<td>42,702</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mo.</td>
<td>19,266</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>79,495</td>
<td>5,300</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. C.</td>
<td>7,500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55,559</td>
<td>27,365</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okla.</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>99,586</td>
<td>71,791</td>
<td>7,976</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. C.</td>
<td>5,754</td>
<td>5,754</td>
<td>38,544</td>
<td>38,544</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenn.</td>
<td>21,512</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>61,306</td>
<td>19,630</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>10,450</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>70,308</td>
<td>23,436</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Va.</td>
<td>12,789</td>
<td>4,380</td>
<td>53,248</td>
<td>26,624</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Va.</td>
<td>5,219</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>61,639</td>
<td>15,410</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>174,895</strong></td>
<td><strong>23,981</strong></td>
<td><strong>116,887</strong></td>
<td><strong>0</strong></td>
<td><strong>966,545</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued on the next two pages)
### Table XX (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Additional Cooperative Extension Funds</th>
<th>Smith-Hughes Funds</th>
<th>Clarks Mc-Nary Funds</th>
<th>Purnell Fund</th>
<th>Capper-Ketcham Funds</th>
<th>Bankhead-Jones Funds for Agri.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>W.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ala.</td>
<td>$5,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>$9,653</td>
<td>$3,397</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ark.</td>
<td>23,000</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>2,487</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fla.</td>
<td>29,200</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3,513</td>
<td>1,190</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga.</td>
<td>31,500</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>11,562</td>
<td>3,100</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ky.</td>
<td>12,500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11,044</td>
<td>1,100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La.</td>
<td>15,500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5,692</td>
<td>4,963</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Md.</td>
<td>12,775</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9,358</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss.</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8,634</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mo.</td>
<td>24,500</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12,564</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. C.</td>
<td>56,768</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6,797</td>
<td>3,818</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okla.</td>
<td>19,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>143,353</td>
<td>1,232</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. C.</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3,010</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenn.</td>
<td>22,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14,412</td>
<td>10,394</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>W. Va.</td>
<td>3,750</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>310,868</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>262,457</td>
<td>46,763</td>
<td>55,696</td>
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Table XX* (continued)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>12 Military Training Fund Paid**</th>
<th></th>
<th>13 Totals</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Through War Dept.</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Negro</td>
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<td>Ala.</td>
<td>$114,490</td>
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<td>$904,290</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ark.</td>
<td>29,423</td>
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<td>741,279</td>
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<tr>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>24,496</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>242,029</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fla.</td>
<td>131,609</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>505,524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga.</td>
<td>72,233</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>819,823</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ky.</td>
<td>55,190</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>851,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La.</td>
<td>49,692</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>656,085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Md.</td>
<td>33,326</td>
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<td>481,406</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miss.</td>
<td>46,959</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>827,932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mo.</td>
<td>109,945</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. C.</td>
<td>43,350</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>983,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okla.</td>
<td>51,803</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>997,131</td>
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<td>S. C.</td>
<td>73,433</td>
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<td>192,357</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>W. Va.</td>
<td>44,410</td>
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<td>548,615</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Total $1,199,868 | 0 | $13,350,598 | 504,767


**These figures for the year 1932-33 were taken from reports of the War Department as this department administers the military training programs of Land-Grant Colleges. See Biennial Survey of Education, 1932-1934 which appears as office of Education Bulletin (1935) #2, pp. 428-432.
Table XX that:

(1) Four land-grant colleges for Negroes receive aid from the National Land-Grant College Act of 1862.

(2) All land-grant colleges for Negroes receive funds which are made possible through the Second Morrill Act of 1890. It must be remembered that this act specifically indicates that the Federal funds which it provides must be equitably divided between land-grant institutions for Negroes and whites in those states which maintain separate land-grant colleges for the races. This provision is found also in the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935.

(3) Land-grant colleges for Negroes do not share directly in any Federal experiment station or research funds.

(4) Three land-grant colleges for Negroes (Florida, North Carolina, and Texas) report enrollment in military drill but no record is found to indicate the availability of any Federal money to support such training programs.

(5) Land-grant colleges for Negroes are denied their proportionate share of those funds which Congress has appropriated to support a broad program of land-grant college education. Reference is made here to the Federal funds which are made available through the following Acts: (1) Hatch-Adams; (2) Smith-Lever; (3) Clarke-McNary; (4) Purnell; (5) Capper-Ketcham; and (6) Bankhead-Jones. Table XX reveals how the South has discriminated against Negroes by not spending on them an equitable portion of the funds derived from these Acts. Further discrimination is revealed by the complete absence of any funds to provide military training in Negro land-grant colleges, although the teaching of military science was one of the major objectives of the original Morrill Act of 1862.
The percentages of Federal funds, as shown in Table XXI on page 154, which have been applicable to the education of Negroes as compared to those received by whites during the last 30 years have grown steadily less in each decade. This fact becomes all the more alarming when we study the increased enrollment of colleges for Negroes during the same period. The colleges are found to be trying to do more work with funds which are becoming relatively smaller each year.

The land-grant colleges for Negroes enrolled 3,691 students of college level in 1928, 5,679 in 1930-31, and 10,265 in 1936-37. A growing student enrollment has not served to offset the trend of the last 30 years which indicates relatively less state and Federal money for the education of Negroes in those states which support separate land-grant colleges for Negroes. Indeed this trend is more pronounced in those states which have the densest Negro population and in those states where the education need is greatest.

Educational Effects of Financial Discrimination. A very definite relationship exists between effective educational programs and financial ability of colleges. The scope of the collegiate educational program, its adequacy in supplying the needs of the constituency and its outlook in extending the existing bounds of knowledge all depend largely upon the degree of financial backing and support which is accorded the college.

A comparison of the educational offerings of land-grant colleges for white and Negro students in the seventeen Southern states suggests the following comments:

(1) The major educational program of the white land-grant colleges includes work in: (a) graduate study; (b) arts and sciences;
<table>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Federal</td>
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<td>Per</td>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>Federal-</td>
<td>Per</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>$</td>
<td>Negroes</td>
<td>$</td>
<td>$</td>
<td>Negroes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ala.</td>
<td>White $ 49,005</td>
<td>$ 118,385</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>$ 70,399</td>
<td>$ 421,969</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negro 11,225</td>
<td>28,225</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>17,881</td>
<td>29,381</td>
<td>42.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ark.</td>
<td>White 45,582</td>
<td>76,812</td>
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<td>88,941</td>
<td>270,441</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Negro 6,818</td>
<td>10,068</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>10,909</td>
<td>22,509</td>
<td>28.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>White 46,750</td>
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<td>.</td>
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<td>256,900</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Negro 5,000</td>
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<td>16.6</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negro 12,500</td>
<td>19,500</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>25,000</td>
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<td>White 33,621</td>
<td>101,475</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>43,621</td>
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<td>18,108</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>13,333</td>
<td>21,333</td>
<td>45.1</td>
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<td>Negro 4,881</td>
<td>7,881</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>5,800</td>
<td>21,853</td>
<td>11.4</td>
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<td>La.</td>
<td>White 40,780</td>
<td>73,780</td>
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<td>93,731</td>
<td>214,831</td>
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<td>23,133</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>17,851</td>
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<td>43.1</td>
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<td>White 45,833</td>
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<td>6,500</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>25,500</td>
<td>17.9</td>
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<td>266,405</td>
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<td>35,298</td>
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<td>32,305</td>
<td>40,796</td>
<td>56.2</td>
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<td>197,660</td>
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<td>940,816</td>
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<td>16,635</td>
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<td>2,500</td>
<td>58,050</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<td>369,450</td>
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(continued on the next page.)
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<td>Federal</td>
<td>Percent</td>
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<td>State</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>of</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>$94,690</td>
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<td>33,254</td>
<td>188,334</td>
<td>53,574</td>
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<td>25,873</td>
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<td>103,860</td>
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<td>White</td>
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<td>227,045</td>
<td>89,680</td>
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<td>White</td>
<td>41,168</td>
<td>221,818</td>
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<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
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<td>348,713</td>
<td>224,314</td>
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Percent of Totals to F. = 16.4

F.&S. = 13.6

F. = 14.8

F.&S. = 8.2
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<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Ala.</td>
<td>300,055</td>
<td>$1,360,613</td>
<td>20,480</td>
<td>64,951</td>
<td>$1,715,563</td>
<td>$1,858,102</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>79,405</td>
<td>80,225</td>
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<tr>
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<td>225,471</td>
<td>831,172</td>
<td>16,482</td>
<td>40,482</td>
<td>1,583,099</td>
<td>1,749,067</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>59,717</td>
<td>59,734</td>
<td>25.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>100,145</td>
<td>283,286</td>
<td>10,080</td>
<td>18,080</td>
<td>444,418</td>
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<td>50,767</td>
<td>204,855</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fla.</td>
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<td>35,000</td>
<td>49,000</td>
<td>$1,881,806</td>
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<td>16,866</td>
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<td>129,289</td>
<td>150,672</td>
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<td>32,250</td>
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<td>3,890,435</td>
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<td>112,091</td>
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<td>La.</td>
<td>222,156</td>
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<td>64,634</td>
<td>1,865,614</td>
<td>4,251,257</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>105,460</td>
<td>109,308</td>
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<td>31,000</td>
<td>1,705,481</td>
<td>2,906,101</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>103,015</td>
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<td>16.9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>27,600</td>
<td>77,600</td>
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<td>79,500</td>
<td>79,500</td>
<td>50.2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>127,145</td>
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<td>Va.</td>
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<td>10,000</td>
<td>285,433</td>
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<td>2,556,197</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>282,350</td>
<td>231,110</td>
<td>6.6</td>
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Totals        | $4,375,478 | $31,543,294 | 337,444    | 2,011,480  | $43,911,163        | 55,874,343         | 7.1                  | F. = 4.5      | F. & S. = 5.1 | 5.1                  |

Percent of totals to Negroes | 7.1 | 5.9 | 4.5 | 5.1

*Date adopted from Journal of Negro Education, VII, No. 3, (July, 1938).
(c) teacher-education; (d) agriculture; (e) commerce and business; (f) engineering (civil, chemical, electrical, and mechanical) (g) architecture; (h) veterinary medicine; (j) forestry; (k) library science; (l) home economics; (m) law; (n) medicine; (o) nursing; (p) pharmacy; (q) dentistry; and (r) journalism.

(2) The major educational program of the land-grant colleges for Negroes includes work in: (a) arts and sciences; (b) teacher-education; (c) agriculture; (d) mechanic arts; (e) home economics; and in three colleges (f) graduate-study.

(3) There is a total absence of the following types of work for Negroes, which are included in the educational offerings of land-grant colleges for white students: (1) architecture; (2) dentistry; (3) engineering courses; (4) forestry; (5) journalism; (6) law; (7) library science; (8) medicine; (9) pharmacy; (10) veterinary medicine; (11) nursing; and (12) commerce and business.

(4) In 1938 nine of the land-grant colleges for white students graduated ninety-three persons with the Master's degree. Only three land-grant colleges for Negroes claim to have graduate schools and from these schools no one to-date has received a Master's degree.

(5) For the educational offerings of the A&M College of Texas, for white students, there was in the school year 1937-38 a full time instructional staff of 1,208 persons. This staff membership greatly exceeds the combined membership of all of the paid workers in all of the land-grant colleges for Negroes during that year.

(6) The total receipts for the A. and M. College in Texas, for white
students, for the year which ended June 30, 1938 amounted to $5,396,151, while the total receipts for the seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes at the close of the same year amounted to only $4,699,591.

(7) In 1930 the percentages of illiteracy among Negroes, 10 years of age and over in the states involved in this study were, as revealed in Table XXII on the next page: 26.2; 16.1; 13.2; 18.8; 19.9; 15.4; 23.3; 11.4; 23.2; 8.8; 20.6; 9.3; 26.9; 14.9; 13.4; 19.2; and 11.3. Upon the basis of educational need, more money should be spent upon land-grant colleges for Negroes, if these "state institutions" are to do effective work in preparing future citizens for our democracy.

(8) Professional schools for Negroes do not exist as parts of the educational programs of land-grant colleges for Negroes.

(9) Vast cooperative agricultural and home economics extension programs form a part of the agricultural work of land-grant colleges for white students for which vast sums of supporting Federal money are appropriated. Farm and rural Negroes are counted along with farm and rural whites in order to obtain the maximum amount of Federal money for a given state, yet the extension service program now mentioned is not administered advantageously for Negroes in the states where separate land-grant colleges for Negroes are maintained. In such states, for the most part, the Federal and state money and the educational benefits which the money provides go to white farmers and home-makers. The present administration of
Table XXII

PERCENT OF ILLITERACY AMONG NEGROES BY STATES FOR THE CENSUS YEAR INDICATED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>1910</th>
<th>1920</th>
<th>1930</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Federal Co-operative Extension funds operates to prevent landgrant colleges for Negroes from serving the rural Negroes of the South in connection with their greatest needs.

In 1930 the percentage of Negroes in Mississippi on the basis of the total farm population was 56 per cent; on the basis of the total rural population, 52.4 per cent; on the basis of the total number of farmers, 58.5 per cent; and, on the basis of total population, 50.2 per cent, yet the Negroes of this state received only $43,953 in Federal money from a total of $564,391 ($286,050 Federal and $278,341 state) expended in the state for Cooperative Extension Services. Other states show similar glaring inequalities.

(10) The Original Morrill Act of 1862 stressed the need of military training in all land-grant colleges, yet in the seventeen states where land-grant colleges for Negroes are maintained, $1,199,000 in Federal funds are expended on military training for white students and no expenditure is now made on such training for Negro students.

The broad benefits of the National Land-Grant College Act and supplemental Acts thereto are yet to be realized by Negroes in those states which maintain separate land-grant institutions for Negroes. Permanent Federal funds for education in these same states reach Negroes only in a slight degree to remedy their social, economic, and intellectual ills. Land-grant colleges for Negroes have done well their educational assignments with so little money at their disposal.

Information relative to the sources of support of the group of colleges under discussion is given in the report of the "National Survey of
Table XXIII 33

RECEIPTS OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES, EXCLUDING CAPITAL OUTLAYS FOR FISCAL YEAR 1928

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Federal Funds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land-grant acts</td>
<td>$260,928</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith-Hughes Act</td>
<td>77,461</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Funds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation and maintenance</td>
<td>1,379,484</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private gifts</td>
<td>126,115</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional funds:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student fees</td>
<td>173,388</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board and lodging</td>
<td>688,240</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departmental earnings</td>
<td>127,933</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous and other sources</td>
<td>219,090</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$3,052,639</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Land-Grant Colleges" issued by the United States Office of Education.

Table XXIII, which is adapted from that report, shows clearly the extent to which the Southern states contributed to the financial support of these colleges in 1928. From a relative point of view, state appropriations for Negro land-grant colleges have not changed greatly since 1923. State funds generally constitute less than half of all funds received by the colleges.

The figures found in Table XXIII indicate that the sum of one million three hundred and seventy-nine thousand and four hundred and eighty-four dollars ($1,379,484) or 45.2 per cent of the total current income in 1927-28 was derived from the states and only 11 per cent from the Federal Government. While this amount shows a gratifying advance in this regard and signifies a great change in sentiment since the early days described in the foregoing sections of this study, yet it must constantly be borne in mind that the actual sum spent by the states for the higher education of Negroes is still very small, inadequate, and inequitable when compared with the amount spent for the higher education of the white people in the same area. The "National Survey of Land-Grant Colleges" in 1928 revealed several significant facts.

In the first place, the Negro land-grant colleges enrolled in 1928 a total of 9,823 students, of whom 3,691 were counted as in college and 6,132 as of sub-collegiate grade. This means that these institutions were doing as late as 1928 much of the work that should have been taken over by the Negro public high schools and the cost charged to that account rather than to Negro higher education.

34 Ibid. p. 896.
In the second place, these appropriations represented the only expenditure for four-year college education offered by the Southern states to Negroes in 1928, with the exception of North Carolina and West Virginia. In North Carolina a liberal-arts college and three four-year teachers colleges, and in West Virginia a four-year teachers college were then being maintained for Negroes within the borders of these respective states. In both cases these institutions were in addition to the land-grant colleges for Negroes. For the white students every state maintained a state university, but in a number of cases the state universities and the land-grant colleges are identical.

In the third place, $1,379,484, the total of the state appropriations for the entire seventeen land-grant colleges in 1928 was nearly equalled or exceeded by the state appropriations for white students in the case of several individual land-grant colleges. Selected instances for the year 1928 are:

- Florida .................. $1,298,627
- Tennessee .......... $1,327,684
- Kentucky ............... 1,309,450
- West Virginia .... 1,419,732
- North Carolina .......... 996,450
- Louisiana ............ 927,009

In the fourth place, the white land-grant colleges were not in 1928, burdened with students of sub-collegiate grade, since all of them required for admission, graduation from a four-year high school, with at least fifteen units of secondary credit. The organization of Negro land-grant colleges as degree-granting institutions, on the other hand, has been a slow development of the past twenty years. It was not until 1930 that the college enrollment in these institutions exceeded the high school enrollment.

by 5,161 to 4,000. Table XXIV on page 165 illustrates this fact.

The land-grant colleges for Negroes, then, suffer in these four items, as shown by the National survey. But they also suffer from being expected to perform too many functions at the same time. They are supposed to be, first of all, schools of agriculture and mechanical arts. The function of training teachers not only for these but for other fields has been forced upon them. As a necessary concomitant of these functions, liberal-arts courses have been included and adapted to the curricula of technical departments. The question naturally arises whether or not this is a fair requirement to place upon the Negro land-grant colleges, or for that matter, upon any land-grant college. It is possible, of course, that the American scheme of higher education is undergoing a modification at the present time that will justify the combination of technical and liberal education. Until the problems involved have been settled, however, it would seem to the best interest of the Negro to follow, where possible, the accepted American practice. Moreover students of education should realize that there are some very good arguments for and against the inclusion of both kinds of education in the same institution.

It is fair to say, therefore, that although the progress has been somewhat gratifying considering historical conditions, yet the states still have a long way to go in providing for the higher education of their Negro citizens. For, in the future, the state school must be expected to play an ever-increasing part in providing educational facilities on the higher levels.
TABLE XXIV

STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN THE SEVENTEEN LAND-GRAIN COLLEGES OPERATED FOR NEGROES

FOR THE YEARS*  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>1,224</td>
<td>1,212</td>
<td>1,444</td>
<td>1,790</td>
<td>2,188</td>
<td>2,392</td>
<td>3,628</td>
<td>2,894</td>
<td>4,211</td>
<td>5,161</td>
<td>5,679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>4,919</td>
<td>4,840</td>
<td>5,117</td>
<td>5,308</td>
<td>5,243</td>
<td>5,060</td>
<td>4,600</td>
<td>5,095</td>
<td>4,494</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>2,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer School</td>
<td>3,683</td>
<td>4,975</td>
<td>5,029</td>
<td>4,586</td>
<td>4,760</td>
<td>6,529</td>
<td>6,090</td>
<td>6,188</td>
<td>7,103</td>
<td>7,570</td>
<td>8,263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult, Evening, All Others</td>
<td>387</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,204</td>
<td>1,699</td>
<td>1,828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Others</td>
<td></td>
<td>542</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>1,172</td>
<td>607</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals, 10,213</td>
<td>11,469</td>
<td>12,162</td>
<td>12,277</td>
<td>12,476</td>
<td>14,486</td>
<td>14,784</td>
<td>16,090</td>
<td>17,012</td>
<td>18,430</td>
<td>18,765</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Compiled from data in the official annual catalogues of the institutions.
THE RETARDING EFFECTS OF THE WORLD WAR AND THE CONTINUATION OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLLEGES AFTERWARDS

War Work Of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges. Before the Negro land-grant colleges fully realized the significance of the broadening of their functions by the Smith-Lever and Smith-Hughes Acts, or had perfected their organization for work under these acts the United States entered the World War. Immediately, administrative officers, teachers, research, and extension workers, and students connected with these institutions offered their services to the Government in such numbers that it was apparent that their educational work would be crippled. The fact that many of these colleges had been giving military instruction under the land-grant act of 1862 greatly intensified this situation and made the Government feel that it had a special claim on both their graduates and students. In these institutions there were also relatively large numbers of men trained in the application of various sciences to practical purposes, and this training made them valuable for war work outside of the strictly military field.

Postwar Work of the Negro Land-Grant Colleges. For three years after the close of the war there was a great increase in the number of students enrolled in the colleges due to the return of students whose courses had been interrupted by the war, the rehabilitation work, and general prosperity of the farmers.

The economic depression of agriculture, which began late in 1920, brought peculiar problems and intensified the desirability of more careful and thorough attention to the needs of college teaching of agriculture. The number of students enrolled in agriculture decreased between 1920 and 1925 because they could not see a prospect of profitable employment in agriculture. It, therefore, became necessary for the colleges to study the vocational outlets for their students and to increase their courses which
prepared them for various special pursuits in which a knowledge of agriculture was necessary or desirable. The great demand for the teaching of rural sociology, agricultural pedagogy, and extension work, necessitated the readjustment of the curriculum to include matters relating to these subjects. The Negro land-grant colleges, therefore, between 1920 and 1925 made many studies and experiments covering various phases of their curricula and teaching. Accounts of this work largely occupied the attention of the Association of Negro Land-Grant Presidents, which also made efforts to correlate the results and suggest ways for their general utilization. The Bureau of Education and the States Relations Service of the Department of Agriculture cooperated with the Negro and white land-grant colleges in studies along these lines.

A Change in the Curriculum after 1920. It began to become more and more evident between 1915 and 1930 that the land-grant colleges for Negroes must lessen their emphasis on a liberal-arts curriculum and direct their attention to resident teaching of agriculture, mechanic-arts, home economics, teacher-training, and to the general uplift of Negroes in the states. A new spirit in these institutions accepted the challenge amidst such unfavorable conditions as:

(1) The inadequacy of the sixty-four public and two hundred and sixteen private high schools for Negroes in the Southern states as late as 1915. Of the public schools only forty-five carried four-year courses, while only one hundred and six of the private secondary schools maintained four-year courses;

(2) In 1915 the secondary enrollment of Negro pupils in the Southern states was only 20,234, of whom 11,527 were in private and 2,707 were in
the public schools;

(3) In 1915 only thirty-three private and state Negro schools were teaching any subjects of college grade and only these institutions, Howard University, Fisk University, and Meharry—"had student body, teaching force, equipment, and income sufficient to warrant the characteriza-

(4) In 1915 the total enrollment in land-grant colleges for Negroes was 4,875 students, and of these 2,595 were of elementary, 2,268 secondary and only 12 of collegiate grade. These enrollment figures would seem to suggest that the land-grant colleges for Negroes were in 1915 largely land-grant high schools. The twelve students of collegiate grade were all enrolled in Florida; and the

(5) Lack of financial support was linked with the inability of the land-grant institutions to assume the wider tasks of land-grant colleges as suggested in federal appropriations which followed the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890.

The expansion of the work of land-grant colleges for Negroes has taken place in spite of handicaps. The trend toward perpetuity of Negro land-grant colleges has brought to the assistance of these institutions the support of the General Education Board, the Julius Rosenwald Fund, and other philanthropic agencies. Such assistance has made for a greater

36 Thomas J. Jones, "Negro Education", Bulletin of the Bureau of Ed-
38 T. J. Jones, op. cit., p. 20-22.
liberality within certain states and this has manifested itself in en-
larged state appropriations, notably in Texas, Virginia, Oklahoma,
Tennessee, and North Carolina. Evidence of progress and expansion of
Negro land-grant colleges may be seen from Tables XXIV and XXV on pages
165 and 170 respectively. These tables reveal the steady increase in
the student enrollment from 1920 to 1932 and the constant growth of the
physical plants of the institutions from 1917 to 1935. Subsequent tables
will indicate the expansion of the colleges along other lines.

Short Courses. The rapid development of the extension work and the
great increase of secondary schools in which agriculture was taught, brought
into prominence problems relating to the short-course work of the Negro
land-grant colleges, which had become very varied and complex. In 1924
the Committee on College Organization and Policy of the Land-Grant Colleges
Association, with the approval of its executive body, asked the committee
on instruction in agriculture, home economics, and mechanical arts, "to
study the aims, character, duration, present status, proposed development
and changes of short courses offered at all the land-grant institutions.
It was found that forty-five white and seven Negro land-grant institutions
were offering short courses in agriculture, as compared with twenty-two
white and four Negro land-grant colleges offering short courses in me-
chanical arts. These courses varied in length from one day in Negro
colleges to three years in white colleges. They covered a wide range,
including such subjects as general agriculture, farm management, agronomy,
horticulture, forestry, animal husbandry, dairying, veterinary medicine,
economic entomology; and those of median scope, such as soils, market
gardening, cotton marketing, floriculture, beef cattle, poultry, book-
keeping, farm structures, or specialities, such as grain grading, ice-
Table XXV

VALUE OF PROPERTY OF LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR YEARS INDICATED*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>1917</th>
<th>1919</th>
<th>1921</th>
<th>1923</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$182,500</td>
<td>$213,849</td>
<td>$190,800</td>
<td>$191,050</td>
<td>$485,800</td>
<td>$387,775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>141,456</td>
<td>161,350</td>
<td>203,344</td>
<td>233,344</td>
<td>156,236</td>
<td>149,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>42,150</td>
<td>73,433</td>
<td>105,224</td>
<td>101,955</td>
<td>232,701</td>
<td>189,858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>131,421</td>
<td>179,760</td>
<td>232,441</td>
<td>232,441</td>
<td>403,100</td>
<td>387,775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>68,449</td>
<td>99,836</td>
<td>403,000</td>
<td>403,000</td>
<td>403,000</td>
<td>404,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>156,700</td>
<td>378,636</td>
<td>358,619</td>
<td>321,494</td>
<td>254,902</td>
<td>369,672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>95,250</td>
<td>884,639</td>
<td>924,500</td>
<td>956,400</td>
<td>921,500</td>
<td>886,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>258,500</td>
<td>626,575</td>
<td>566,575</td>
<td>552,255</td>
<td>565,355</td>
<td>565,355</td>
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<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>226,375</td>
<td>233,000</td>
<td>231,100</td>
<td>355,247</td>
<td>317,800</td>
<td>325,100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>153,827</td>
<td>201,124</td>
<td>271,138</td>
<td>319,766</td>
<td>860,691</td>
<td>868,224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>297,300</td>
<td>824,471</td>
<td>717,253</td>
<td>825,519</td>
<td>494,784</td>
<td>304,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>193,915</td>
<td>253,917</td>
<td>438,927</td>
<td>457,028</td>
<td>671,042</td>
<td>808,588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>235,200</td>
<td>604,320</td>
<td>564,769</td>
<td>573,793</td>
<td>879,513</td>
<td>879,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>233,900</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>669,245</td>
<td>777,010</td>
<td>879,513</td>
<td>879,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>216,449</td>
<td>237,224</td>
<td>320,031</td>
<td>280,010</td>
<td>347,487</td>
<td>320,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$2,678,342</td>
<td>$5,580,825</td>
<td>$6,305,391</td>
<td>$6,713,872</td>
<td>$8,022,548</td>
<td>$7,531,830</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Compiled from statements found in the annual catalogues of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges for the years indicated.

(continued on next page)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1933</th>
<th>1935</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$480,000</td>
<td>$375,175</td>
<td>$393,000</td>
<td>$424,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>172,400</td>
<td>181,000</td>
<td>203,400</td>
<td>536,146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>149,214</td>
<td>154,927</td>
<td>149,307</td>
<td>436,257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>297,964</td>
<td>478,610</td>
<td>973,340</td>
<td>929,490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
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cream making, elevator management, and land classification and appraisals. There were also courses for canners, herdsmen, gardeners, nurserymen, editors, and teachers. A considerable amount of the short-course work listed under mechanical arts was in the field of agricultural engineering and the special units, such as tractor repair and operation, gas engines, blacksmithing, etc.

In general the short courses in agriculture aimed (1) to prepare persons not in school to engage in agricultural pursuits; (2) to increase the knowledge and improve the practices of persons engaged in agriculture; and (3) to acquaint the students with the personnel, equipment, and other facilities of the college for aiding them in their vocations after they are returned to their homes. Special directors of short courses were employed at a number of Negro land-grant institutions.

Since 1915 the work of the land-grant colleges for Negroes has been greatly broadened and strengthened. The organization of these institutions has also been more sharply defined so as to make the major lines of work distinct as (1) resident undergraduate teaching and (2) extension work. In both lines the work has gone beyond that which relates to agricultural production and now includes a considerable range of subjects in rural economics and sociology.

The general character of these institutions as public agencies for the promotion of agriculture and country life has also undergone considerable modification. This is shown not only by recent Federal and state legislation affecting them financially or otherwise, but also by the closer and wider relations which they have with the Federal Govern-
ment, state organizations, local communities, and great numbers of individuals in all parts of the several states.

The assumption of the duty of training teachers for secondary schools has affected the Negro land-grant colleges favorably in several ways. It has greatly broadened the interest of the college authorities and teachers in the problems of agricultural education and the application of pedagogical principles to the teaching of agriculture. It has opened a new vocational outlet for a considerable number of graduates from the agricultural departments of these colleges. It has given these colleges more prominence in the thought of the pupils in many high schools and brought considerable number of them to colleges for long or short courses. It has fundamentally affected the relation of these colleges to the public-school system of the several states and made them more fully an essential part of this system. Since the United States has only begun to develop a comprehensive system of vocational education, it may be expected that with the accelerated progress which such education will make, the colleges standing at the head of the agricultural division of this system will have an increasingly important part to play in its development and maintenance.

Resident teaching in the land-grant colleges for Negroes has been greatly strengthened and diversified in recent years. About ten million dollars are now annually spent for agricultural instruction in all land-grant colleges, of which a fairly large but not equitable sum is spent by Negro land-grant colleges. The courses in various branches of agriculture have, in general, become more highly specialized and technical. Strong emphasis is now being placed on courses in rural engineering, rural economics, and sociology. Special attention is being paid to better or-
ganization of the curriculum, the adoption of a group system of electives, provisions to meet the needs of individual students according to their interest and capabilities, promotion of better teaching, the recognition of the importance of expert supervision of the educational work as a whole by the appointment of directors of resident teaching or similar officers.

A considerable number of graduates of the Negro land-grant colleges engage in general farming. Scattered throughout the states, such men are often leaders of agricultural progress in their several communities. Others pursue agricultural specialities, such as breeding of improved seeds or types of livestock, orcharding, forestry, greenhouse culture and vegetables, flowers, etc. Many become administrative officers or teachers in the colleges and public schools of the various states. There are now many lines of business in which such graduates are often employed. Social workers and even missionaries are being trained in our land-grant colleges for Negroes. More than a hundred general occupations are open to graduates of these colleges.

The Negro land-grant colleges through their limited research, teaching, and extension work, have attained a broad leadership in agricultural progress, and their influence is increasingly felt in all parts of the United States. They have, in large measures, made successful farming an occupation requiring not only skill, thrift, and good business ability, but also a knowledge of scientific principles and their direct and proved application to farm operations. The value of such knowledge has been more broadly demonstrated than ever before during the recent economic depression of agriculture, due to world-wide causes over which individuals had no control. In this difficult situation there have been many farm-
ers, whose knowledge of improved practices gained directly or indirectly from our land-grant colleges, has enabled them to weather the storm and keep their business going with a measure of success unattainable by their more ignorant neighbors. This is why the farming people have held onto the extension services of the land-grant colleges and have led the legislatures in many states to increase the personnel and equipment of these institutions for resident teaching and experimental work. Particularly have the Negro farmers asked the colleges to strengthen their teaching and research on subjects within the field of rural economics. Appreciating the great benefits that have come to agriculture from the work of these institutions relating to agricultural production, the farming people, especially Negroes, are hopeful that when these institutions are strongly engaged in economic work, they will be able to do much toward giving agriculture a sounder or more economic basis than it now has in this country.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE ORGANIZATION, PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT FOR TEACHING AGRICULTURE, COLLEGE FARMS, TEACHING METHODS, AND COLLEGE PLANTS SINCE 1915

College Organization. The data found under this caption apply generally to both Negro and white land-grant colleges. Yet, in almost every case, the changes which occurred in the white land-grant colleges preceded similar changes in Negro land-grant colleges by ten to fifteen years. For example, the changes which were made in college organization

and equipment for instruction in agriculture began to appear in white land-
grant colleges as early as 1900, to be discussed later in this chapter,
while such changes in Negro land-grant colleges did not occur until about
1915. In fact, it will become more evident in the remaining pages of
this narrative that Negro land-grant colleges have adopted the general pol-
icy of shaping their changes after those of the white land-grant colleges.
The latest example of this practice is the recent attempt of three Negro
land-grant colleges to offer graduate work. This policy of Negro land-
grant colleges following in the footsteps of white land-grant colleges is
to be expected due to the organization of Southern society, which exerts
every effort to place the status of the Negro, in all walks of life, be-
low that of the whites. Therefore, all changes for improvement would
naturally take place first in the white land-grant colleges. As the
faculties and student bodies in the various divisions of the land-grant
institutions grew, the necessity for a more complex organization became
apparent. The presidents of the colleges ceased to function as teachers
during the period which we are now considering.

The general management of Negro land-grant colleges during this period
was usually vested in the president. Under him would be a dean of the
whole college and directors or heads of the other divisions, one of whom
would have charge of the division of agriculture.

The institutions were usually divided into divisions, among which
was a division of agriculture. The special officer at the head of the
college was usually called a dean, although the title of director of in-
struction was used in a few instances. The college had a faculty in
which the workers in agriculture and the sciences directly relating there-
to were usually employed full time, but often divided their time between teaching and supervision of the college farm. The teachers of other subjects were either wholly or partly engaged in other divisions of the institution. Thus for example, general chemistry might be taught in the division of arts and sciences and agricultural chemistry in the division of agriculture. Each division was divided into a number of subject-matter units or departments. For example, under the division of arts and sciences were the units or departments of Biology, Mathematics and Physics, Chemistry, Social, Political, and Economic Science, English and the Modern and Ancient Languages. At first all of the agricultural instruction was given in one department, but gradually it was divided and subdivided into departments of Agronomy, Horticulture, Agricultural Chemistry, Animal Husbandry (poultry, dairying) and Agricultural Economics. Under the director of agriculture there would usually be two assistants, one for the teaching of agricultural subjects and one for the operation of the college farm. Each of these assistants was to have administrative control of his work. Where the work and staffs of the departments overlapped or cooperative action was desirable, the assistants would constitute a general administrative committee under the chairmanship of the agricultural director. The director was to arrange for the division of the individual worker's time and his assignment to duties within the respective departments.

The general program for the work of the Negro land-grant college was made up by the faculty, consisting of: (1) the dean of entire college; (2) directors of the various divisions of the college and their assistants who had charge of the departmental work within the several divisions; and (3) other instructors whose rank entitled them to faculty membership under
the general policy of the institution. This program was to include con-
ferences of the workers in each department under the chairmanship of the
head of the department. This method is found in the majority of the col-
leges today.

**Growth of Physical Equipment for the Teaching of Agriculture.** One
of the important factors in strengthening the agricultural work in the
Negro land-grant colleges during the decade beginning about 1915 was the
erction at many institutions of distinctive and substantial buildings for
use in that work. These were either large buildings to house most of
the agricultural work in progress when they were erected or smaller build-
ings for different branches of the work, such as horticulture or dairying.
To the students, and in a considerable measure to the general public, such
buildings on the college campus typified the dignity and importance of the
agricultural work of the institutions. As the work in agronomy, horti-
culture, plant physiology, and pathology grew, glasshouses
increased in variety and extent. Sometimes laboratories and workshops
were connected with these houses, and some of them were so arranged that
classes of students could work in them. Pot experiments were also carri-
ed on in such houses, often with special arrangements for transferring the
pots into the open air without disturbing them.

In connection with the work in animal husbandry barns of different
kinds were erected. Sometimes these were large and expensive structures.
In other cases they were built to serve as examples of barns such as pros-
perous farmers might have. With the specialization of the work, separate
barns for different kinds of animals were built. There was a special de-

*Sources of this material are found in the *Proceedings of the Annual
Conference of the Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges* for the years,
1921 to 1939, by the Association of Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges.*
velopment of dairy barns in the effort to make them sanitary and to pro-
vide good ventilation and convenient feeding arrangements.

During this period there was a great development of the use of ensilage,
and various kinds of silos, as regards to form, size, material and con-
struction, etc., were built at the land-grant colleges. Where large num-
bers of animals were fed, and the climatic conditions permitted, more or
less elaborate feeding sheds and lots were used. Piggeries of various
kinds were constructed as well as poultry houses. The latter were often
equipped with trap nests and contained special room for work with incuba-
tors. The great interest in stock-judging developed during this period
led to the first of special rooms for this work and then to the erection
of separate stock-judging pavilions. Grain-judging also became an im-
portant factor in agronomy courses and special arrangements for this were
made in the college buildings.

In both agriculture and the related sciences the equipment of the ag-
ricultural division of Negro land-grant colleges varied as the number of
students and the funds for their instruction increased. In the natural
sciences, the laboratory method of instruction had become universal in
the American colleges by 1915, and many of the Negro land-grant colleges,
having some equipment for work in these sciences, followed this method
of instruction.

For the study of soils there was the use of much special apparatus.
For example, the equipment for soil study of Hampton Institute and the
Florids Agricultural and Mechanical College in 1920, included apparatus
for studying the specific gravity of soils, volume weight of soils,
power of loose and of compact soil to retain moisture, rate of flow of
air through soils, effect of mulches on evaporation of water from soils, and the effect of cultivation on evaporation of water from soils. Mechanical analyses were also made of typical soils. A glasshouse with its equipment of pots afforded opportunity for the student to test the adaptability of crops to various soils and the fertilizer requirements of soils, and to experiment on various other problems of crop growth. At the same time in the agricultural building of the Prairie View College there were separate laboratories for work in soil fertility, soil physics, and soil bacteriology.

For the study of farm crops the Agricultural and Technical College at Greensboro, North Carolina, had a seed-breeding laboratory, which furnished facilities for special instruction in field needs and in laboratory work in plant breeding. The college possessed a stereopticon with several hundred lantern slides, including illustrations of crops, implements, machinery, processes of drainage, etc.; imported models of wheat and of clover flowers, and seed; many charts of root system and illustrations of floral organs which had been drawn at this institution; also maps and designs of farm plans, both for laying out new farms and for reorganizing old ones. There were also in a number of land-grant colleges collections of many kinds of grasses, cereals and other crops, and of seeds of useful and noxious plants, as well as a variety of farm implements and machinery.

Domestic animals of different kinds were increasingly kept by the college for instructional purposes and the students also had many opportunities for observing breeding and feeding experiments, and participating in the judging, care and management of such animals. With dairy cattle different kinds of stalls and fixtures were often used. In the latter part of the
period milking machines were installed. For the handling of milk many of the colleges had begun to have equipment which compared favorably with that in commercial establishments.

Literature relating to the agricultural and home-economic divisions of Negro land-grant colleges increased greatly during the period from 1915-30. Not only were there large collections of publications of the United States Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Education, and other Government establishments, the experiment stations, the State Departments of Agriculture and Education, and reports of similar institutions in foreign countries, but also numerous scientific and agricultural books and journals published in this and in other countries. More attention was paid to the arrangement and cataloguing of these collections and the facilities and personal service which would make them readily available to teacher and students. Much was done during this period in the preparation and publication of text books and manuals on agriculture and related sciences throughout the country.

College Farms. As the agricultural work of the land-grant college became more extensive and diversified, the amount of land used in connection with instruction increased. Part of this land was used for the growing of crops with which to feed the college livestock, and in some cases, the students. Fields were also set aside for the growing of crops that were being tested with reference to their adaptability to the region, or for the demonstration of different methods of planting, fertilizing, cultivating, draining, irrigating, and harvesting. Orchards of different kinds and varieties of fruits, vegetables, and flowers occupied considerable space. At some institutions there were botanic gardens in which
were grown many native and foreign plants, particularly those of some economic importance.

Appropriate Methods of Teaching Have Been Developed as the Negro Land-Grant College Courses Have Been Evolved. It is obvious that the development of unusual types of courses in the Negro land-grant group of collegiate organizations might quite naturally have required the modification of existing methods of instruction and administration. A study of the situation reveals that certain fundamentally different methods have been developed at these institutions. These new methods have had certain marked effects upon the whole concept of education, for they have been factors in the shaping of the general philosophy which has come to characterize the Negro land-grant colleges. Along with the different methods which are enumerated below, of course, has been found plentiful exercise of practically all of the standard methods of traditional college or university teaching, such as the lecture, laboratory, quiz, recitation, discussion, and examination. It is not the contention that the Negro land-grant colleges have specifically tried to develop new methods for the sake of having different methods or techniques. In the earliest classes started under the Morrill Act of 1862, it is evident that there was no departure whatever from the accustomed methods of established collegiate organizations. It is the contention, however, that with the development, certain different methods came into the general use as supplementary to those which were and are traditionally regarded as standardized and useful.

The only program, which indicated the general nature of the education

* See reference to the annual bulletins of the Association of Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges.
which was to be built up and offered within these colleges and universities of which we are writing, was laid down by the enactment of the Morrill Act of 1862. This group of state supported Negro colleges was to erect curricula for the training of young Negroes in agriculture and mechanic arts. They were challenged to shape these courses, which they were to offer, for the definite purpose of preparing those young people for agricultural and industrial occupations and for rural life, living and finding human happiness and contentment in the country districts of America. The law bade the states to provide colleges which would teach the students how to do the work which would provide for their livelihoods efficiently and economically. Such a challenge, from the Morrill Act itself, was bound to result in the setting up of courses which might demand some departure from traditional methods, since traditional college and university courses for both the Negro and white had, generally speaking, not theretofore included such objectives.

After a comprehensive survey of the methods which have been and still are in use at Negro land-grant institutions it is found that the distinctive methods are:

A. The fundamental concept, from the very beginning of this movement, has definitely appeared to be "to learn by doing." The addresses of Negro land-grant college presidents in their annual assemblies year after year ring with one or another version of that fundamental phrase. It has been considered that the only way to teach young men and women the practices of the farm and home was to make possible for them to actually participate in those practices under guidance and direction. The manner in which this concept has been worked out within the various curricula might be elaborated and made to fill many pages of report, but that is
deemed unnecessary in this thesis. The general idea is all that is needed here.

Negro agricultural-college students, in addition to obtaining the principles involved, in the scientific or economic backgrounds, and other phases of the respective subjects through usual methods of collegiate instruction, have been required to learn practices by actually doing them. For example, not only have Negro agricultural students learned the principles of pruning fruit trees through lectures and reading and by writing demonstrations, but they have also learned how to prune fruit trees by going into the college orchards and there actually pruning the trees. Students in the Kentucky State Industrial College and the Tennessee Agricultural, and State Teachers College, for another example, have learned not only of the great sheep industry of their respective states in the classroom but they also have learned how to shear the wool from the sheep by actually shearing sheep in the college barns. That is the general idea, and it is to be found worked out in the curricular requirements of every Negro land-grant institution in the country today. The above illustration serves as a typical example of similar teaching methods employed by other divisions of the colleges.

B. The above concept has made it necessary, therefore, for the agricultural divisions of Negro land-grant colleges to develop and to maintain farms and shops in which such facilities might be available for the students. The making of fields, herds, barns, and shops, a major essential to the college plant, has been a concomitant of the new methods. It has been a case of re-interpretation of the meaning of laboratory. It has been a broadening of the idea as to what constituted a laboratory, a place
in which to experiment and try out methods and practices mentioned in the lectures or books. It has been a natural sort of development for, after all, the field, the barn or the shop is but the laboratory in which it is convenient to do the sort of work which is the logical accompaniment of a vocational, agricultural, or industrial course of instruction or training.

C. Early in the shaping of the courses formulated at the Negro land-grant colleges, it has been apparently found that the individual students had their own specific interests, dependent largely upon type of agriculture or industry characteristic of the section of the state from which they come. For one reason or another it was found that the most satisfactory training for students entering those agricultural colleges was that which tended to be individually arranged, that is, shaped separately for each student according to his needs and desires. The "project method" has been a conspicuously appropriate method of the Negro land-grant college. The idea has been an experiment in attempting to find just what each individual needed most and wanted most and then formulating a practical outline of method and practices for him to follow along such line. Suffice here to indicate that this tendency to consider each student individually has been characteristic of the great majority of Negro land-grant college administrations. That the several institutions have succeeded in varying degrees in carrying out this fundamental concept is rather to be expected, but there is evidence that the project-method has been a favored method from the earliest years.

The various agricultural courses offered in the Negro land-grant colleges have made use of research projects within the requirements of such
courses. Students have been encouraged and even required to complete some original research as a supplement to their other college work. The writer has used this method and affirms its value in the training of agriculturists. One illustration might suffice to indicate the methods. In the senior year curriculum in Poultry Science at Virginia State College for Negroes in 1939 the men were each required to select some phase of poultry science in which they were interested and for which there were opportunities present for pursuit. They had to thoroughly exhaust the libraries in their assembling of the bibliography on the subject. They had to pursue the problem throughout the senior year, under guidance of a general nature, of course. They were required to assemble the data, analyze them, interpret them, and prepare a final report on them. In this way, it has been found, do such students gain a lasting appreciation of the spirit of research.

D. In the evolution of such courses as are here being portrayed, it is natural that a certain social phase should have been emphasized. The farmer and the industrialist soon came to realize that their very existence is inextricably interwoven with that of others. Since the days of the inception of Negro land-grant colleges in the middle of the last century, the era in which either farming or industry could continue to be made up of self-sufficing units, as in the colonial and earliest pioneer days, has been rapidly disappearing. Today the whole American system of agriculture and industry has become so complex and inter-dependent that the students of either must, first of all, perhaps, gain a social point of view. The very apparent trend of development in all the courses outlined in the publication of the various Negro land-grant colleges is to-
ward a definite effort to place each subject within the field in relation to the other fields in such a way as to furnish a means of making the necessary and unavoidable associations or interrelationships, and to correlate and co-ordinate the various phases of agriculture or industry with other life activities and interests.

While for many years the trend of agricultural-college courses in Negro land-grant colleges leaned heavily toward vocational training at the expense of cultural and background training, it appears to be true that in the last twenty-five or thirty years the greater bulk of the courses offered at the Negro land-grant colleges has definitely attempted to change that trend. The effort has been, not so much to lessen the stress laid upon agricultural or industrial subjects as to place added emphasis upon sound cultural training. The realization that the ruralists and industrial workers must gain happiness and economic stability, must be active as citizens and neighbors in a great society, and must be capable of enjoying and taking part in arts, literature, and similar cultural things as well as gaining their livelihoods from the soil or shop, has developed. The leading Negro and white agricultural institutions have seen this newer light, and it is reflected in the placing in their required curricula subjects, which dropped out of sight in the intense enthusiasm for vocational training, which characterized the earlier days of these colleges. And present day administrators and educators of Negro land-grant colleges find plenty of background for their newer attitude in the very wording of the original Morrill Act itself, as a re-reading of that law given in the earlier pages of this thesis will prove.

It is probable that the above are but a part of the methods which might be traced to the development of the land-grant colleges for Negroes.
It is suggested that these, at least, are amongst the major new methods thus introduced. Usually these methods have not been original with the Negro land-grant colleges, but it is apparent that the wide use of them in these particular institutions has helped to give new status to such methods and to establish them as operating methods and practices in American collegiate education.

**Appropriate Plants have been Developed at which and in which Collegiate Instruction is Conducted.** The student of the land-grant college for Negroes, as an institution within the large group of American colleges and universities, immediately becomes impressed with the different type of college plant which has been built up in the effort to efficiently accomplish the objectives of the colleges. The usual or traditional college plant has consisted primarily of (1) library; (2) lecture halls and recitation rooms; (3) study rooms; (4) laboratories; and (5) dormitories. That the separate institutions have developed their own ideas as to these fundamental plant requirements is to be expected, and does not affect our point of view here.

What are found to be important features of the plants of these Negro land-grant colleges and universities?

A. The Agricultural laboratory has been widely expanded to include fields, green houses, barns and practical shops. The place where the plants are grown, where animals are raised and cared for, and where the actual operations of the business of agriculture or industry are conducted, have become the major parts of the college plant.

*See reference to the annual bulletins of the Association of Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges.*
B. The college plants have been made to breathe an air of service to the industries of the commonwealths which erected them in conjunction with the Federal Government. Facilities have been added to the plants beyond the needs of the resident college students.

In bringing the very brief discussion of the influences which the Negro land-grant colleges have exerted upon methods and practices of Negro education at the higher levels to a close, it is, perhaps, helpful to summarize by outlining them as follows:

(1) The chief effects or influences have been the widening or broadening of the scope of courses to be offered by college or university faculties to student bodies. This has meant the recognition of new subject matters in the collegiate curricula. It has meant the elevation of certain branches of knowledge to consideration at the highest levels of educational effort. The official character of these land-grant institutions has lent some strength to this general trend. The new courses have been put up there in the lofty pinnacle of university study and have been held there. In most instances the courses have held their own places on their own merit.

(2) The program of the Negro land-grant colleges has forced a liberalization of methods of instruction.

(3) The close affiliation between the Negro and white land-grant institutions, the interaction of their staffs, and the identities of one with the other oftentimes, and the mandatory attention prescribed for research by the Hatch Act in the white land-grant colleges, have had the double effects of (a) developing a spirit of inquisitiveness or research amongst both Negro teachers and students, and (b) greatly increasing the
facilities and equipment for proper teaching of required subject matter. In the last quarter century or more, the majority of Negro land-grant institution authorities have themselves been the products of earlier land-grant organizations. They have been schooled throughout their careers in the spirit of these institutions. The effect of this situation is having a marked effect upon the standing of these institutions of higher learning in America.

(4) The collegiate or university plants which have grown up to take the land-grant activities are unique in many ways when compared with the traditional Negro college or university plants.

(5) Neither the courses, methods, staffs, nor plants of these institutions have been set up as antagonistic to other types of Negro colleges or universities. The purpose has been to supplement other efforts, and to provide collegiate training for a group of people who, it was felt, were not being specifically or sufficiently served by the traditional types of college or university.

(6) The service nature of the Negro land-grant institutions toward agriculture and industry has been obvious in their extensive service programs, both in the offering of non-degree courses of varied sorts, and in their participation in Smith-Lever and Smith-Hughes activities. The old claim that publicly supported educational and vocational facilities of these colleges were being given to only one class of the Negro citizenry without equal opportunity being extended to others is thus refuted.

One by one have been considered some of the major social, racial, and economic forces that have conditioned the development of Negro land-grant colleges since the turn of the present century. We are now ready
to analyze the growth of these institutions over a period of thirty-nine years, extending from 1900 up to 1939. The growth of the colleges is revealed by showing their general status before and after the effects of the economic depression of 1929 had become pronounced.

GENERAL STATUS OF NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES BEFORE THE ECONOMIC DEPRESSION OF 1929 HAD BECOME PRONOUNCED

The Staff. For the fiscal year 1928-29 the seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes employed 1,483 men and women as detailed in Table XXVI on the next page. The number of general administrators numbered 101 men and 66 women, or a total of 167. Full-time college teachers numbered 147 men and 64 women or a total of 211.

The Students. During the school year of 1928-29 there were 1,740 men and, 2,478 women enrolled in college classes, 3,382 men and women enrolled in high school classes, and 1,845 students enrolled in elementary classes. The 1928 summer session enrolled 1,032 men and 6,134 women.

Altogether there were 5,494 men and 11,657 women who were resident students in Negro land-grant colleges for the school year of 1928-29. These figures are shown in Table XXVII on page 195.

The enrollment of students in Negro land-grant colleges has shown great progress. In 1916 only 12 students of college grade were enrolled in the seventeen colleges. The progress in collegiate enrollment in these institutions can be appreciated more if some thought is given to the findings and conclusions of the National Survey of Secondary Edu-

41 Thomas J. Jones, op. cit., p. 36.
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
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<td>11 5</td>
<td>3 3</td>
<td>17 9</td>
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<td>2 2</td>
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</tr>
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<td>3 0</td>
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<td>6 8</td>
<td>2 1</td>
<td>9 0</td>
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<td>8 9</td>
<td>13 8</td>
<td>5 3</td>
<td>4 0</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>11 3</td>
<td>23 11</td>
<td>20 20</td>
<td>0 4</td>
<td>4 5</td>
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<td>8 7</td>
<td>15 16</td>
<td>1 2</td>
<td>9 17</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>10 4</td>
<td>21 9</td>
<td>1 2</td>
<td>10 6</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>101</strong> <strong>66</strong></td>
<td><strong>147</strong> <strong>64</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong> <strong>59</strong></td>
<td><strong>98</strong> <strong>85</strong></td>
<td><strong>46</strong> <strong>30</strong></td>
<td><strong>373</strong> <strong>239</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excluding duplicates

** Including central staff, county, home, and club agent.

cation as authorized by the Congress of the United States in February, 1929. Observations on secondary education for Negroes as late as 1932 are:

(1) There were 211 Negro high school educables per teacher; for whites, 60. To make the teacher-educable ratio equal for Negro and whites would require 17,798 Negro teachers, or 12,758 more than were then available.

(2) There were 11 Negro public high-school pupils for 1,000 Negro population corresponding to 34 white public high-school pupils per 1,000 white population. Thus the percentage of white pupils enrolled in high school was more than three times as large as the corresponding percentage of Negro pupils.

(3) The cost per pupil for white and Negro high-school teachers' salaries was respectively $34.18 and $22.65. To bring the cost per Negro pupil up to the cost per white pupil would require an additional expenditure of $1,175,182.00 or 51% more than was then being spent.

(4) Of the 1140 high schools for Negroes reported by fifteen Southern states, only 506 offered four years of work.

(5) Of the 1413 counties in the fifteen Southern states, 230 (having a Negro population constituting 12.5% or more of the total population) had no high school facilities at all for Negroes. There was a Negro population of 1,397,304 in these counties, 158,939 of whom were high school age.

(6) Of the remaining, 195 (in which Negroes constitute 12.5% or more of the population) had no four-year high schools for Negro children. There was a Negro population of 1,571,501 in these counties, 197,242 of whom were of high school age.
This statement of findings with respect to high schools for Negroes becomes all the more important to our discussion when it is remembered that Negro land-grant colleges are located in the area indicated as having inferior high schools for Negroes or none at all. A composite statement of student enrollment for all the Negro land-grant colleges for the year ending June 30, 1929 is presented in Table XXVII on the next page and for the years 1921 through 1929-30 in Table XXIV on page 165.

From the data in Table XXIV, and in connection with them, the following observations are made:

(1) In the absence of sufficient number of high schools for Negroes up to 1930 the land-grant college for Negroes had to assume responsibility in this field and besides had to train its own prospective college students.

(2) The high school enrollment in land-grant colleges for Negroes became less than the collegiate enrollment in 1929-1930, and has decreased yearly since 1923-1924. Today the high school departments, as well as the elementary departments, in most of the Negro land-grant colleges are maintained only as a means of providing adequate practice and observation facilities for the student teachers.

(3) The collegiate enrollment in 1929-1930 in land-grant colleges for Negroes was more than one-fourth of the total collegiate enrollment of Negroes in all colleges.

(4) The summer school enrollment in land-grant colleges for Negroes is composed of persons generally above high school classification and work done in the summer sessions is educational and teacher training in type. The growth of enrollment in the summer sessions has offered the land-grant colleges for Negroes their largest opportunity to set forth the program
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negro land-grant institutions located in</th>
<th>First Year</th>
<th>College</th>
<th>Third Year</th>
<th>Fourth Year</th>
<th>Students Total including special students</th>
<th>Secondary Grades IX-XII</th>
<th>Elementary Grades I-VIII</th>
<th>Summer Session 1928 (See Table XXIV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M  W</td>
<td>M  W</td>
<td>M  W</td>
<td>M  W</td>
<td></td>
<td>M  W</td>
<td>B  G</td>
<td>B  G</td>
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<td>7 7</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16 11</td>
<td>49 62</td>
<td>98 139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>15 19</td>
<td>10 10</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>29 45</td>
<td>147 161</td>
<td>60 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>8 20</td>
<td>5 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13 25</td>
<td>49 98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Florida</td>
<td>30 54</td>
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<td>3 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>56 81</td>
<td>109 119</td>
<td>84 114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>20 29</td>
<td>19 11</td>
<td>6 1</td>
<td>3 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>48 43</td>
<td>137 130</td>
<td>84 66</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>21 33</td>
<td>17 30</td>
<td>4 1</td>
<td>4 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>46 65</td>
<td>42 50</td>
<td>26 23</td>
</tr>
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<td>9 13</td>
<td>3 11</td>
<td></td>
<td>56 137</td>
<td>81 122</td>
<td>43 91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>8 0</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20 7</td>
<td>67 69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>71 28</td>
<td>13 16</td>
<td>8 3</td>
<td>17 8</td>
<td></td>
<td>109 55</td>
<td>257 195</td>
<td>91 56</td>
</tr>
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<td>25 39</td>
<td>12 15</td>
<td>10 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>87 105</td>
<td>74 87</td>
<td>40 102</td>
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<td>37 9</td>
<td>29 2</td>
<td>25 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>207 42</td>
<td>161 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>41 95</td>
<td>16 62</td>
<td>14 18</td>
<td>11 10</td>
<td></td>
<td>82 185</td>
<td>56 92</td>
<td>13 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>64 65</td>
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<td>22 7</td>
<td>26 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>143 122</td>
<td>186 219</td>
<td>68 53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>90 199</td>
<td>47 102</td>
<td>40 53</td>
<td>26 28</td>
<td></td>
<td>214 293</td>
<td>120 163</td>
<td>18 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
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<td>62 180</td>
<td>48 64</td>
<td>41 45</td>
<td></td>
<td>261 584</td>
<td>52 144</td>
<td>261 1.028</td>
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<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>57 124</td>
<td>29 91</td>
<td>21 38</td>
<td>17 40</td>
<td></td>
<td>131 303</td>
<td>127 239</td>
<td>322 319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>72 107</td>
<td>62 76</td>
<td>43 43</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td>222 275</td>
<td>71 87</td>
<td>30 42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**............. 782 1,222 404 730 274 261 226 158 1740 2,478 1,785 2,037 937 1,008 1,032 6,134

*excluding duplicates

of education designed for land-grant institutions.

(5) The evening, adult, and extension work of land-grant colleges for Negroes offers the institutions new opportunities for service in states in which they are located.

Income and Receipts. The revenue from the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges for 1929 totaled over $4,000,000 and was derived from the following sources:

(1) Federal funds:
   (a) Land-grant and Morrill-Nelson........$279,346
   (b) Smith-Hughes.......................... 59,967

(2) State funds:
   (a) Operation and maintenance...........1,303,340
   (b) Permanent improvements..............1,073,063

(3) Private gifts
     ............................................ 313,280

(4) Institutional funds from:
   (a) Tution................................ 199,449
   (b) Boarding and lodging............... 551,447
   (c) Departmental earnings................ 98,567
   (d) Miscellaneous......................... 183,641
   (e) Other sources......................... 67,134

Physical Plants. The physical plants of land-grant colleges for Negroes have been rapidly expanding to meet their growing needs. In 1918 the total value of the properties of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges was only $7,192,698, as compared with $11,904,451 in 1928, a gain of $4,711,753 in ten years. A large proportion of the increased valuation is due to the construction of new buildings as a result of appropriations made by some of the states for this purpose. In the case of one institution, the Agricultural, Mechanical, and Normal College at Pine Bluff, Arkansas, an entire new physical plant, modern in every respect, was completed.

less than ten years ago. The amount of land and the value of the physical plants owned by the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges in 1929 are given in Table XXVIII on the next page.

**Finances.** Finances comprise a vital phase of the administration of the land-grant colleges for Negroes. Receipts of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges have shown a large augmentation from 1919 to 1929. A comparison discloses that in 1919 their total revenues for operation and maintenance amounted to $1,436,451 and in 1929 to $3,052,639. This represents an increase of $1,616,188, or 112 per cent in ten years. Revenues for capital outlays in 1919 totaled $112,134 as compared with $762,083 in 1929, an advance of $649,949. These figures indicate that these institutions have been receiving greatly increased income for physical plant extension as well as operating expenses. The gains in revenues have been due chiefly to enhanced support from the various states, the operating income of the colleges from this source being only $296,064 in 1918-19, while it was $1,379,484 in 1928-29, an increase of $1,083,420.

It should be understood, however, that the total figures showing increased revenues from 1919 to 1929 deal with land-grant colleges for Negroes as a whole. While there has been, in general, a gain in funds supplied by the states to the colleges as a group during this period, this situation does not, however, apply to each individual college. Moreover, it does not necessarily imply that the state support as compared with other sources of income was sufficient to meet the needs of the various institutions.

*Arthur J. Klein, Ibid. p. 854.*
**Arthur J. Klein, Ibid. p. 854.*
***Arthur J. Klein, Ibid. p. 855.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Acres of Campus &amp; Farms</th>
<th>Land under Cultivation</th>
<th>Apparatus, Machinery, and Furniture</th>
<th>Live-stock</th>
<th>Value of Campus &amp; Grounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>187</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td>55,000</td>
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<td>1,800</td>
<td>151,000</td>
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<td>180</td>
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<td>20,536</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
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<td>56,443</td>
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<td>10,000</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>80,000</td>
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<td>200</td>
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<td>4,500</td>
<td>9,600</td>
</tr>
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<td>85</td>
<td>169,000</td>
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<td>76,000</td>
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<td>60,000</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>101,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1,435</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>231,454</td>
<td>9,671</td>
<td>60,122</td>
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<td>297</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>139,479</td>
<td>6,362</td>
<td>109,625</td>
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<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>160,000</td>
<td>2,070</td>
<td>49,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total | 5,538 | 2,668 | $1,377,942 | $98,520 | $1,473,813 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Property Buildings, Excluding Dormitories</th>
<th>Dormitories</th>
<th>Federal Endowment</th>
<th>Other Property</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$97,500</td>
<td>$80,000</td>
<td>$70,922</td>
<td>$393,000</td>
<td>$450,707</td>
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<td>25,000</td>
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<td>202,400</td>
<td>275,922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>91,295</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>$70,922</td>
<td>149,307</td>
<td>249,602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>507,500</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>135,000</td>
<td>973,340</td>
<td>1,108,340</td>
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<td>Georgia</td>
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<td>135,900</td>
<td>135,000</td>
<td>430,700</td>
<td>565,700</td>
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<td>544,559</td>
<td>767,100</td>
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<td>100,000</td>
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<td>793,036</td>
<td>863,956</td>
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<td>122,000</td>
<td>$70,922</td>
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<td>690,480</td>
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<td>213,000</td>
<td>188,606</td>
<td>767,100</td>
<td>1,055,706</td>
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<td>13,804</td>
<td>994,862</td>
<td>1,128,666</td>
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<td>162,800</td>
<td>154,000</td>
<td>95,900</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>595,900</td>
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<td>240,000</td>
<td>95,900</td>
<td>1,138,453</td>
<td>1,139,353</td>
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<td>315,000</td>
<td>172,156</td>
<td>1131,407</td>
<td>1,303,563</td>
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<td>282,843</td>
<td>168,606</td>
<td>1,132,193</td>
<td>1,300,839</td>
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<tr>
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<td>646,187</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>37,598</td>
<td>1131,407</td>
<td>1,168,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>443,775</td>
<td>333,982</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>1022,727</td>
<td>1,355,704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$4,993,962</strong></td>
<td><strong>$2589,325</strong></td>
<td><strong>$548,949</strong></td>
<td><strong>$1,1804,441</strong></td>
<td><strong>$5,932,666</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Includes $50,000 from State funds

A compositestatement of income from all sources in the seventeen colleges for the years 1920-21 through 1929-30 is given in Table XXIX on the next page, and a recapitulation of receipts and expenditures for the year ended June 30, 1929 is given in Table XXX on page 202. A careful study of these tables will reveal the increased financial support given the colleges before the influence of the depression was greatly felt.

**Types of College Organization.** Three types of college organization were found in Negro land-grant colleges in 1928-29, the two-year junior college, the four-year senior college, and the four-year teachers college. Institutions organized as junior colleges were located in the following states: Alabama, Delaware, Maryland. Junior college programs were also offered at institutions located in Arkansas, Florida, and Kentucky. The four-year senior colleges were located in Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. Lincoln University of Missouri and Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College were primarily four-year teacher colleges. In institutions with such complex educational programs as land-grant colleges had in 1929, it is difficult, indeed, to state objectives or purposes, yet the fact that most of the land-grant colleges for Negroes were then and are now offering many diversified programs makes it essential that a clear statement should be made of objectives.

While a number of Negro land-grant colleges make a clear statement of the general purposes of their educational programs, in other cases, the aim is either expressed in vague terms or is merely implied in a historical statement.
Table XXIX

COMPOSITE STATEMENT OF INCOME FROM ALL SOURCES IN THE SEVENTEEN LAND-GRANT COLLEGES FOR NEGROES FOR YEARS INDICATED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>1920-1921</th>
<th>1921-1922</th>
<th>1922-23</th>
<th>1923-1924</th>
<th>1924-25</th>
<th>1925-26</th>
<th>1926-27</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>$836,588</td>
<td>$1,277,532</td>
<td>$1,108,397</td>
<td>$1,310,345</td>
<td>$1,358,174</td>
<td>$1,725,820</td>
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<tr>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>268,473</td>
<td>305,453</td>
<td>302,970</td>
<td>297,081</td>
<td>297,886</td>
<td>299,102</td>
<td>302,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Fee and charges</td>
<td>546,138</td>
<td>624,478</td>
<td>731,165</td>
<td>790,301</td>
<td>884,650</td>
<td>901,519</td>
<td>1,060,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales and Services</td>
<td>81,449</td>
<td>175,336</td>
<td>110,732</td>
<td>123,779</td>
<td>650,000</td>
<td>189,144</td>
<td>236,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>62,682</td>
<td>99,150</td>
<td>160,322</td>
<td>73,357</td>
<td>52,768</td>
<td>57,950</td>
<td>295,970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>1,795,330</td>
<td>2,481,949</td>
<td>2,413,586</td>
<td>2,594,863</td>
<td>3,243,480</td>
<td>3,173,535</td>
<td>3,791,328</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1927-1928</th>
<th>1928-1929</th>
<th>1929-1930</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$1,894,468</td>
<td>$2,071,599</td>
<td>$2,118,028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>304,290</td>
<td>302,140</td>
<td>393,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,132,330</td>
<td>1,088,143</td>
<td>1,082,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>234,625</td>
<td>253,750</td>
<td>253,750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>186,999</td>
<td>259,221</td>
<td>259,221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>$3,752,712</strong></td>
<td><strong>$3,974,853</strong></td>
<td><strong>$4,106,282</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table XXX
RECAPITULATION OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES—YEAR ENDED JUNE 31, 1929

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total Receipts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negro land-grant institution located in—</td>
<td>Federal funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$21,660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>$14,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>10,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>26,822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>16,667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>7,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>22,264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>41,392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>4,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>18,835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>6,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>63,254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>20,167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>32,682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>11,354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$339,312</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percent | 8.2 | 57.6 | 7.5 | 9.0 | 15.9 | 1.7 | 100

Compiled from data found in the annual college catalogues of the institutions.
GROWTH OF THE COLLEGES SINCE 1929 AS REVEALED FROM THEIR STATUS AND CURRENT PRACTICES IN 1939

The Negro land-grant colleges constitute one of the most important groups of colleges among the one hundred or more degree-granting institutions for Negroes in the United States. Seventeen in number, they are near the principal centers of Negro population of the states where there are separate schools for the two races. Their basic educational objectives are the same as the white land-grant colleges, that is, to furnish theoretical and practical higher education, including agriculture, mechanic arts, home economics, English, education, mathematics, physical, social, natural, and economic sciences. While controlled and operated by their respective states, with the major share of their support derived from state sources, the land-grant colleges for Negroes do not receive their proportionate share of either state funds or Federal funds which are contributed by the National Government for the maintenance of land-grant colleges in the various states.

Governing Boards. The government of the Negro land-grant colleges constitutes an important factor in their progress and advancement. The success of these institutions is dependent in a large measure upon the maintenance of the highest efficiency in governmental administration and control. In the group of seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes four different types of government are found.
They may be classified as follows:

Plan I "State Boards of Control Type" dealing with all public higher education in their states... The colleges that operate under this type of control are the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College and the West Virginia State College. In the latter case, the State Board of Control has supervision only over the financial and administrative affairs of the institutions while the State Board of Education has complete authority over its academic and educational functions.

Plan II "State Boards of Education Type" dealing with all public education in their states... The four institutions that operate under this type of control are the State Agricultural and Mechanical College at Baton Rouge, The Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College, Virginia State College for Negroes, and the Kentucky State Industrial College.

Plan III "Joint Boards of Trustees Type" controlling other publicly supported institutions in their states... The institutions that operate under this type of control are the Princess Anne College in Maryland and the Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College in Texas. This type of control, as represented in Plan III, emerges from the efforts of the States of Maryland and Texas to comply with the terms of the Morrill Acts extending Agricultural and Mechanical training to the Negro youth in their respective states.

Plan IV "Separate Institutional Boards Type"... The institutions that operate under this type of control are the State Agricultural and Mechanical College of Alabama, Agricultural, Mechanical, and Normal College of Arkansas, State College for Colored Students of Delaware, Georgia State Industrial College, Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College of Mississippi, Lincoln University of Missouri, Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, Colored Agricultural and Normal University of Oklahoma, and the State Agricultural, Mechanical, and Normal College of South Carolina.

With few exceptions the governing bodies of land-grant colleges for Negroes are small in size and hence in Table XXXI on the next page are given the number of members, methods of selection, length of terms, number of ex-officio members and agency of control of governing bodies of

45

Table XXXI

Number of Members Methods of Selection, Length of Terms, Number of Ex-Officio Members, and Agency of Control of Governing Bodies of Negro Land-Grant Colleges in 1939

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Located in—</th>
<th>Total No. on Board</th>
<th>No. of Regular Members on Board</th>
<th>Methods of Selection</th>
<th>Terms' Length in Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Governor only</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Governor only</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Governor only</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Popular election</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Governor only</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Popular election</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>General Assembly</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>2-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>General Assembly</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Governor only</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gov. With Senate</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>148</strong></td>
<td><strong>137</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compiled from the data in the 1938-39 official catalogues of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution Located in</th>
<th>No. of Ex. off. Members</th>
<th>Agency of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>State Board of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Board of Trustees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Board of Trustees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>State Board of Control &amp; State Board of Ed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Board of Regents of U. System of Georgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Board of Trustees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>State Board of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Board of Regents of the University of Md.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Board of Curators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Board of Trustees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Board of Regents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Board of Trustees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>State Board of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Board of Directors of A. &amp; M. College (White)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>State Board of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>State Board of Control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Totals...... 12
each Negro land-grant college for the academic year 1938-39. As indicated in Table XXXI, the total number of members of the governing bodies of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges in 1939 amounted to 148. Size of these agencies of control ranged from three at West Virginia State College to fifteen at the Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Appointment of members of the governing boards is vested in most cases in the Governor of the state. On the basis of data presented in Table XXXI, the Governor appoints the entire membership of the board in thirteen institutions, subject to the approval of the Senate in eight states.

Considering the large number of women students enrolled in these institutions in 1939, which in some cases exceeded the men students, and considering also that the educational programs of most Negro land-grant colleges today place special emphasis on teacher-training, and home economics, it would seem that a larger number of women members would be found in the governing bodies. In 1939 there were only eight institutions with women members on their boards, one having three, one having two, and six having one each.

In conduct of the affairs of the institutions, the boards of the Negro land-grant colleges do not confine themselves entirely to legislative matters. Reports received in the National survey of all land-grant colleges in 1930, and questionnaires received from the majority of the deans of Negro land-grant colleges in 1939 revealed that at seven colleges the governing bodies exercised administrative functions. The board, in one instance, was found exercising the function of issuing all
checks and vouchers. The boards, however, have now adopted the practice of electing officials and members of the teaching staff only upon the recommendations of the president.

As already indicated, the boards of Negro land-grant colleges are generally small and well organized for the conduct of the affairs of the institution. The absence of any former students, however, and of any representation of the Negro race, except at two institutions, as late as 1939 would seem to indicate a tendency to exclude Negroes from participation in the government of the colleges which are conducted for their benefit. Even today, only three of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges have colored members with voting power on their governing boards. These three institutions are located in Delaware, Missouri, and West Virginia.

Chief Executive Officer. Administration of the internal affairs of land-grant colleges for Negroes is generally vested in the president as chief executive. In two institutions the title of the chief executive officer is "principal." The two institutions which designate their chief executive officer as "principal" are the Prairie View State Normal and Industrial College at Prairie View, Texas and the Princess Anne College at Princess Anne, Maryland. The length of the president's term of office varies in the different colleges. In ten institutions it is one year in length, in one, two years, in one four years, and in five the term is indefinite. In general the governing boards make it a practice to re-elect the presidents automatically at the expiration of their terms unless a complete change in administrative policies is planned.

Of more importance than the length of term is the actual tenure of the
office of the president. Frequent changes in the chief executive officer lead to a lack of continuity in the management of the institutions and a consequent retardation in their development. The reports received from sixteen of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges in 1939 revealed that a total of eighty-four presidents have served since the Negro land-grant colleges were established in 1862 and 1890.

Five of the colleges have made a change in their presidents since 1930. A change in presidents on account of death occurred in only one of these five colleges.

Management of Business. Business and financial management are not under the direct jurisdiction of the president in all Negro land-grant colleges. A considerable variation of practice exists. In some institutions there are central business offices in charge of a treasurer or a chief business officer. This officer is appointed outright by the governing board in some cases and upon the president's recommendation in others. However, he is not responsible to the president except in six colleges, located in Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, West Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina. In the remaining institutions he reports directly to the board or a committee of the board. As late as 1937 the chairman of the board of trustees of one college had complete charge of business and financial matters, and in another the principal, as chief executive, had no control over its business affairs, which were handled through the business office of the State university in that state. In some colleges the president acts as the business officer, being assisted by an accountant or clerk.

This is the case of the two colleges located in Arkansas and Maryland.
Where the president acts in this capacity, he is responsible for the keeping of accounts, collection of fees, board, preparation of pay rolls and vouchers, signing checks, and rendering regular financial statements. Notwithstanding the different arrangements that exist for the conduct of business and financial affairs of Negro land-grant colleges, the tendency today, as revealed from the questionnaires received from fifteen of the seventeen colleges in 1939, is to centralize control and responsibility over them in the chief executive officer. During the early history of these institutions, they were not in a position to employ full-time business officers and even efficient clerical help was lacking, but with the growth of these institutions and the training of Negroes in business administration and in accounting, and bookkeeping, this situation has been greatly changed. At the present time such work is being performed entirely by Negroes in these colleges. Today there are sixteen institutions employing full-time Negro treasurers, or business managers. The business manager of Princess Anne College is also a teacher.

Salaries. Salaries paid in Negro land-grant colleges are generally low both in the administrative and academic branches. Consideration should be given, however, to the fact that many of these institutions are still laboring under decreased appropriations, that were affected during the early years of the economic depression. Nevertheless, when one considers the average compensation for the services in Negro land-grant colleges, it is difficult to comprehend how either administrative officers or members of the teaching staff of the highest training and qualifications can

Taken from the 1933-39 official catalogue of this institution.
be secured to perform the services that are demanded in the conduct of these institutions.

Due to the fact that only eight of the seventeen colleges answered the question dealing with "the salaries of administrators" which was included in the questionnaire sent to the dean of each of the colleges in 1939, little data are available on the salaries that are paid to administrators of Negro land-grant colleges at the present time. Table XXXII on the next page presents, however, a general picture of salaries as they were in 1930. The author has recently received reliable information from teachers of some of the Negro land-grant colleges which indicates that the salaries of administrators of Negro land-grant colleges have not changed materially since 1930.

As indicated in Table XXXII the highest salary paid the chief executive officer of any of the land-grant colleges in 1930 was $4,800 at West Virginia State College. In the other fifteen institutions the annual compensation of the president ranged from $2,400 to $4,500. The salary of the assistant to the president in the three institutions reporting such an officer in 1930 varied from $1,500 to $2,100.

The remuneration paid business managers by the ten institutions having them in 1930 ranged from $1,200 to $2,100. The largest salary paid any business manager in 1930 was $3,720 at the Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, and this salary exceeded the compensation of the president of a number of other institutions.

Among the important administrative positions in Negro land-grant colleges are the deans of men and women. Of the ten institutions which employed deans of men in 1930, their salaries were approximately on the same
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution located in-</th>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Assis. to President</th>
<th>Business Manager</th>
<th>Registrar</th>
<th>Dean of Men</th>
<th>Dean of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$2,700</td>
<td></td>
<td>$1,450</td>
<td>$1,350</td>
<td>$1,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>2,700</td>
<td>$1,800</td>
<td>$1,500</td>
<td>$1,500</td>
<td>$1,200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,400</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>650</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>4,500</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>1,510</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>1,510</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>2,400</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>4,020</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,720</td>
<td>1,900</td>
<td>1,760</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,750</td>
<td>1,572</td>
<td>1,572</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>4,800</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No data available for Florida A. & M. College, omitted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution located in—</th>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Dean of Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$2,700</td>
<td>$1,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>2,700</td>
<td>1,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>4,500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>1,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>2,400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>4,020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>2,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>2,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Virginia</td>
<td>4,800</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
salary scale as the registrars, while the salaries of deans of women were somewhat lower than those for deans of men.

Of the seven colleges employing deans or directors of the administration or college in 1930, the annual salary ranged from $1,350 at the State Agricultural and Mechanical College of Alabama to $3,000 at the West Virginia State College and Lincoln University.

Out of a total of 1,082 members of the teaching staffs of Negro land-grant colleges in 1933-39, the following facts, as revealed from the questionnaires returned by fifteen of the seventeen colleges in 1939, are evident: (1) the average salary of full professors was $1,854; (2) for associate professors $1,500; (3) for assistant professors $1,350; and (4) for instructors, which constituted approximately 21% of the 1,082 members of the teaching staff, $1,265.

The foregoing presentation indicates that an adjustment of the salaries of both administrative and academic staffs is one of the most important problems that confront Negro land-grant colleges at the present time. The mere raising of salaries is not the primary problem. What is needed today is a careful revaluation of the work of all the different officers of the Negro land-grant institutions, including presidents, deans, professors, and other staff members. For instance, deans were found performing work of the registrar and business manager, and presidents performing the work of the treasurer, secretary, and business manager; and, in a few cases, the making of the schedule and registering of students were performed by the dean instead of the registrar.

As already pointed out, many of the Negro land-grant colleges in the

These averages were computed from the average salary of each of the four teaching ranks of the fifteen colleges which replied to this item of the questionnaire.
early period of their development organized collegiate branches, but they were concentrated upon classical education rather than industrial training. However, as the material wealth of the South increased continuously from 1900 to 1920 and its public educational program came under the stimulating direction of a strong group of educational leaders, the restrictions against the development of Negro land-grant institutions began to disappear during the second decade of the nineteenth century. At the present time there is not a single Negro land-grant college that is not committed to a broad program of education for its Negro population. Although many of these institutions had secondary enrollments as late as 1933-1934, sixteen of the seventeen colleges have now eliminated their high-school departments altogether, except as practice centers for their student teachers.

Names and Present Objectives of the Colleges. From the standpoint of the purposes of the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890, under which land-grant colleges for Negroes came into existence, the majority of these colleges were named in such a way as to indicate then their educational objectives more or less directly. Four of the institutions are known as Agricultural and Mechanical colleges, four as State Colleges, one as a State teachers college, five as Agricultural and Industrial colleges, and three as universities. While the name of the institutions is not of primary importance, yet it is essential to consider the question in the light of the programs of study that are now offered by Negro land-grant colleges. In some of the institutions the names fail to express the actual purpose of the college. One institution (Lincoln University) designated as a

John W. Davis, op. cit., p. 41.
university is strictly a State Teachers College. Two other institutions (Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College of Louisiana and the Colored Agricultural and Normal University of Oklahoma) bearing the titles of universities are concerned principally with the under-graduate teacher-training and only little work in the technical fields is offered by them.

The chief function of the other types of land-grant colleges for Negroes appears to be centered in teacher-training for general educational work and for vocations, such as agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics. In many of the Negro land-grant colleges the internal organization does not fit in any way the name of the institution. This results in considerable misunderstanding as to the true status of these institutions.

In recent years there has been a tendency to simplify the long and complicated names which were originally given to Negro land-grant institutions. Southern University at Baton Rouge, Louisiana, formerly called Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College of Louisiana, is an example. In several instances, the title "State College" has been substituted for the original name of the college. Virginia State College for Negroes at Ettricks, Virginia, formerly the Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute, is a typical example. Under the general term of "State College" are now included all sorts of specialized activities, such as agriculture, mechanic arts, home economics, teacher-training, liberal arts and sciences, which are now represented in a majority of the institutions. While absolute uniformity is not essential, it would

* Name has been changed to Southern University.
seem that some of the Negro land-grant colleges should be renamed to correspond more accurately with their educational objectives and with the character of work that is offered by them.

Present Curricula. The development of college curricula in mechanic arts and related subjects has presented one of the intricate educational problems of Negro land-grant colleges. For a great many years the only instruction given under the term "mechanic arts" was manual-training, trades and, to a certain extent, machine-shop practice. In some of the institutions this situation still prevails. Since mechanic arts on the collegiate level include several branches of the engineering professions, most land-grant colleges for Negroes have been greatly handicapped in offering highly technical courses in electrical, mechanical, civil, and chemical engineering because of the expensive equipment required and the difficulties, until recent years, in securing highly trained personnel to give this instruction. Also little opportunity has existed for Negro engineering graduates to secure employment except in isolated instances. As a result, it became necessary to develop specific types of technical curricula of a collegiate grade within the fields of mechanic trades and industries to be offered in Negro land-grant institutions that might be profitably pursued by their students. The mechanic-arts curricula of Negro land-grant colleges in general included: mechanical drawing, automobile mechanics, carpentry, masonry, building construction, power-plant engineering, printing and industrial management. It should be remembered, however, that until recent years this work was given almost entirely on a high-school level. Today most of the institutions offer a curriculum leading to a degree of Bachelor of Science (B.S.) in me-
chnic arts in addition to a similar degree in agriculture, elementary education, health and physical education, and home economics. A liberal-arts curriculum leading to a degree of Bachelor of Arts (A.B.) is found in most of the Negro land-grant institutions. This degree is usually pursued by prospective high-school teachers and those who are preparing for the professional fields. A curriculum leading to a two-year normal school certificate for two years of college work in elementary education is offered in a majority of the colleges.

Collegiate programs in home economics have developed much more consistently than agricultural and mechanical-arts curricula in land-grant colleges for Negroes. This is largely due to the fact that home economics in its different branches is especially adapted to the needs of Negro women students in an immediate and practical way. The curriculum leading to the B. S. degree in Home Economics is of comparatively recent origin. As late as 1930 four Negro land-grant institutions gave no degree in this type of work. In this year one college gave home economics teacher-training courses but no degree. Two other institutions conducted two-year college courses in home economics, while another offered a non-credit elective course in its junior college. Today, however, every Negro land-grant institution offers the home economic curriculum leading to the degree of B. S. The majority of the courses in home economics in Negro land-grant colleges now include foods or nutrition, clothing, millinery, textiles, home management, home planning, home accounting, child care, home nursing, education, institutional management, laundering and household physics.

The commercial or business administration curricula have recently
been established in some of the Negro land-grant colleges. In 1930 only four colleges offered work in this field. Today eleven colleges are offering such work. This work is generally conducted on a collegiate basis. Courses of instruction given in this comprise general commerce and business, such as real estate, banking, insurance and building. Increasing concentration of the Negro population in urban cities has resulted in the establishment of business enterprises of almost every type which are owned, managed and conducted by Negroes. The professions of law, medicine, education, and related activities have also opened up new avenues of business activities for the Negro youth. A demand, therefore, has been created for expert accountants, secretaries, and clerks. In view of these facts, it seems highly important that more of the Negro land-grant colleges should introduce commerce and business curricula on a collegiate basis to meet these new needs.

The liberal-arts curricula have been, as earlier indicated, a part of the educational programs of most Negro land-grant colleges from the time of their establishment. Some of the earlier curricula followed as far as possible the set traditional four-year classical course with emphasis on Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Around 1920, however, foreign languages began to take the place of the ancient languages. At this same time science began to find its way into the curricula of the colleges. Inadequate support of these institutions until about 1925 made it difficult to furnish properly equipped laboratories for the teaching of the sciences. There was likewise a lack of trained Negro teachers in science until after 1930. Today, however, the total picture of the liberal-arts curriculum in

There have been more graduate degrees awarded in science to Negroes since 1930 than before 1930. This is also true of graduate degrees to Negroes in nearly all fields.
Negro land-grant colleges, is indeed a brighter one. Laboratories have been established in chemistry, biology, physics, and other natural sciences. Within the past few years most of the institutions have been able to obtain instructors in the several sciences who are graduates of the leading Northern and Western universities and who are capable teachers. Under their direction the place of science in the general curriculum has been firmly established in Negro land-grant colleges. There is a tendency at present for a majority of the colleges to make the arts and sciences unit of instruction the general service division for teacher-training and technical departments. These institutions, however, cannot meet their educational objectives as agricultural and mechanical colleges providing higher education for the industrial classes if the liberal-arts curriculum is emphasized to the detriment of practical education.

Teacher-training has developed into one of the foremost educational functions of Negro land-grant colleges. This is largely due to the specific demand of the Southern states for the preparation of teachers for the Negro public schools. Enrollments in the elementary schools for Negroes in the seventeen Southern states and the District of Columbia have increased from 1,944,068 in 1918 to 2,180,942 in 1928, a gain of 236,874, or 12.2 per cent. Negroes attending high schools have likewise increased from 19,504 in 1918 to 93,329 in 1928, a gain of 73,825 or 46.2 per cent. The responsibility for supplying trained Negro teachers for this tremendous increase in public school enrollment has fallen to a considerable extent on the land-grant colleges for Negroes.

Teaching Staffs. Large and comprehensive programs of college curricula in agriculture, home economics, mechanic-arts, education, and the arts and sciences can be effectively executed with an adequate and well trained teaching staff. For many years land-grant colleges for Negroes have suffered greatly both from a shortage of teachers and a lack of properly qualified ones. Although a majority of the institutions have made a determined effort, in recent years, to improve not only the size but the professional status of their faculties, there still remains much work to be achieved. One is surprised upon examining the official catalogues of the different institutions to find that even today some of the Negro land-grant colleges still have members of their teaching staffs who have only their initial degree. While there is a shortage of Negroes with the doctoral degree at the present time, there is no absolute reason why every member of the teaching staffs of Negro land-grant colleges should not have at least a Master's degree, or a year of graduate work in his field of specialization. One of the most important measures of the efficiency of a modern college is the number of full-time teachers. The generally accepted standard for a four-year college in this country is a minimum of ten full-time college professors. As late as 1930 less than half (7) of the seventeen institutions were able to meet this standard and only a little more than half of them (11) can meet this criterion today. At a few of the institutions, members of the teaching staffs are classified as "professors" with only bachelor's degree to their credit. If the work of Negro land-grant institutions is to be placed on a college basis and if they are to receive recognition from leading accrediting agencies, it is absolutely essential that steps be taken immediately to increase not only the number but also the professional level of their teaching staffs.
The plan of expanding their curricula to include a wide variety of subject matter fields without well trained teachers to furnish competent instruction, such as many of the Negro land-grant colleges have done in the past, can only result in a general lowering of their standards.

While the qualifications of the faculties of Negro land-grant colleges have undergone great improvement during the past ten years, there is a considerable proportion of the teachers who are not sufficiently trained for the work they are attempting to perform. In the National Survey of land-grant colleges and universities in 1930 it was found that out of 381 college teachers in Negro land-grant institutions, 99, or 26% held graduate degrees (usually, the Master's degree), 232, or 61% held only their first degree (B.S., A.B., Ph.B.) and 50 or 13% held no degrees. Although the picture has changed somewhat since 1930, it is not at all uncommon even today to find faculty members of these institutions with no graduate degrees.

Entrance and Graduation Requirements. In many institutions the entrance requirements were not well enforced during the decade from 1919-29. Since that time there has been a gradual tightening of the regulations. This has been due largely to the fact that the Southern states were beginning to rate Negro high schools and colleges. As one of the very important phases of accreditation dealt with the records of students in terms of the entrance requirements of the college, administrators of Negro land-grant colleges generally became more cautious about admitting students who did not fully meet the requirements stated in college catalogues.

While the requirements for admittance have been liberalized to some extent in Negro land-grant colleges, they have not yet reached truly progressive standards. Of the fifteen or sixteen units of high-school work

Arthur J. Klein, op. cit., p. 92%.
necessary for college entrance in many institutions, the number of specific units required is still high. An examination of the most recent catalogues of the Negro land-grant colleges reveals that all of the colleges have specific high-school requirements for college entrance. The number of specific high-school requirements varies from nine to thirteen units with a median of eleven units. The majority of the colleges require at least two units in Mathematics, three units in English, two units in a foreign language, two units in a natural science, and two units in a social science, including American History.

The requirements for graduation of Negro land-grant colleges are generally in quantitative terms, that is, a certain number of semester hours or the equivalent in quarter or year hours.

At the present time all the colleges have quantitative requirements of 120 to 128 semester hours or the equivalent in quarter or year hours for graduation from four-year colleges, and from 60 to 64 hours for junior college graduation.

Some of the advances which have been made by some of the colleges during recent years have been in qualitative rather than quantitative terms. These advances have included (1) the system of major and minors; (2) groups requirements; (3) qualitative ratings such as "quality" or "grade" points; and (4) comprehensive examinations. In discussing such qualitative requirements for graduation it is impossible to localize each feature within a given period of years. The small colleges (located in Maryland, Delaware, and Kentucky), where the junior college curriculum is emphasized, have no qualitative requirements. This is probably due to the fact that the curricula of these colleges are fully prescribed.
A few colleges (located in Missouri, Texas, and Tennessee) have instituted the general examination at the end of the four-year period. Three colleges (located in Virginia, West Virginia, and North Carolina) have two comprehensive examinations, one at the end of the sophomore year and the other at the end of the senior year.

Nearly all the Negro land-grant colleges have now a system of "quality" or "grade" credit for the students' program as a whole. The value of the quality point system varies from A=3, B=2, C=1, D=0, E or F=−1 to A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, E=−1, and F=−2. Since the majority of the colleges use the letter marking system (A, B, C, D, E, or F) wherein the letter C represents average attainment and the minimum average for graduation, a student must make either a total of 180 or 360 quarter-hour quality (grade) points or their equivalents in semester or year hours to qualify for graduation.

Libraries. The library is one of the most valuable assets of a modern college. It is next in importance to an efficient and qualified teaching staff. In constitutes a service branch for all the departments and educational units of an institution. To meet the requirements and standards set up by accrediting agencies a senior college should contain not fewer than 6,000 well selected volumes. In addition, the books should be of a type to furnish adequate collateral reading for the courses of study offered by the college. A well-trained librarian should also be employed. The libraries in only three of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges could meet this standard in 1930. But much progress in this direction has been made during recent years. Today every Negro land-grand institution, except two, can meet the above standard, with plenty to spare. Many of the colleges have as many as 10,000 volumes and a
staff of well-trained librarians and assistants. Many of these books, however, have been the generous gifts of various philanthropic agencies.

**Summer Sessions in Negro Land-Grant Colleges.** The operation of summer session is one of the most important educational services rendered by land-grant colleges for Negroes to their respective states. With their work largely concentrated in education, Negro land-grant institutions provide an opportunity for Negro public-school teachers to improve professionally during their summer vacations.

The summer session in Negro land-grant colleges is administered by various people. In the majority of the institutions the administration is handled by the president, in some cases by the dean of the college, and in others by the director of teacher-training or by a special director. All the colleges, except the two institutions located in Maryland and Delaware, now conduct summer sessions. In some of the institutions the summer session is operated as a separate enterprise from the regular college program. In others it is conducted as a part of the collegiate work of the college. The summer session is generally divided into two terms, and varies in length from five weeks of six days each to six, nine, and twelve weeks of five days each. Credit allowed students attending summer sessions likewise varies from six to nine quarter hours per term. Many of the colleges have two terms of summer school of either five or six weeks in length. It is of interest to note that Negro land-grant colleges do not generally exchange professors for summer school work. It seems that if this practice were followed, it would prove mutually beneficial both to the teachers and students.

Unlike many of the land-grant institutions for white students, only
three of the land-grant colleges for Negroes offer any graduate or professional work. Moreover, not one of the seventeen states, in which there are separate land-grant institutions for Negroes, provides opportunities and equipment for that research work and experimentation which would, in the end, enrich the state and nation. The present divisions, schools or major departments of Negro land-grant colleges need a fuller development and suggest needed industrial services for Negroes not now attempted in the states. The development and expansion now intimated must include an educational program for a people whose occupational trends are suggested in Table XXXIII on page 227.

Worthwhile contributions have been made by the land-grant colleges for Negroes and even greater contributions are to be made when through these institutions Negroes shall find for themselves a firmer economic footing. The program to give Negroes economic stability and independence must be a part of the work of the combined Negro college and vocational school. Land-grant colleges for Negroes have an opportunity for achievement in such a program. This can be had, moreover, without vocationally warping the minds of students.

The position of land-grant colleges for Negroes among other colleges may be seen to some extent in the action taken on December 1, 1932 at the


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCCUPATIONS</th>
<th>1910</th>
<th>1920</th>
<th>1930</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Negroes Employed</td>
<td>Percent of Distribution</td>
<td>No. of Negroes Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>2,834,969</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>2,133,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry and Fishing</td>
<td>33,776</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>31,375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraction of Minerals</td>
<td>61,129</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>73,229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing and Mechanical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industries</td>
<td>655,906</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>901,181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and Communication</td>
<td>256,098</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>312,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>119,775</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>141,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service (not elsewhere</td>
<td>22,229</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>50,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classified)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Service</td>
<td>68,350</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>81,771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic and Personal Service</td>
<td>1,121,251</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>1,063,008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Operation</td>
<td>19,052</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>36,359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,192,535</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>4,824,151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

71% employed in 1910 58% employed in 1920 59% employed in 1930

Compiled from data in John W. Davis' "Land-Grant Colleges for Negroes" West Virginia State College Bulletin, (April, 1934), 41-46.
### Table XXIII (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCCUPATIONS</th>
<th>Percent of Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry and Fishing</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraction of Minerals</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing and Mechanical Industries</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and Communication</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service (not elsewhere classified)</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Service</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic and Personal Service</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Operation</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, held at New Orleans, Louisiana, when the Executive Committee of the Association voted to grant ratings on many institutions for Negroes. Among the Negro land-grant institutions which received Standard Four-year College Class B rating in 1932 were the colleges located in Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Louisiana, North Carolina, Texas and Virginia. Six of these institutions now have a college Class A rating by this association and the other one, Kentucky, has recently received a class B rating. For several years the land-grant college for Negroes located in Missouri has held a class A membership in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and for an even longer period West Virginia State College, the land-grant institutions for Negroes in West Virginia, has held a similar membership in the association. While the majority of the Negro land-grant institutions today can probably meet the technical requirements of a first class college, two or three of them might find it difficult to be rated unconditionally as first class, junior colleges, according to standards of accrediting agencies.

According to the 1938-39 official catalogues of the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges, those colleges located in Alabama, North Carolina, Texas, Louisiana, Virginia and Florida had an A rating by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, while the college located in Kentucky held a B rating by this association. Seven colleges held an A rating by their respective State boards of education only. These colleges were located in Arkansas, Delaware, Mississippi, Georgia, Oklahoma, Maryland, and South Carolina. Two colleges, located in Missouri and West Virginia, held an A rating by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One college, located in Tennessee, held an A
rating by the American Association of Teachers College.

Value of Physical Plants. The value of the physical plants owned by Negro land-grant colleges for 1939 may be found in Table XXXIV on the next page. From the data found in Table XXXIV, it is revealed that in 1939 the total value of physical plants of Negro land-grant colleges was $15,087,000. However, these figures seem a little low when compared with the value estimated by the U. S. Office of Education in November, 1937. According to an estimate of the value of property of Negro land-grant colleges in 1937 by the Office of Education, their total property was put at $15,572,000, which is $485,000 more than the value estimated by the land-grant colleges themselves two years later.

In the same year (1937) the U. S. Office of Education recorded 19,630 college students enrolled in Negro land-grant colleges, with 1,045 faculty members and with receipts totaling $4,246,000. * and in the previous year (1936) 922 bachelors' degrees were granted by Negro land-grant institutions.

The total enrollment of the colleges in 1938-39, including the high-school but excluding the elementary school enrollment, was 19,622 in colleges and 1,761, in high school or a grand total, college and high-school, of 21,383. These figures are indicated in Table XXXV on page 232.

Summary. In this chapter we have attempted to trace the development of Negro land-grant colleges from the beginning of the present century to 1939, indicating some of the factors which have conditioned this development. The chapter opened with a brief discussion of the general agricultural conditions which favored the growth of the colleges from 1900 to 1914. We considered next the relationship of the Federal Government to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of College</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Value of Plants of Colleges in 1939</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State A.&amp;M. College</td>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$ 737,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The A. M. &amp; N. School</td>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>576,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State College for Negroes</td>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>521,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida A. &amp; M. College</td>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>1,220,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia State College</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ky. State Ind. College</td>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>693,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern U. &amp; A. &amp; M. Col.</td>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>849,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princess Anne College</td>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>100,000 $^\dagger$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcorn A. &amp; M. College</td>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>685,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lincoln University</td>
<td>Missouri</td>
<td>868,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Negro A. &amp; T. College</td>
<td>N. Carolina</td>
<td>1,124,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored A. &amp; N. University</td>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>650,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Colored N. A. &amp; M. Col.</td>
<td>S. Carolina</td>
<td>900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. &amp; I. State Normal for Negroes</td>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>1,340,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prairie View State N. &amp; I. College</td>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>1,582,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia State College for Negroes</td>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>1,301,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>$15,087,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^\dagger$ Figures taken from the 1938-39 official catalogues of the seventeen colleges.

$^\dagger$ Three new buildings are now being constructed at Princess Anne College and this construction will increase the value of the physical plant of this institution.
Table XXXV

TOTAL ENROLLMENT OF THE SEVENTEEN NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES IN 1938-39, EXCLUDING THEIR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution located in—</th>
<th>College Enrollment</th>
<th>High School Enrollment</th>
<th>Summer School Enrollment</th>
<th>Ext. Enroll.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>819</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>733</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>528</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>612</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>1623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>130</td>
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Compiled from data found in the 1938-39 official catalogues of the seventeen colleges.
the development of the colleges, with particular reference to the Smith-Lever and Smith-Hughes Acts of 1914 and 1917, respectively. Our third major topic dealt with the relationship of Federal subsidies to the field of operation of Negro land-grant colleges. We also illustrated the discriminatory practices of the Southern states in the spending of both Federal and state funds on their Negro populations and thereby retarding the expansion and development of the colleges. We then discussed the retarding effects of the World War and the continuation of the development of the colleges thereafter, including a change in the curriculum and improvement of short courses after 1920. Our next general topic dealt with the development of college organization, physical equipment for the teaching of agriculture, college farms, teaching methods, and college plants since 1915. The chapter ended with a brief survey of the colleges, before the effects of the economic depression of 1929 had become pronounced, and the growth of colleges since 1929 as revealed from their status and current practices in 1939.

As this chapter comes to an end, the reader will realize that the historical background of Negro land-grant colleges reveals many forces which have operated to retard their work. Yet, it is clear that substantial progress has been made by them. The weaknesses of the colleges appear within and without while their strong points suggest a position of advantage for future good in education in this country. Having traced then the expansion and development of the colleges from 1900 to 1939, there still remains to be discussed the social, economic, political, and educational conditions of Negroes of the South as a background for a program for the colleges. This we shall do in the next chapter.
CHAPTER V

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, POLITICAL, AND EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS OF NEGROES OF THE SOUTH

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and evaluate the social, economic, political and educational conditions of Negroes of the South in order to determine along what lines the work of the Negro land-grant colleges should be directed. This involves a brief discussion of those phases of Negro life which center around the general status of his work, home, churches, health, and education, and a careful examination of his restricted civil, ethical and political rights, which have resulted from the dual organization of Southern society. This discussion of the present conditions of the Southern Negro is both pertinent and necessary in order to show the part that this group of colleges should play in the improvement of Negro life in the South.

Tenancy in the South. In spite of improvements here and there, agriculture in the South is handicapped by the peculiar turn which it took immediately after the Civil war when a readjustment in the economic system became necessary. Nominal slavery, at least, had passed away, but the dependence of the poor freedmen upon their former masters remained to continue the institution in another form. It was naturally expected that the planters would adopt the wage system of paying the laborer a definite amount in money for his service by the day, month, or year; as a matter of fact, some of these landlords did so, as was and is the custom among most of the farmers of other sections of the country. In the majority of the cases, in the area devastated by the sectional conflict, however, the owners of large plantations thought that their interest could be better taken care of in their impecunious condition by adopting a system which has
become known as "tenancy." The freedmen had little choice in the matter. They were dependents who had to take whatever was offered them or drift into vagabondage.

History has shown, however, that although there might have been some good intentions which prompted land owners in this direction, it has proved to be the worst evil from which the South has to suffer. Thinking people who can see future consequences from an error of the past and present, commonly refer to tenancy as an evil much worse than illiteracy, intemperance, or lynching, about which we daily hear so much from the rostrum and the press. In fact, tenancy is, in a large measure, the cause of these other evils in the South. The system has given rise to a transitory, migratory class which has no permanent attachment to and no abiding interest in the communities in which they sojourn. Tenancy supplants the idea of home ownership, and thus prevents the building of a desirable rural civilization. The agencies like the school and church under such circumstances cannot carry out any constructive program where there is no permanent home life.

What then is tenancy? Ordinarily we refer to tenants as persons paying for the use of property, but who are otherwise just as independent in their transactions as the owners of the property themselves. In the case of farm operators in the south, however, the significance is quite otherwise. In the first place, there are many different kinds of tenants, each one enjoying more or less independence or exercising more or less liberty in proportion as he finds himself closer to or farther removed from the owner of the land. The persons thus occupy only rented land. Yet for a better understanding of their situation, the United States Bureau of the Census divided them into three main classes: (a) renters who hire land for a fixed rental to be paid

1 This has been discussed in The Journal of Negro History, IX, 241-364, 381-569; XI, 243-415, 425-537.
in either cash or its equivalent in crop values; (b) share tenants, who furnish their own farm equipment and work animals and obtain use of land by agreeing to pay a fixed percentage of the cash crop which they raise; (c) share-croppers to whom have to be furnished not only the land but also farm tools and animals, fertilizer, and often even the foods they consume, and who in return pay a larger percentage of the crop.

In considering cotton tenancy, the first group may almost be ignored. Those who have definite agreements with landlords as to exact rental prices are few in numbers and their status is so independent as to remove them from the system of subservient tenancy. The share-tenants and share-croppers are the two great subdivisions of the dependent workers in the cotton belt. The difference between these two classes is simply one of degree. The share-tenants, since they supply much of their own equipment, are able to rent the land on fairly good terms, usually on the basis of paying to the owner not more than one-fourth or one-third of the crop raised. The share-croppers, on the other hand, having almost nothing to offer but their labor, must pay as rent a higher share of the product, usually one-half of the crop. The share-croppers are the most dependent of all classes of tenants. Almost everything is furnished by the owners of the land and, consequently, they receive less of the returns from their labor. Being so dependent, they are allowed such a little liberty that their will is subject almost altogether to that of the landlords to whom they are attached. Over one-third of all tenants in the South, or over half of all Negro tenants are croppers.

The relations between tenants and landlords are usually determined by conference about the beginning or the end of the year. They agree to sign a

contract which may be enforced by law. Inasmuch as these illiterate people have little or no knowledge of law, they sign away their own rights and liberties, not knowing what they are doing. Most of these contracts are decidedly unfavorable to the tenant, but in addition to this disadvantage, the interpretation of the agreement is altogether in the hands of the planter assisted by the officers of the law, whom he can usually summon to his assistance and make the contract mean almost whatever he desires it to be. So far as the Negro tenants are concerned, they generally have no law to which they can appeal. For them law is usually the will of the particular planter with whom they may be dealing.

The routine of the work of these laborers will enable us better to understand the status of these tenants. After the cropper has agreed to become a tenant, he comes under the supervision of the landlord, who sends out his rider, a man employed to supervise all work on the plantation. This white boss apportions the acreage for cultivation, decides the amount of fertilizer each family must use on its parcel of land, when the crop should be planted, and on what particular spot. The cropper is obligated to rise as early as there is sufficient light to work, about five o’clock on summer days, and he must toil until dark. There is usually a bell or some other signal informing the croppers when to start and when to stop work.

When the crop is harvested by the tenant, the planter deducts therefrom his stipulated share and takes out also the value of clothing, food, and supplies which the planter has furnished the cropper during the year. If there is anything left, the planter usually buys the cropper’s residue, for the latter is not in a position to hold the crop for a better price. Throughout the year, both

3 Johnson, Embree, and Alexandre, Ibid. p. 8-9.
the landlord and cropper have each tried to give the least and get the most out of an impossible situation. Inasmuch as the landlord has the advantage of owning the stock, the implements, and the land, the landlord usually has whatever apparent profit that results from the transaction.

The present status is most nearly presented by the statistics of 1930. According to these data there had been a slight decrease in tenancy but not enough to show any appreciable change in the status of Negroes on the plantations. In 1910 there were 678,118 Negro tenant families, 714,441 in 1920, and 676,830 in the cotton states alone in 1930, and these represent nearly 3,000,000 individuals. The Kingdom of Cotton, reared first upon the backs of black slaves, is supported today by a great horde of white and black tenants and share-croppers who "starve that we may live". Although adding a billion dollars annually to the wealth of the world, the cotton farmers themselves are the most impoverished and backward of any large group of producers in America. The cotton tenants live at a level of mere subsistence. But there are not the only sufferers under the evil despotism of King Cotton. The devotion to a single crop has left the whole region of the Old South dependent upon the fluctuations of one commodity, at the mercy of the success of a single plant. Continuous tilling of one crop has worn out soil over wide areas which previously were rich and fertile. Devotion to a commercial harvest has left an abundant farm region destitute of food crops, and its people living on a shockingly meager and ill-balanced diet. When cotton was most profitable, the United States virtually controlled the cotton market of the world. Other nations now produce much of the cotton which world industry requires. The spread of

mechanization is proving devastating to the labor of cotton. With machinery, cotton can be more cheaply produced and with fewer hands. Over all this gloomy prospect impends the perfection of an invention for picking cotton, which even in its present state of development, can without very high capital cost do in seven and a half hours the labor of a good picker working three and a half months.

Negro slavery and cotton grew up together in the Old South, beginning in the Carolinas, which were most typical of the cotton culture and the plantation order a century or more ago. But this one crop system, essentially detrimental to the soil, always found it easier to move westward to newer lands than to preserve or restore the old farms. Thus the cotton area, carrying slavery and the plantation with it, moved steadily to Georgia and Alabama, then on to Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana. More recently, with the former slaves simply transformed into almost equally dependent tenants, and with ever-increasing numbers of white laborers drawn into the meshes of tenancy, the cotton area has moved on westward to Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and finally to Southern California.

Cotton has always been a cheap-labor crop; its development has rested on keeping the labor cost low. In fact, many declare that profit is impossible if all the labor it requires were paid for. The results appear in low living standards of the millions of families whose men, women, and children produce the crop.

The cultural landscape of the cotton belt has been described as a miserable panorama of unpainted shacks, rain-gullied fields, rattletrap Fords, dirt, poverty, disease, and monotony that stretches for a thousand miles across the cotton belt. It used to be said that “cotton is and must remain a black man's crop, not a white man's, because the former's standard of living has always been low, and his natural inferiority makes it unnecessary to change it.” Now that white families make up nearly two-thirds of the workers, it is
clear that meager and pinched living is not racial but the result of the system of cotton farm tenancy.

Obviously such backwardness is not consistent with the American ideal or with any progressive rural civilization. Practically every civilized country of the world, except the United States, has undertaken fundamental reforms in its system of land tenure. It is imperative that some reorganization of cotton farm tenancy be effected now that will provide a decent, self-supporting way of life. In view of these things some, have advocated the break up of the plantation. In defence of the system against peasant proprietorship, however, there have been advanced various theories. It is said that the small farms cannot be operated as economically as a large plantation. The small investment and the work required would permit an outlay for improved machinery, the introduction of the best stock, and scientific preservation of dairy products, foods, and vegetables. As a matter of fact, however, the large planter does not always introduce modern appliances as soon as they appear. Industrial history shows that the larger employer usually holds wages down until his work is done, as long as he can buy cheap labor to obviate the necessity for the outlay involved in the introduction of modern machinery. Experience has shown, moreover, that what the small farmer loses in being unable to practice the economics of the large plantation, the small farmer gains by cooperation with his fellows. If properly conducted, cooperative associations among the peasant proprietors may enable them to produce their staple just as economically as the large planters. The efforts of the agents of the United States Department of Agriculture and of the Departments of Agriculture of the various states, assisted by workers from Negro land-grant colleges and privately endowed industrial schools like Hampton and Tuskegee, have shown how this can be done wherever a sufficiently large number of such farmers can be induced to support
community efforts of this sort. Such agents, however, are sometimes opposed by the planters because their efforts are considered prejudicial to the interests of the landed aristocracy.

Others advocate the hired labor system as the easiest solution of the problem of tenancy. Pay the laborer, they say, a fixed stipend, and then assume full supervision of his work. Every phase of the work could be so directed as to make it a harmonious operation. The whole plantation would then be developed according to the program of the planter only. This would make it easier to introduce machinery, and fertilize the soil. The hired labor system would help to improve the breed of stocks and products, to increase the income of the owners, and to enhance the value of the land. Under this system, too, the laborers would have ample opportunity to learn scientific farming.

To cure the evils of tenancy one finds here and there those who advocate long-time leases as the first step toward peasant proprietorship. It is believed that both lords and tenants can be more easily induced to try out such a plan that they could be prevailed upon to dispose of the large plantations to small farmers. In support of this proposal its advocates argue that long-time leases will change the attitude of the tenants toward the land which they cultivate. Instead of trying to get the most out of it by putting the least into it they will cultivate the soil better, keep up its fertility, improve the buildings, devote some time to shrubbery and gardening, repair the country, manifest interest in education, and promote religion. Longtime-lease tenants will also show interest in cooperative organizations for the common good, pay more promptly their obligations to the local merchant or banker, invest their surplus capital in local enterprises, all of which will build up rather than bleed the community. In case of long-time leases, too, it
is said that the relation between the landlord and the tenant will improve. The principles of equity and justice will prevail in their transactions. The long-lease tenant will have more with which to buy land and become an independent farmer, when he ceases to move annually from place to place seeking a better opportunity which he never finds.

In spite of these proposals for the improvement of farm tenancy in the South, the large plantation and tenant system are still with us, however, and good fortune resulting from the prevalence of the small farm, then, never reaches the lower South. The system prevents a diffusion of population by keeping permanently settled families far apart. This interferes with transportation because there are not sufficient progressive farmers along the way to build and repair roads, and the large farmers may not construct them except for their own convenience. In such a scattered state telephones are not extended to the area, and if found there, the connection is more expensive because of the few subscribers. A little contact means little diffusion of new ideas and a consequent running behind the forces of progress. Tenant farmers in such a situation do not know what is going on in their particular sphere, and even if they did, they would not have sufficient knowledge to make use of advanced information.

And shifting is what makes the institution worse. As most Negro tenants toil from year to year without seeing any material change in their status or one cubit added unto their economic stature, they easily migrate. Hoping to better their miserable condition, they move from one plantation to another at the close of their contracts at the end of the year. According to the statistics of the United States Government nearly half of the Southern tenants move each year.

People thus situated never advance far in education. Their children do
not attend school regularly. They generally leave school before they have reached the proper grading and pass on to another where they do not stay long enough to be readjusted. In this moving from place to place they usually lose what they have acquired from year to year; and, therefore, do not reach any definite stage on mental development. In the absence of a properly graded school system in the South, where the Negro teachers especially are underpaid and consequently inefficient, the schools under the most favorable circumstances would not avail much in the uplift of these people. As there is no compulsory school law enforced among Negroes in these parts, the children of these peasants leave school as soon as they are able to do work on the farm. Illiteracy among them runs rather high and those who obtain some smattering of schooling can seldom do more than read and write incorrectly.

The rural church suffers also in the same way from the evils of tenancy. The pastor must face a new congregation each year. If he has started with a program requiring time for execution, he must abandon it or try it out on a new congregation before he has had a chance to put it to a test on those who have gone like birds of passage after tarrying only twelve months. It likewise becomes increasingly difficult to keep up the interest of the shifting tenants in serious matters like things of the spirit. As they have no fixed abode, they restrict their interest largely to the immediate necessities of life.

The banker, the merchant, and the professional man suffer from tenancy along with the teacher and preacher. Credit extended to this class may mean ruin to the business man. The tenant has nothing but his labor to sell, and if that is over sold, the lender is left in a precarious position. To make up for such losses, money must be loaned at a rather high rate of interest and goods must be sold at high prices to squeeze out of the honest tenants the
amount necessary to make up for the loss of few who are not honest or competent enough to take care of their obligations promptly. Most of such tenants, however, have credit only in the commissaries of their landlords, and they dare not purchase necessities elsewhere. In case of professional service rendered, the creditor has a better chance when his fees are collected through the landlord but here again comes the double cost in that the landlord must increase the amount sufficiently to reimburse him against any loss he may sustain in assuming such a responsibility.

That this condition of tenancy obtains is not to the discredit of the Negro, and he must not be misunderstood in the discussion of these undesirable conditions. The Negro has tended to rise from tenancy to ownership in spite of the difficulties involved. Negro farmers in the first place have been increasing at a faster rate than white farmers. This increase, too, has been not only in farms operated but in those actually owned. While the white rural population tended to be drawn off to the industrial plants in the South a generation ago, the Negro tended to remain on the farms. This obtained until the upheaval of the World War which carried the Negroes also from the rural communities to the cities. If we grant that tenancy is an evil, the question then arises: how is a poor young farmer to acquire a farm? Iowa has a larger percentage than any other western state, but tenancy there is not as bad as in the South. The evil of Southern tenancy is due largely to its race discrimination, ignorance, illiteracy, and lack of health and sanitary knowledge. We shall discuss each of these evils in the remaining pages of this chapter.

Since the migration of over a million and a half of the Negro population from areas throughout the South to points in the North where basic industries
are located, many of them are appearing in manufacturing and transportation fields. There has really never been a time when the cities of the South have not made use of fairly large numbers of Negroes workers and there have been many Negro workers who have performed skilled work. This has been notably true in the building trades. Two important factors in the recent changes in the economic status of the Negro have been: (a) the migration of the surplus farm populations to towns and cities; and (b) the natural increase in the number of industries which can absorb the excess population. The new situation created has bred competition for work along racial lines. The so-called "Negro jobs" have been invaded by white workers made willing by their depressed circumstances to overlook the social stigma of performing work commonly done by Negroes. But while workers have been able to move downward into "Negro jobs" rather freely, there has been no similar movement of Negroes upward into "white jobs."

The work of Negroes in industry, on the whole, has been confined to the unskilled branches of industry. Perhaps seventy-five percent of them fall within this classification. The unskilled branches of work have been those most readily affected by seasonal fluctuations and technological improvements. Whereas, in the Northern states, prior to 1914, this unskilled work was done almost entirely by European immigrants, in the South, where there were few industries and fewer immigrants, much of the unskilled work in the cities was done by Negroes. Changes in the occupational adjustment of white and Negro workers, however, had begun long before the general depression in industry. As early as 1880 it could be observed in the occupational statistics that white workers were increasing their proportions in the skilled work of the building trades, in which Negroes formerly held important positions. The vast textile industry, the one outstanding industry in the South, drew all of its labor, except for such menial tasks as cleaning and trucking, from
among the rural white people. Jobs which were in the range of political patronage, including such unattractive ones as scavenger and garbage collector, and jobs which might have been considered, from the character of the work, as "Negro Jobs", became, increasingly, jobs for the unskilled white group who were potentially voters. Barber shops and other types of public personal service operated by Negroes for white patronage began to decline in numbers.

A survey of the position of Negro workers since 1890 would reveal that, in skilled crafts, they have gained slightly in masonry, iron working, and stationary engineering, and have lost numbers relatively in carpentry, plastering, brick and tile making, boot and shoe making, marble and stone cutting, leather currying and tanning. Between the insecurity of agriculture (largely cotton cultivation) and the fluctuations of unskilled industrial employment, the position of Negro workers has been a most uncertain one. Some indication of this is to be found in the figures for relief and unemployment in the race. Although Negroes constitute 9.7 percent of the population in this country, they have formed 18.2 percent of the persons in the relief rolls.

Prior to the World War, white women, particularly in the South, did not seek industrial positions, however, greatly work was needed, because it involved, to some extent, a loss of status. Since the War they have been increasingly seeking such positions, and are preferred to Negro women for types of work involving the use of machinery. Moreover, they can perform at lower cost many jobs which would normally be done by either white or Negro men.

The Negro and Organized Labor. Accurate information regarding the extent of Negro inclusion in labor organizations has been scarce because of the extreme

Charles S. Johnson, op. cit. p. 41.
difficulty of getting the particular data regarding Negroes from the general records. A study which will give some information on the Negro in organized labor, is now under way by the National Urban League supported by the American Fund for Public Service.

As far as the Negro is concerned, there were seven types of unions relations in 1930; namely, (1) "Unions which excluded Negro workers." Twenty-two international and national labor organizations excluded Negroes workers by constitutional provisions. These unions had a total membership of 436,200 in 1930 and controlled a field in which were employed a minimum of 43,858 Negroes. (2) Unions which discouraged Negro memberships - There is but a small difference between this group and the one previously mentioned. While having nothing in its constitution against Negro membership, yet this union discouraged it, and actually succeeded in keeping the Negro membership low. Most outstanding of such unions were the Electrical Workers with 142,000 members in 1930 and practically no Negroes, although there were at least 1,343 Negro electricians, the plasterers union with 30,000 members in 1930 and less than a 100 Negroes, although there were over 6,000 Negro plasterers; and the plumbers and steam fitters with 35,000 members, no Negroes, and a long history of successful circumventions to avoid Negro memberships, although there were 3,500 Negro workers in this trade in 1930. (3) "Unions which did not encourage Negro membership" - This group of unions admitted but did not encourage Negro membership. These included the carpenters with 340,000 members in 1930 and only 592

* This study, Negro and Labor Unions, is being made by Professor Charles S. Johnson of Fisk University.

Negro members, although there were 34,217 Negro carpenters; the painters with 120,604 members in 1930 and only 279 Negroes, although there were 10,600 Negroes in the trade. (4) "Unions admitting Negroes freely to separate organizations" - This group consisted of those unions which admitted Negroes freely but only to separate unions. This included musicians with 125,000 members and 3,000 Negroes in 1930; the hotel and restaurant employees, with 38,508 members in 1930, of which over 1,000 were Negroes; the journeymen, barbers, the laundry workers, Tobacco workers, Union Textile workers, and cooks and waiters. (5) Union admitting Negroes freely to mixed and separate organizations - This group was composed of unions which admitted Negroes freely to mixed or separate unions. In this was included the largest Negro membership. They were the longshoremen, the hod carriers, and common building laborers, and tunnel workers. (6) "Unions admitting Negroes to mixed organization only". This group was made up of those unions which admitted Negroes only to mixed unions. These included the United Mine Workers and the Garment Workers Unions. In the first union discrimination among members and locals was discouraged with the threat of a fine. In the second, because the clothing industry centered about New York and Chicago, and was largely Jewish and foreign in membership, racial sentiment against Negroes was not strong. There were 11,000 Negroes in these two unions in 1930 and there are probably 12,000 today. (7) "Independent Negro unions" - The seventh and last group was composed of independent Negro unions. Among these was the Railroad Men's Independent and Benevolent Association with headquarters in Chicago, The Dining Car Men's Association with Headquarters in Washington, and the Pullman Porters Organization. These, together, had a membership of about 800 in 1930.
The above data are pertinent to our discussion here of the Negro's place in organized labor, especially since the same seven types of union relations are found today and the relationship of the Negro to each of these types has not changed in any great degree since 1930.

For a clear understanding of the relationship between the Negro worker and organized labor, two paragraphs are quoted from Charles S. Johnson's book entitled *A Preface to Racial Understanding*:

The displaced Negro farm laborers had to seek work in industry because there was nowhere else to turn, and the first real opportunity which came during the World War brought serious problems later. Their use was opposed by labor organizations. This could be understood as long as labor sought to preserve its standards by opposing the use of workers at lower than the union scale. But many of these organizations refused to admit Negro workers when they sought to conform to labor policy, or else they required that the new Negro workers take their chances on jobs and security in separate organizations. Several international organizations, notably the mine workers, longshoremen, and the garment workers, were more liberal in policy and found these workers dependable allies. Certain other unions, while not refusing them, yet did not encourage their membership. The greatest aid to their acceptance by the unions was the fact that, as non-union workers, they could successfully break any strike which the unions could call.

In 1927 there were as many as fifty thousand Negroes in labor organizations. There was not, however, much incentive to them to continue paying dues when the locals offered so little protection. However the recent separation from the American Federation of Labor of a very considerable group under John L. Lewis, head of the United Mine Workers, has initiated a rival movement for industrial organization across craft lines. This form of organization, inasmuch as it escapes the old exclusive policies of the craft unions, is regarded with greater hopes by Negro workers.

The above data relative to the number and per cent of Negroes employed in the various occupations in 1930, and also the number of Negro farmers should be referred to when we consider the function of the Negro land-grant colleges in the improvement of the living conditions of their people in the next chapter.

**Occupations of Negroes in the United States.** The total Negro population in the United States in 1932 was 11,891,143, and the total number
of Negroes (10 years old and over) gainfully occupied was 5,503,535.

These were distributed as follows:

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<tr>
<td>Forestry and Fishing</td>
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AGRICULTURE AND NEGRO FARMERS. The total number of farms operated by Negroes in the U. S. in 1930 was 882,850. Of these 139,114 were under full owners; 41,902 part owners; 923 managers; and 700,911 tenants. Of this percentage of tenants most (about 80 percent) were share croppers.

The Negroes play an important part in the sugar industry in Louisiana. Many of them, to this day, remain on the same plantations upon which they were born. The field work in the vast plantations of sugar cane is almost entirely in the hands of the Negro men, women, and children.

All along the Atlantic coast from Maryland to Florida, Negroes are engaged in the fishing industry. Some of them own their crafts while others work for white proprietors. The chief laborers, however, are found in the canneries which provide seasonal employment for Negroes from June to November.

Domestic Service. Next to agriculture, as we have seen, the largest number of Negroes finds employment in domestic and personal service. According to the census of 1930 over one and a half million Negroes were employed in this type of occupation. Negroes, however, show the same tendency as whites to abandon domestic service in favor of industry which offers shorter

Complied from data found in The Census Report on Negroes in the United States, 1920-1932 by the Census Bureau, Department of Commerce, 1932.
hours and more pay. The Negro servant problem in the South is the same as
the white servant problems in the North and West. The more ambitious and
more intelligent men and women of both races can usually find better oppor-
tunities in other fields. Hence, the servant problem is becoming acute
all over the country. In high-class hotels and restaurants, where wages
equal those of the factory, white waiters are displacing Negro waiters.
Negro washwomen, who numbered nearly a half a million in 1930, are rapidly
giving way to the steam laundry. But not withstanding the tendency of
Negroes to leave domestic service, over a million and a half of them still
remain in the field and for a long time to come it will be one of the chief
means of their livelihood.

Domestic Life of Negroes in the South. The domestic life of Negroes
is seen at its best in the rural districts. The members of the family
being dependent upon each other, develop strong family ties. The children,
being constantly under parental oversight, are grounded in habits of indus-
try and are usually better disciplined than children in the cities, whose
parents live generally in over-crowded houses and often work away from home.
For Negroes, as for most whites, one drawback to rural life is that the
educational opportunities are not as good as in the cities. The social
life of the Negroes in the country consists mainly of the Saturday visits
to the nearest town and the Sunday visits to the nearest Negro church.
The tenant and wage class of Negroes change residence too often to form any
valuable connection with the rural church, social club or town lodge.

In the cities of the South, the Negroes generally reside in segre-

Harry H. Johnson, The Negro in the New World, p. 453, New York:
gated quarters. This is especially true in cities such as Baltimore, Richmond, Charleston, Memphis, Atlanta, New Orleans, Dallas, and Birmingham.

In every large Southern city there are, of course, a few respectable Negro neighborhoods. In most of the cities the several Negro quarters represent different classes of the Negro population. In the one quarter you see substantial and attractive houses, owned and operated by the most prosperous and educated class of Negroes. In another quarter you see dilapidated houses occupied by the thriftless and vicious class of Negroes.

Negro children in cities have little opportunity to grow up very strong physically or morally. In many cases the mother works away from home.

The percentage of Negro women in the South who work for a living is about four times as great as that of white women. The mother who works away from home has neither the time nor the disposition to be a good homemaker. Negro infants, being left alone, learn to crawl and walk much earlier than white infants, and usually other children from four to ten years old often have the daily care of the younger ones in the family. The mother rushes off to work and often leaves nothing for the children's breakfast except left-overs from the last meal. Often the only regular meal is at night when the mother brings her basket of food, which is often the left-overs from the table of her white mistress. Milk is rare in the average Negro home in the South, hence the frequency of rickets. Children and adults often sleep two or three in a bed; some have no night robes and go many days without a change of under-wear. The author, while taking a census of Negroes between the ages of six and twenty-one in Caroline County, Maryland

in 1934, visited a four-room house in which twenty-two people were living. There is a general absence of privacy in the Negro homes of the South, and when parents are away the children take to the streets, where they come in contact with moral degenerates.

The period of infancy of the Negro child is relatively short among urban Negroes, parental care hardly extends to the age of fifteen. Before that time the boys usually leave home, tired of parental restraints and longing for independence and for money to spend on themselves. The girls leave home also at an early age lured away by the love of flashy dress, the dance and travel. They secure employment which takes them away from home, or they marry, or fall victims to the glare of the red lights.

Among the Negroes who occupy the more crowded quarters of our cities in the South, the conditions of life are such as to render very difficult the development or preservation of any human virtue. In Southern, as in Northern cities, the Negro quarters are often adjacent to the worst "redlight"district of the whites. Negro girls are early initiated into a life of sensuality. A physician in a Southern town wrote in 1935, "many girls under twelve years of age seen by me cohabit with men and are frequently found with venereal troubles." The prevalence of sexual diseases among Negro men and women is a large factor in their high death rate. The percentage of illegitimate children among Negroes is from two to three times as great as that among white children, and Professor Mecklin thinks it is probably greater than it was in the days of slavery.

The Negroes generally are more social in disposition and more absorbed in social life than the white people. They are great talkers, delighting to be in a crowd; consequently their social life is so organized as to furnish
many varied occasions for coming together. The Negroes take a great interest in their churches, not only because the services are times of social intermingling, but also because in connection with the churches there are numerous societies which frequently draw people together.

Outside the church, the Negro finds an outlet for his social cravings in a great variety of secret societies. Many of these have insurance features providing sick benefits, burial expenses, and the erection of tombstones, and so forth; others are primarily fraternal with incidental benevolent provisions. All of them have rituals and furnish occasions for their members to parade the streets in rich regalia and with gilded and many colored banners.

In a town of only 500 Negro population there may be five or more societies or lodges. Many Negroes of the town belong to from two to five of these societies, and a majority of these members belong to more than one society. Most of the societies meet fortnightly, their programs frequently including box suppers, musicals, and dances, and they hold forth often until midnight. These societies, beside furnishing an innocent means of recreation, have a tendency to promote thrift, and high ideals. Most of them limit their membership to persons who are "moral and upright, dealing in no illegal business and of good reputations." Beside the secret societies, the Negro women have their clubs and federation of clubs. In the homes of the well-to-do Negroes there is much hospitality and much formal entertaining. The Negro newspapers devote a large part of their space to the doings of the colored social world.

We now turn our attention to Negro housing as a social problem in the South. A visit to the Negro district of almost any Southern town or city is likely to leave an unpleasant memory. The dreary dilapidation of the neglect of the streets, the absence of pavements, the long accumulation of
waste, the congestion, and the casual disorder of the shops provoke an unsavory picture of this group of people. It is difficult to generalize upon Negro housing in Southern cities because the types of the segregated areas vary so widely. However, Negro sections, as a rule, have certain characteristics: (1) the artificial limitation of the areas; (2) the enforced association of all types and classes of Negro individuals; (3) the tendency to municipal neglect of sections abandoned to Negro residence; (4) the lack of strict enforcement of sanitary regulations; and (5) the absence of modern equipment such as bath tubs, and running water, and the neglect of garbage removal.

Housing, like health, depends to a large extent upon income. It is peculiar to the Negro, however, that even the ability to pay for a better home cannot, in many cases, make one possible because of the disposition of the white public to limit residence areas for him.

**Health of Negroes as a Social Problem.** It is often said that health is the greatest problem of life. With good health man finds it possible to outstrip disease in the struggle of life. Wise employers of labor, therefore, have long since learned to consider the housing, living conditions, and recreational facilities of their employees. The intelligent peasantry has been rapidly learning to do this for themselves as far as they have been able.

In the rural districts where the Negro population is numerous in this country, however, such provision is not generally found. For this reason the death rate of the Negroes in some of these parts exceeds the birth rate.

Mortality statistics reveal, for the country as a whole, a Negro rate nearly ninety per cent greater than the white in urban areas, and fifty per cent greater in rural areas. The highest urban death rates are in the South
and the highest rural rates are in the North. The diseases which, au-
thorities agree are largely due to unfavorable sanitary conditions and low.
economic status, are responsible for the great disparity between the Negro
and white death rates. These diseases are pulmonary tuberculosis, typhoid
fever, malaria, pellagra, and illness resulting from improper care during
childbirth. The highest death rates from tuberculosis among Negroes will
be found in much younger age periods than among whites.

According to the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company's figures, the
Negro tuberculosis death rate is about three times that of white people.
At one time the very wide difference in white and Negro sickness and mor-
tality rates was thought to be due to some obscure biological difference
which could not be reached by ordinary methods of treatment and prevention.
The new public health interest has more recently been based on the as-
sumption that many diseases are social and economic in foundation. As a
result, important changes have been noted. Little study is necessary to
reveal that the mortality rate of the Negro population, considered as a whole,
corresponds closely to the mortality rate of any low-income group. Negroes
with the largest numbers of their population in the low-income brackets, would
thus be expected to have high tuberculosis rates.

A study made in Cincinnati by Dr. Floyd P. Allen indicates that it is
actually possible to get a very different racial emphasis when mortality
rates from tuberculosis are compared for low-income white groups and high-
income Negro groups. The economic factor is the matrix of an expanding

8 Charles S. Johnson, op., p. 48.
9 "Physical Impairment among One Thousand Negro Workers," American
series of social problems, from poor housing to inadequate diet; from physical congestion to insufficient hospitalization. It has always been difficult for the Negro sick to secure anything approaching adequate hospital care. One reason given has been the expense of building separate hospitals. But such institutions need not be separate. There are factors in the present problem of Negro mortality over which the Negroes themselves have no control, and about which they can do little or nothing. Apart from the yet undetermined influence of racial heredity and the medical opinion regarding special racial immunity and susceptibility to certain diseases, most of the situations imposing hardships and limitations upon the Negroes are social and cultural. In a broad sense, this population's health is dependent upon community mores, stimulated by race difference, which restrict for them the range of occupation, and consequently the level of income.

Such essentials to health as adequate sanitation, water supply, and the like, the provision of which is a function of government, can scarcely be brought about by Negroes without a free and intelligent use of the franchise. If we may judge from the all too common tendency of cities to neglect those areas in which politically impotent members of the community live, these residents may expect but little consideration. Indeed, few, if any, of the social restrictions resulting from present race relations can be altered by Negroes alone; unless, perhaps, they can win sympathy or concern over the years by a display of patience in the midst of a rapid wasting of their numbers from curable or preventable diseases.

There are, however, certain elements of the health problem which are modifiable by the Negroes themselves. While it is impossible for them to control the range of their income and their occupation, there are certain
groups of individuals within almost every income level who have some margin of resources with which to attack these problems. Not all persons of low income are destroyed by diseases, and not all of the survivors are endowed with special immunity. We may assume, therefore, that among certain groups of Negroes there is sufficient awareness of the value of cleanliness, regular habits of contagion, and rational expenditure of the family budget, to counteract the invasion of dangerous diseases. Homes may be modest but comfortable, clean, and beautiful.

Let us now consider the health of Negroes in the rural areas, where the problem is also very acute. The main reason for giving such little attention to the health of the Negroes in the rural districts is ignorance, among both Negroes themselves within such areas and among persons outside of such areas. It was formerly thought that the health of man was well taken care of by nature itself when he lived in the country. It was said that he breathed pure air, ate fresh food, drank limpid water, and evaded the attack of germs which made inroads on the health of people in urban communities. Most of the people of our day, however, have learned to question these assertions; but unfortunately the neglected Negroes in the rural communities have remained hampered by their ignorance of the laws of health. These peasants suffer thus because of the rather general custom of sleeping two to three together in the same bed with all their heads under cover to make up for lack of proper heating or insufficient blankets. It is a common thing for these people to keep the windows closed from the time the air first becomes chilled in the fall until the coming of warmer weather the following year. The cracks and holes in the walls of their huts and the frequent use of the door are often their only means of ventilation.
With respect to pure food the Negro in the country is far from being amply supplied. In the small farm districts of the upper South, where Negroes are independent farmers observing the need for a rotation of crops or working for small planters who do, the food supply is not much of a problem. Such farmers produce a large portion of the food they consume. However, in the sugar and cotton plantation districts of the lower South, where the one crop idea has not yet been uprooted, the Negro tenants and laborers must live on such food as is supplied to them by the plantation commissary; and their inadequate income together with the terrorism in vogue makes it impossible for the majority of such persons to improve their daily share. The average man must live on corn bread, fried fat bacon or pork, salt fish, molasses, hominy or rice occasionally, and coffee or tea along with sufficient sugar sometimes to make a little desert. Most of these things, except in the sugar districts, must be obtained elsewhere. The soil is rich enough to produce vegetables in abundance, but the time of the laborers is required in the production of cotton or sugar, and these things must be imported or foregone.

The water supply in such parts is often more of a problem than in the upper South. The alluvial plain does not give the water the same chance for purification which it has in the region of the artesian wells and flowing springs. Because of the flood conditions and tendencies toward sub-tropical diseases in the lowlands of the cotton and sugar districts, too, the water as well as the air tends to be more easily contaminated than in the case of the section farther north. These peasants' habits of living, moreover, are such that they know little about filtered water and seem to care less; and even if they did know, their limited time and small income would
often render its procurement impossible. Furthermore, as long as the water looks clear and does not have disagreeable taste, the uneducated Negro peasantry never thinks of it as being impure.

The attitude of these Negro peasants toward the much-talked of germs, too, is not dissimilar. Among them such theories have just begun to have a hearing, and few of them have been converted to such doctrines. The houses are usually without screens and the flies, mosquitoes, and other insects may have free access to the inner circle of the home. That these insects carry germs is known here and there, but the thought among many of them is still a theory. Under such circumstances, then, there is little impediment to the spread of diseases except such as nature itself provides. A little precaution is taken in the case of small pox or yellow fever, but few think seriously of the dangers of whooping cough, mumps, measles, scarlet fever, or tuberculosis. Gonorrhea and syphilis are often treated as lightly as ordinary complaints; for unfortunately these peasants do not know the importance of thorough treatment of these maladies according to modern discoveries. The range of these diseases in the rural districts is not so uncommon as people ordinarily believe them when thinking of the cities as "the only centers of vice." While open prostitution is not practiced in most rural districts as in urban communities, there are sufficient moral lapses to spread venereal diseases. The situation becomes alarming among such unsuspecting people when an infected prostitute returns from a sojourn in cities to her native rural district after having been deceived in thinking that "stolen waters are sweet and bread eaten in secret is pleasant."

One would naturally inquire here into the public health service to find out what the state is doing to prolong the lives of these people. With respect to the Negroes in the remote districts, it may be said that public
responsibility for health is almost as slow a development as education at public expense. For centuries many persons opposed the tax on property of citizens to educate the youth; and so far as the Negro is concerned, certain parts of the United States still maintain this position. The American people as a majority today, in the area of the dense Negro population, are still indifferent about the health of its Negro citizens. They are yet unable to understand that a country with a healthy people is naturally more prosperous than one of a diseased population.

Then when it comes to the question of further taxing the public, already burdened with a dual system for the education of the races separately, the health of the Negro must go without proper care. In the first place, the Negro rural teachers are underpaid, and, therefore, unprepared for their tasks. Those fortunate enough to obtain an education secure better positions in cities and towns. The Negro rural schools, then carry out an unintelligent health program. The lack of supervision by well trained directors employed in such members as to give attention to these remote districts presents another problem. At present the health program is being carried out largely in cities and towns in the well organized schools. Some teachers in rural schools do not see a supervisor of any sort more than once or twice a year. In many of the most backward districts such visits are not more frequent than one every two or three years; and even then the teacher receives practically no helpful suggestions as to how to improve his work; for unfortunately the supervising authority some times does not know as much about the task as the uninformed teachers.

Carrying out such a health program among Negroes has been hindered, too, by the lack of hospital facilities. In the remote districts there
are practically no hospitals for these unfortunate people. There were only
170 Negro hospitals in the South in 1930 and a few white institutions which
provided a number of beds for persons of the colored race. Sixteen of the
one hundred and twenty visited by Dr. A. B. Jackson in 1930 were of "A" grade,
fourty-three of grade "B", thirty of grade "C", twenty-seven of grade "D" or
unworthy of support, four not entitled to the name; and in some cases con-
ditions were so disheartening as to justify abolition. Of the 183 Negro
hospitals in the United States in 1930, only seven have been approved for
internship by the National Hospital Medical Association, and of the one
hundred or more Negro medical students completing their courses each year,
only about thirty or thirty-five could secure internship. The 170 Negro
hospitals in the South in 1930 had a total bed space of only sixty-five
hundred, or an average of one bed for each two thousand Negroes, while there
was one bed for every one hundred and fifty of the white population. This
situation has not changed very much since 1930. Every white patient has
fourteen times as good a chance for hospitalization as the Negro in the South.
In the case of tuberculosis the Negro has only one chance of twenty-five.
The death rate of the Negro, then, is remarkably low when we consider these
handicaps.

The general public is not interested in the extension of hospital
service, and the rural people themselves are too backward to appreciate
the use of hospitals. Among the Negroes and poor whites hospitals are often
unpopular. Many of them have never seen such institutions, and therefore
retain the notion that they are still poorly equipped asylums, kept like the
almhouses of old. When these peasants hear that a patient has been sent
to such a place, they abandon all hopes for his recovery and proceed to pray
for the repose of his soul. Hospitals among these people, then, must come as a slow development, both as a result of their poverty, and their ignorance, which makes the superimposition of the system a necessity.

There naturally arises the question as to the whereabouts of the country physician and his efficiency to cope with this rural situation. There is today one Negro physician for about every thirty-three hundred Negroes, whereas the whites have a physician for about every five hundred. The profession is undermanned to the extent that few Negro physicians extend their practice far into the outlying rural districts, and a still smaller number live beyond the limits of cities and towns. The Negroes in the rural districts are not able to pay for modern professional treatment; and even if they were, the prejudice against Negro physicians is often such that it is uncomfortable for them to dwell there. The Negroes in the remote districts then are generally dependent upon the casual visits or calls of white physicians or visiting Negro practitioners. In as much as most of those rural Negroes are found in that section of the country where race prejudice is most acute, the disinclination or the refusal of white physicians to attend promptly patients in dire distress may result in serious loss of life.

Knowing this to be the case, Negroes in the rural districts depend upon home remedies as much as possible. They understand the uses of such medicine as castor oil, salts, quinine, paregoric, and laudanum. They frequently fall back also on the use of water melon seed tea, the concoction made from sheep dung, sassafras, and home-made bitters produced from herbs. In such a case as childbirth, prenatal care is almost unknown, and a physician may not be called at all. The midwife often has complete charge. Sometimes, too, when a physician is available, these people, thinking that they know much more
about medicine than a trained advisor, fail to call for professional assistance until it is too late. When they are so fortunate as to make the proper diagnosis, however, speedy relief is often effected by hot applications and other home remedies. Friends and relatives must try their hand at the cure before they give up and appeal to the physician as the last resort; and even when the physician is attending the patient they may kill the sufferer with their interference with other applications.

Unfortunately, too, the country physician is generally inefficient. Unless the people upon whom he practices are much better off than the average rural folk, the practice does not afford sufficient income to attract a man who is well qualified. The best trained practitioners naturally go the those urban communities where they receive most for their services. They leave the unproductive rural districts for these backward, elderly men who have not kept pace with the profession, or for young men who may engage in practice in rural communities merely for the experience or because they cannot find an opening in a more profitable field. The older doctors know little about the up-to-date methods of treating diseases and the modern methods of preventive medicines. Both they and the younger doctors in the rustic situation, moreover, have not usually had the equipment of hospital facilities for practicing what they actually know. About as far as they go when visiting a patient is to inquire into his living habits, listen to the account of his complaint, look at his tongue, feel his pulse, and leave the stereotyped prescription.

Many diseased Negroes who happen to survive show all sorts of deformities. Bow-legs due to improper care in infancy; protruding teeth resulting from the failure to remove the milk teeth at the proper time; imperfect hearing due to lack of attention in serious sickness; and failing vision arising from unne-
necessary strain of the eyes are very common among rural Negroes. Other
deformities result from inherited diseases coming like afflictions of
sinful fathers visited unto the third and fourth generations. Society has
stood aloof and said it cannot be prevented. In this particular group
many say there is a predisposition to die prematurely, and the only thing
possible is to await the solution of the problem by time. A little hope
has been seen, however, in the awakening of the fact that germs develop in
the neglected Negro element of our population do not draw the color line,
and while they take their toll of those in whom the majority of public
functionaries may not be interested, they carry off also those whom they
deply regret to see pass away. The reason for unusual precaution in the
prevention of diseases, then, has been thoroughly convincing to the public
but the public conscience has not yet been adequately quickened to construct
a working program to include all or even the large majority of these
Negro people in the backwoods districts.

To meet these needs one finds here and there various suggestions to
improve the health of the Negro peasantry. The extension of hospital
service, of course, is desirable and there is a chance for a more general
use of those already available in the cities inasmuch as the improved roads
make the transportation easier. There is some effort to increase the
number of county nurses, but only in North Carolina has this idea been
actually translated into a program of action. Philanthropists have thought
of establishing health centers from which nurses and physicians may operate
as their base very much as the rural teachers do in the schools. The
late Julius Rosenwald, long interested in the Negro, appropriated a sum to
provide for thus extending such medical attention to Negroes. It is hoped
that Negroes themselves will become alive to the situation, and that the public will give its support in working toward an efficient health program to which this philanthropy points.

Suffrage Restrictions. The political aspects of the Negro problems in the South can be understood only by taking into account the number and distribution of the Negroes in that section. According to the 1930 census there were nearly 10,000,000 Negroes in the Southern states, 32% of the total population in the South. The Negroes constitute nearly a third in Georgia, Louisiana, and Florida. There were 264 counties in the South in 1930 in which Negroes predominated. These counties lay in the eastern section of Virginia and North Carolina, and the Tidewater and Piedmont section of South Carolina, central Georgia and Alabama and in the delta region of Mississippi and South Carolina. There were in 1930 six counties in Mississippi in each of which the whites formed less than ten per cent of the populations. There were in 1930 thirty-two counties in the South which had no Negro populations, of which twenty-eight were in Texas, two in Oklahoma, and one in Arkansas, and one in North Carolina. Mississippi contains more Negroes than all the states outside the South. If New England had 8,000,000 Negroes, her Negro population would be the same in proportion to the whites as that of Mississippi.

Everywhere the attitude toward the Negro reflects the proportion of Negroes in the population. In all the South the Negro population is large enough to be a disturbing factor in politics. Even in states where the Negroes constitute only one fourth of the population they outnumber the whites in some districts and counties and their aggregate vote would allow them to dominate those states if the white people should divide politically
about evenly. The white people of the South correctly understand Negro domination to mean the control of any state by a party whose predominant strength is in the solid Negro vote. Of course, in such a case the Negroes would not hold all the offices. The white politicians who manipulate the Negro vote would see to it that the Negroes got only the crumbs which fell from the political "pie counter", but the men in office would be merely the agents of the Negro, and that condition, as the experience of Reconstruction has demonstrated, would be vastly more dangerous to good government than the control of a state by a purely Negro party. To argue that there can be no Negro domination unless the Negroes hold offices is to trifle with facts of history, and such argument has not a feather's weight with the Southern whites. The so-called "Lily-White" movement among the white Republicans in the South is a recent effort of the party to eliminate Negro domination. They know that if the Negroes dominate the party respectable white people will shun it, and they hope by preventing control of the party, by the Negro, to win over a considerable number of the best white people whose sympathies would naturally be with the Republicans. In the upper South, where the Negro population is relatively small, the Republican party has among its leaders Negroes who in intellect and character rank with the best men of the South and their number will increase as the Negro domination of the party decreases. The white Republicans realize as fully as the Democrats the danger of Negro domination of a state or of a political party.

The Southern states, fearing the appeal of the radical movement to the Negro vote began the process of legislative nullification of the Fifteenth Amendment. Revising the electoral clauses of their constitutions, they
prescribed residential, educational, and tax requirements which shut out far more Negroes than whites.

The methods employed by the white people of the South to overthrow the Negro-carpet-bag regime during the Reconstruction period and to maintain control thereafter were such as to shock the moral sensibilities of the best class of white people, in spite of their conviction that such methods were the only means of preserving civilization. In order to dispense with these irregular, precarious methods, they advocated the enactment of franchise laws, conformable to the Federal and state constitutions, which would remove the Negro menace. The best lawyers in the several states gave oral and written opinions to the effect that suffrage qualifications could be enacted which would stand the test of the courts and have the effect of eliminating a large proportion of Negro voters.

Influenced by these legal opinions and the general desire of the best people to remove the racial disorders accompanying every election, the legislators in several of the Southern states set to work to frame restrictive franchise laws, or to provide for such laws by amendments to the state constitutions. The new laws restricting the suffrage were enacted in the following order: Mississippi, 1890; South Carolina, 1895; Louisiana, 1898; North Carolina, 1900; Alabama and Virginia, 1901; Georgia, 1909; and Oklahoma, 1910. Two more Southern states, Arkansas and Florida, have enacted such legislation since 1910.

The suffrage was restricted by the following requirements for voting:

1. The payment of taxes, i.e., a poll tax or other tax must have been paid. This is required in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Virginia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Georgia.
(2) The Ownership of Property. In Alabama a citizen must own forty acres of land, or personal property to the value of $300. In Georgia a citizen must own forty acres of land or property to the value $500. In Louisiana and South Carolina the citizens must own property to the value of $300. Mississippi, North Carolina, and Virginia have no property requirements.

(3) Ability to Read and Understand. In Alabama, South Carolina, and Mississippi the citizens must be able to read and understand the Constitution of the United States. In Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia and Oklahoma the citizen must give proof of his ability to read and write. The clauses requiring ability to read and write are so applied as to exclude the illiterate Negroes and not the illiterate whites. In North Carolina and Virginia, the literacy test is applied to both races, but the registers are more attentive to the literacy of Negroes than to that of the whites. The literacy and understanding tests are made to exclude a certain class of Negroes, not because of their color, but because the white Southerner feels that it is not safe to invest them with the power of the ballot.

(4) The Grandfather Clause. The famous "grandfather clause" of the Louisiana constitution of 1898 exempted from the new requirements which had been enacted by the State for the sole purpose of disqualifying the Negro to vote. All persons became qualified voters who had voted in the State before 1867 or were descended from such voters, thus reenfranchising the poor and illiterate whites. Not until 1915 did the Supreme Court disallow this clever annulment of the Fifteenth Amendment by declaring the grandfather clause in the Oklahoma constitution to be unconstitutional.
To come down to the real core of the matter, in South Carolina and Mississippi the Negroes outnumber the whites. Experience has shown that both races cannot govern jointly in these states. The white people believe that they are better able to govern than the Negro, and are determined to do it. They propose to have adopted lawful means of doing it. If every Negro in South Carolina and Mississippi could read and write and understand all of the constitutions in the world, the white people would not allow them to control their government, and in this respect, they are no different from the white people of any other state. If a majority of the people of California were Japanese, the fact that they could read and understand would not have a feather's weight against the determination of the white people of California to govern the state at all hazards. Or, if a majority of the people of Massachusetts were Negroes, the whites of that state would no more submit to Negro rule than the white people of South Carolina or Mississippi. They would prefer to retain white supremacy by some lawful expedient that would work.

Segregation by Race. The law of the several Southern states require separation of the races in public schools. Excepting Missouri, they also require separation in railroad cars, and excepting Missouri, Delaware, Maryland, and Kentucky, they require separation in street cars. The general policy in the South is to separate the Negroes from the whites in all public places where their mingling might, as the South believes, give "rise to disorder or prove a source of embarrassment to either race", and custom often sanctions separation cases where the law is silent.

The majority of Negroes raise no objection to separate schools, and do not altogether object to separation in other respects, provided they are furnished accommodations equal to those for the whites. In the matter of
railway transportation, the Negroes complain very loudly because they
are obliged to submit to inferior accommodations.

The Negro author, James D. Corrothers, in relating his experi-
ence on railways in the South, says:

Some separate cars, especially those on the Norfolk and
Western road are as clean and commodious as the coaches
reserved for white people. Even a smoking room is provid-
ed. But, too frequently, the separate Negro compartments
are without water, poorly ventilated, small and dirty.
Colored men and women are often required to use the same
toilet rooms; and white men, passing through the Negro car,
frequently light their cigars and smoke in the presence
of colored women. Usually only half a baggage car is par-
titioned off for the use of colored passengers; and over
two or three seats of that, the trains' newsboy will auda-
ciously spread his magazines, papers, and candy, and then
sit down on a half a seat himself, though colored passen-
gers are compelled to stand. The conductor will coolly
occupy two or three additional seats, checking up his accounts,
unperturbed by the discomfort of his Negro passengers.

More than once I have stood up while conductors sat, and
more than once I have ridden weary miles without one drop
of water. There was plenty of drinking water on the train,
but none in the Negro compartment. Once a kind conductor
allowed me to go into the white people's car to get a drink.

White people, however, are not entirely to blame for the bringing
about of these conditions in the South. Rowdy Negroes often board
the trains, full of bad whiskey, and bent upon a fight. They sit
down and drink more whiskey, parade through the car, insult respect-
able colored women and men, and make themselves not only nuisances
but positively dangerous, obscenely cursing, with pistols or knives
in their hands. It is no wonder that white Southern legislators
have sought by prohibitive laws to protect their own men and women

from such disgusting and dangerous displays of black savagery as this. Nevertheless, it is manifestly unfair to compel decent and intelligent colored people to be herded in a car with such creatures, unprotected, without human accomodations, and insulted by every ruffian on the train, whether white or black, simply because their faces are dark.

The most difficult problem in connection with racial separation in transportation is that of providing Pullman accomodations fairly for each race. Negroes are not usually allowed to ride in a Pullman occupied by white people in the South. And so few Negroes would ride in such a car, were it provided, that no railroad feels justified in putting one on for the Negroes. The result is that Negroes making long journeys, even if able to afford a berth in a Pullman car, have to sit up all night and nod in the day coach. Booker T. Washington used to solve the problems for himself by reserving the drawing room of a Pullman car. He would thus separate himself from white people, but would pay dearly for his night's lodging.

There are a number of well-to-do educated Negro men and women who would gladly pay for a berth in a Pullman car and their number would increase from year to year; and while it may be a long time before their number would justify the railroads in hauling on any train a Pullman car for colored people, the time has already arrived when something should be attempted in the direction of more comfortable night travel for the colored people.

The separation of the races on street cars is impracticable in large Southern cities. While the space allowed to each race is designated by a sign, the number of seats required by Negroes on some cars varies from
none to all on a single run, so that most of the time of the conductor is taken up in adjusting the seating. For instance, in the city of Memphis, I took a street car at the Union Station which was full of white people; when the car passed beyond the business districts, two-thirds of the passengers were Negroes, because the car passed through a Negro section; a mile or two farther on the passengers were again almost all white people. In that city, as also in St. Louis, Baltimore, and Louisville, there are certain cars on which a Negro is rarely seen and others on which their number varies greatly in each section traversed and at various hours of the day. Hence, in those cities there are no jim-crow cars. In cities not so large, while there is pretense of separating the races on cars, the practical difficulties are such that the Negroes and whites pile in and take seats where they can find them without regard to the jim-crow sign. Custom and mutual consideration, however, incline both races to sit apart when there is no crowding.

The Negroes in Southern cities generally have their own hotels, restaurants, theaters, and picture shows, drug stores, barber shops, beauty parlors, undertakers and mercantile establishments and it is rarely that any Negro in the South manifests a desire to enter a public place patronized by whites. In the Southern cities where there are public parks and public libraries Negroes have often justly complained because similar provisions were not made for them. For instance, Negroes are not permitted to use the public library in Pine Bluff, Arkansas, although the building was built and administered out of general city taxes, which all Negro property owners pay. If the Southern white people will offer to the Negroes adequate transportation accommodations,
adequate libraries and recreational facilities the prospect of an increasing harmony in civic relationships will be hopeful.

**Injustices against the Negro.** The institution of slavery in the South set limits to the Negro's rise also to the depth to which he could fall. Emancipation released him in both directions; it permitted the strong to climb up and the weak to sink lower. With the shackles of bondage broken, a large class of Negroes naturally gravitated toward their ancestral African level.

In Southern cities there is always some slummy Negro quarter in which there is a den of vice. Here the low class of Negro men and women congregate to gamble, dance, and revel in sexuality.

During the days of slavery the Negroes employed in domestic work lived on the premises of their master and mistress, and the intimacy of contact between them enable the Negroes to acquire by imitation the habits, standards, and moral sentiment of the whites. After emancipation the domestic servants continued for a while to live on the master's premises, occupying one of the old slave cabins, but gradually they took up their abode in the Negro quarter of the town where Negro children grew up entirely removed from the paternal oversight of white people. In these Negro quarters, the conditions are very unfavorable to the proper up-bringing of children; hence the youthfulness of the criminal class of Negroes.

The white people in the South not only believe that the Negro is much given to theft, but the more ignorant whites have a notion that Negro theft is inborn. As a matter of fact, neither the Negro nor any other race has an inherited tendency to crime. The only way in which the crime of the Negro is related to his inheritance is that his extrovert tem-
perament and his pronounced emotionalism predisposes him more to crime.

In regard to the crime of rape, enough is known to justify the statement that this crime is not more common among the Negro than among other races of the extrovert type. The percentage of Negroes who commit rape in the United States is less than the percentage for the Italians, Hungarians, Austrians, French, Russians, Poles, or Mexicans. While the percentage is small in any race, the crime itself is so heinous, however, that it fastens the stigma of criminality upon any race in which it is at all outstanding.

For the punishment of serious crimes such as rape or homicide, the white mob in the South has frequently resorted to lynching. The habit of lynching in the South, as in the West, has grown out of the scattered nature of the population, and remoteness of the average citizen from the arm of the law. In a big city one's first thought, upon witnessing or hearing a serious crime, is to call for the police. In the scattered population of rural regions where there is no police and the nearest sheriff is perhaps twenty miles away, one's first impulse is to grab his gun and go after the criminal. The people of the South live mostly scattered over vast areas or in small towns, and that is one of the chief reasons why some of the white people keep up the lynching habit. When the South comes to be made up of densely populated cities, an act of lynching will probably be as rare in the South as in any other section of the country. Not only is the practice of lynching favored by a sparsely settled country without effective police, but such a country is apt to have the kind of people who commit the kind of crime which provokes the lynching. In regions where the population is scattered and unsocial there are exceptional
opportunities and temptations for people criminally disposed, and the
crimes which they commit arouse the passions of the good people to an
extent that would be impossible in a dense population where the stim­
ulation to the passions is more frequent and diversified.

Lynching came to be common in the South soon after the Civil War.
It was provoked by the crimes committed by the Negro and by the failure
of the state governments to protect the persons and property of the white
people. During the Reconstruction period, the best white people being
disfranchised, the government of the states fell into the hands of Negroes,
carpetbaggers, and scalawags, and, while the white people were subjected
to every kind of outrage, including the wholesale burning of their homes
and barns, they had no redress through the law. A Negro jury would not
convict Negro criminals for an offense against a white man. So bad was
the situation in Elgerfield, South Carolina, that the citizens passed
resolutions stating that there was "no security for persons or property,
for Negroes and poor whites who act with them constitute a majority on
every jury so that it is impossible to convict one of their number no
matter how plain the evidence, and even if convicted he was promptly par­
doned by the infamous executive, Moses." To such an extent was this
carried during the Reconstruction period that Carpenter, a Republican
judge of the circuit court, announced that he would not permit the state
to be put to the expense of trying criminals who were pardoned as soon
as convicted. Lynching is an advertisement to the world that the peo­
ple of the United States are incapable of self-government, for no peo­
ple can be said to have the capacity of self-government, who are unable
to provide a legal redress for every wrong, or to defend the laws of their
own making.
While all studies agree that the Negro presents a sombre picture in crime and delinquency, they also agree that the appearance is probably worse than the fact, Negroes are arrested haphazardly for trivial offences, often on false charges and occasionally on no charges at all. Few of them can afford legal defense. The courts are apt to be prejudiced or careless in their commitment. Thus many more are arrested and convicted than would be case if they were treated with the same care and legal protection as their white neighbors.

A Negro living in Arkansas, went to Memphis to sell a mule. In the deal, he was cheated out of half of the price agreed upon, so he stayed around the mule market trying to get his mule or the money due him. The dealers called the police and pointed to them "that suspicious nigger loitering around the place." The Negro was arrested and searched and a pistol was found on him. He was dragged off to the city jail and, on the charge of carrying an unlawful weapon, was sentenced to one year in the Tennessee State Penitentiary. On appeal to the Supreme Court the decision was completely reversed and both the arrest and search declared illegal. The error was corrected in this case. But in most instances the carelessness and brutality never come to public notice, and thousands of victims fill the courts and jails who are guilty of no offence - except of having colored skin.

But after every allowance is made, the Negro's criminal record is bad. It is so great a menace to law and order that every effort should be made to correct it. The best corrective is likely to be improved conditions of living. A Birmingham judge has said that no colored boy who had reached the sixth grade had ever been brought into his criminal court.
Where parks and playgrounds are available, the delinquency rate drops. Crime is coming to be recognized as almost directly due to environment as disease is. In the case of the Negro, the correlation between bad living conditions and lawlessness is striking. As in the case of disease, it behooves the community to improve the Negro's environment and so protect itself from his crime.

Fear and hatred of Negroes have expressed themselves in violence/emotional explosions called lynchings. During the half-century in which statistics have been kept, more than five thousand persons have been put to death by mobs in this country. Colored men have not been the only victims. During this period 1438 white men and 92 women of both races have been killed by mob violence.

It is impossible to describe the bestiality of lynching in publications for general reading in a supposedly civilized country. On the other hand one can form no idea of the terrible social cancer that lynching has become without learning, at least, in the less obscene detail, what the facts are. Tortures and perversions are rife in these gruesome orgies. Often the burning alive of the victim is preceded by disfigurement with red hot irons, the chopping off of fingers and feet with axes, the dragging for miles at the tail of an automobile the poor victim amid the shouts of a gloating populace. Death is often followed by further mutilation and dismemberment.

The burning of Henry Lowry of Arkansas proceeded by inches. Leaves soaked in gasoline were heaped about in small bundles so that torture would be dragged out. Ralph Roddy, a reporter, described the entire orgy in the Memphis Press of January 27, 1921. He was able to cover the
story because plans for the lynching had been made well in advance and the newspapers notified to be ready to issue extras. When Henry Smith was burned at the stake in Texas, excursion trains were run for the event and many women and children were in the throng that gloated over the sufferings of the victim. Mary Turner, almost at the point of childbirth, was hanged and burned in Georgia simply because she threatened to report the white murderers of her husband.

In popular thinking the lynching of Negroes is always connected with attacks on white women. Prejudice is thus inflamed and the system excused because of the heinous offence which is supposed to have occurred. But, as a matter of record, in only a small proportion of lynching has there been even the slightest suspicion of a sex offence. J. A. Cutler in his careful study published in 1905 under the title, Lynch Law reported that of 2,060 Negroes lynched between 1882 and 1903, only 707 were even charged with the crime of rape, either attempted, alleged, or actually committed. A survey entitled "Thirty Years of Lynching in the United States, 1889-1919" published by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, reveals that of 2,522 Negroes lynched during that period, only 477, or nineteen per cent, were charged of rape. It is astonishing how the tradition persists that attacks on white women are the only occasions for lynching. Actually hundreds of Negroes have been put to death for the most trivial offenses, such as talking back to a white man, testifying against whites, destruction of property, threatening to sue a white man, allowing dogs to chase white men's sheep. F. B. Baker was lynched in South Carolina for accepting the office of postmaster, and John Collins for enticing a white man's servant to leave.

There may be an element of a perverted conscience in the white man's
violent anxiety to protect white female purity. His own crimes against colored women may have given him an unholy sensitiveness. During slavery the colored girl was defenceless in the presence of her white master and his friends, and even in our day the Negro girl is all but helpless before the advances of white men in the more primitive plantations and villages. A glaring evil of the whole caste system is that any Negro, however intelligent, cultivated, or prosperous, is at the mercy of any white man, however ignorant or disreputable. The president of a university or the director of a bank may be insulted with the impunity by the lowest white.

It is unsporting and unbecoming for people as convinced of their superiority as Americans are, to continue to demand heavy odds in a struggle with a race they declare to be inferior. Except for a few poor whites, this great nation of a hundred and ten million white people is surely no longer afraid of a tenth of that number of Negroes. They have no reason to hate them for they brought them here and they have responded to their demands as best they could with labor, and also with song and pictures as gifts to American folkways. As a nation which prides itself on its sportsmanship can the whites, with any face, justify the terrible odds and handicaps which they have allowed custom to build up against their darker neighbors?

The white mobs, when not engaged in lynching, frequently commit outrages upon the Negro of a less drastic but equally cruel and unjust character. They inflict bodily injury upon him, destroy his property, deprive him of the opportunity to work, and in some instances drive him out of the country. The class of white people who do these wrongs to the Negro is the class who lead the lynchings. They are generally small
landholders, tenants in rural districts and, in the towns. Small prop-
erty of the Negro excites their envy, and having to compete with him a-
roused their resentment. They pride themselves on their antipathy to
the Negro, vie with each other in the number of grievances they have a-
gainst him, and are ever ready to settle matters by the methods of the
bully.

To mention a few illustrations: In a certain county in Georgia
the white people, who did not want a Negro neighbor, wrote a letter to
the white owner of the tenant house saying, "you had better keep Negroes
out of this house of yours; if you don't, everything you have will be
burned down to the ground." In another county a white mob sent a note
to the foreman of a gang of Negro railway workers, stating; "that if they
(the Negroes) continued to work while white men wanted jobs, they (the
foreman and Negroes) would be mobbed."

In many of the mountain counties of the South, where slavery has
never existed, the white people have tried to keep the Negroes out entirely.
In several instances where Negroes have invaded their counties the white
mob has burnt their churches, schools, and homes. The usual procedure
of the whites is to notify the Negroes to leave the county in a certain
number of days, and if they do not heed the notice, the mob gathers and
runs them out.

The recent development of the Ku Klux Klan, which has spread over
the entire United States, appears to have been greatly concerned with the
Negro. The worst that can be said of its influence in the South is that
it has intensified race prejudice among a class of people who already
have too much of it.

Race riots, as distinguished from lynchings, are violent outbreaks
in which one or both races develop the mob spirit. A single individual may initiate the disturbance, but the outcome is the assembling of angry groups of each race against the other.

The riot of greatest magnitude in the South during the past thirty-five years was the so-called Atlanta riot in 1906. According to a northern man's version of it, "A lame boot-black, an inoffensive industrious Negro boy, at that moment actually at work shining a white man's shoes, was dragged out and cuffed and beaten to death with jack-knives in the most unspeakable, horrible manner. The mob entered barber shops where respectable Negro men were customers, pulled them away from their chairs and beat them. Cars were stopped and inoffensive Negroes were thrown through the windows or dragged out and beaten. They demolished Negro barber shops and restaurants and robbed stores kept by white men. Not a criminal was touched by the riot. Its victims were all law-abiding and industrious citizens. Two white men and sixty colored were injured.

Peonage in the South. An examination of the practice of peonage will reveal further injustices against Negroes in the South. The term peonage, as used in the South, has grown out of court practice which was solely humanitarian in its motive and was designed especially to favor Negro offenders. When white people are fined for minor offense in the South, they usually are able to raise money from some relative or friend and thus avoid going to jail. In order to give the Negro an equal opportunity to escape a jail sentence, laws were made which provided that persons unable to pay a fine might be bound out or bailed out to any one who

would pay the fine. Under these laws Negro offenders have been bailed to any man who needed their labor, and have been deprived of their freedom until the fine was worked out.

Peonage developed as a most natural consequence of things in the agricultural South. The planters constitute a borrowing class. It is customary for financial institutions to advance for a year sufficient money to cover the expenses of the landlord and his tenants, the amount being determined on the basis of one tenant for each twenty acres; the landlord, then, must hold his tenants by fair or foul means. If they desert him, he is bankrupt. Authority, therefore, must be maintained with overseers using whips and guns to strike terror to the tenants who are kept down in the most debased condition. Negro women are prostituted to the white "owners" and drivers; and children are permitted to grow up in ignorance with no preparation for anything but licentiousness and crime.

Legal sanction of peonage is found in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, and North and South Carolina. The Supreme Court of the United States undertook to put an end to this illegal practice in 1911 by declaring the Alabama law unconstitutional. But in the many districts, where there is no healthy public opinion to the contrary or where the employer is generally a law unto himself, peonage has continued in spite of the feeble effort of the Federal Government to eradicate the evil.


* The illegality of peonage was proved by the case of Bailey vs. the State of Alabama, in which the State law was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in 1911.
Peonage, by its very nature, offers the opportunity for a class of unprincipled white men to exploit the Negro, and, in the last twenty-five years many instances of such exploitation have come to light, accompanied in some cases by unbelievable cruelties, and even by murder of the Negro victims. In a pamphlet issued by Governor Hugh M. Dorsey of Georgia in 1921, there are enumerated twelve such cases of peonage. The worst case in the history of the system came to light in the spring of 1921, when John S. Williams, a planter in Jasper County, Georgia, was indicted for wholesale murder of Negro men whom he had held in peonage. He had made a practice of bailing out prisoners from Atlanta and Macon stockades and putting them to work on his plantation. Here he retained them unlawfully, beat them unmercifully, and, to prevent the victims from telling on him, began to put them to death and hide their corpses. The trial brought out the fact that eleven Negroes had been put to death on the Williams plantation; six of them had been thrown into a river and five buried on the plantation. The farm boss, a Negro, Clyde Manning, confessed that, under the directions of Williams, he had done most of the killings. The trial attracted national attention and ended in the 12 sentencing of Williams and Manning to life imprisonment.

A Georgia law under which Negroes could be arrested and convicted upon the charge of fraudulent intent in violating any labor contract has enabled white landlords to perpetrate many outrages upon Negro tenants and wage workers. For example, a white man in a county in Georgia had a Negro boy arrested for failing to comply with his contract. The boy had been

13 Code Section, p. 715-16, State of Georgia.
drafted for service in the United States Army and had served fifteen months, and he pleaded that his service caused him to break his contract. A well-to-do Negro farmer was in the act of signing the boys’ bond, which the sheriff was willing to accept, when the white accuser in rage said, “no nigger shall help another nigger to beat me out of my money,” and fired two shots into the Negro farmer, who, however, recovered from the wounds. The white culprit was convicted of "shooting at another," and sentenced to six months in jail or a fine of $300." He was released upon the payment of the fine.

The injustices and outrages which some Negroes have suffered in various localities in the South have been the outcome partly of unavoidable and partly avoidable conditions. As we have said, the isolation of the people by reason of their distribution in small towns and scattered rural homesteads has not been favorable to an effective police system or to respect for law, and has been also unfavorable to the dissemination of education and general enlightenment. Southern legislatures, for the most part, have been dominated by a capitalist class of small farmers, and the laws have been made in the interest of that class with scant recognition of the rights of the tenant or wage worker. Then, too, the presence of a large number of impecunious and ignorant Negroes offers exceptional opportunity for any unprincipled white person to take advantage of them, and, unfortunately for the Negro, the number of unprincipled white persons has not been too few.

Peonage in its worst form developed in the chain gang. The unusual

14 Jerome Dowd. op cit. p. 133.

15 Jerome Dowd. Ibid. p. 134.
prosperity of the country and, of course, of the South during the World War necessitated a large labor force. To supply this need it became customary to fall back on convict labor. The first step in such peonage was the benevolent practice of the white men who would volunteer to pay the fines of Negroes convicted of minor crimes, and thus get them out of jail. The next step was to assure, by physical restraint, the working out of the debts thus incurred. Finally, came the cooperation of justice, constable, and other officials in providing a supply of this forced labor by law.

In many cases, too, white as well as black men have been arrested on flimsy charges, fined and let out to labor camps to work out their fines. There are cited cases when the employer present encouraged the defendant to plead guilty with the encouragement that he would pay his fine and take him into his employ to work it out. A written acknowledgment of the debt is secured from the victim in which he agrees to work for the person paying the fine.

Although the state laws authorizing peonage were declared unconstitutional nearly thirty years ago, the Federal Government is powerless in the South in the protection of the Negroes in the enjoyment of citizenship. The planters, moreover, are generally a law unto themselves. The planters enforcing peonage do not think seriously of public opinion as a restraining force. If a man of influence in the cotton or sugar section wants to violate a law, he can usually find some way to do it.

When all of the cases of injustices to Negroes are summed up, however, the fact remains that they are a small fraction of the 9,000,000 or more Negroes who live in the South. In every community in the South there are some white people who not only disdain to take advantage of the Negro
but go out of their way to help him. They often lend him money and make concessions to him upon terms which they would not make, in some cases, to a white person. This does not imply, however, that the Southern whites have done as much as they could or should to help and protect their darker neighbors.

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DISCRIMINATION IN NEGRO EDUCATION

There were three and one-half million Negro school children in the United States, 5 to 17 years of age inclusive, in 1937. Relatively too few persons, including Negroes themselves, have any real conception of the struggle which this sizable segment of our population has been through in making secure anything approximating an equitable educational opportunity, guaranteed as the inalienable right of every American child. Despite the rather clearly-stated conditions under which separate schools may operate, school authorities either through direct violations or evasion of the law maintain separate schools to the admitted disadvantage of the Negro.

Physical Plants of Common Schools. The physical plants of the Negro separate schools are almost invariably inferior to those of the white schools in the same communities. It is estimated that there are 25,000 separate Negro elementary schools buildings in the country, and some 600 separate high-school buildings. More than three-fourths of the elementary schools are one or two room structures. And, despite the building of more than 5,000 school buildings with the aid of the Rosenwald Fund, the typical Negro elementary school buildings is still a ramshackle, dilapidated affair sadly in need of replacement.

16 Data used were taken from the American Teacher (March, 1937) p. 24-27.
Nor are there enough of these to house the Negro pupils enrolled in school. A fairly recent survey (1932) showed that 48 per cent more classrooms than are now provided would have to be built if Negro pupils now enrolled in school were to be housed to the extent that white pupils in the same communities are. Moreover, the value of school plants (1937) for each pupil enrolled in school was $37 for each Negro pupil, and $157 (or more than four times as much) for each white child enrolled in school. It would take $242,200,000 just to bring the physical plants of Negro common schools up to the level of the white school plants in the same communities, even on the basis of pupils enrolled in school, to say nothing about providing for those who ought to be in school but are not.

Length of School Term. Not only has the length of the Negro common school term rarely equaled the white school term in the same community, but it was relatively shorter by one half month in 1932 than it was in 1910. In 1910, the average length of the Negro school term was 5½ months; that of the white school term in the same community, 6½ months or one month longer. In 1932, the Negro school term was 6¾ months; the white, 8½ months or 1½ months longer.

Public School Teachers. Separate Negro schools not only have poorer buildings and equipment and shorter school terms than the white schools in the same communities, but proportionately fewer teachers are provided to teach the Negro pupils enrolled. In 1900, 29 per cent more teachers were provided in the white elementary schools than were provided for the same numbers of pupils in the Negro elementary schools in the same communities. In 1930, 38 per cent more teachers were provided in the white
schools. Thus, instead of a bad situation improving, it has grown relatively worse.

In general, Negro teachers are less well trained than white teachers in the same communities. One would, therefore, expect Negro teachers in general to be paid a smaller salary than white teachers. But one would also expect the Negro teacher to be paid in accord with her training and level of work. This, however, is not the case. The Negro elementary school teacher, although she has 70 per cent as much training and teaches 38 per cent more pupils, nevertheless receives only 47 per cent as much salary as the white elementary teacher.

In 1900, the difference between white and Negro teachers' salaries was only $56; in 1930 the difference was $378, despite the fact that the training of the Negro teacher more nearly equalled that of the white teacher in 1930 than in 1900. Again, a bad situation grows still worse.

**Provision for High Schools.** The National Survey in 1932 found 230 counties in which there was at least one high school for whites in each of these counties, yet in not one of them was there a single high school for Negroes. And this, despite the fact that 158,939 Negro pupils of high school age lived in these counties and despite the fact that in no county was the Negro population less than one-eight of the total population. Moreover, even where high schools are provided, similar differences in school equipment, number and training of teachers, and in length of school term are found, as were observed in the case of the elementary school.

**Common School Expenditures.** In 1930, the per capita expenditure for each white child in common schools was $44.31; for each Negro child,
$12.57. Some 252% more money was spent on each white child enrolled in school, with a range of 28.5% more in Oklahoma to 731.9% in Mississippi. Five states (Ala., Fla., Ga., N. C., and S. C.) spent more than three times as much money ($5,055,846) merely to haul white pupils to and from high school as was spent ($1,667,144) on all the Negro high schools in these states for everything, teachers' salaries, equipment, operation of plant, etc. In 1934-35, Louisiana spent more money ($1,816,266) merely to haul 121,341 white pupils to and from common school than it spent $1,749,427) for both current expenses and capital outlay on the entire common school education of all the 172,629 Negro pupils enrolled in school.

But even more significant, the disparity in per capital expenditures upon white and Negro schools had progressively increased rather than decreased. In 1900, only 48 per-cent more money was spent on each white child enrolled in school; in 1930, 252% more was spent. Even in states such as Texas and North Carolina this same trend is found. In 1905, the disparity in Texas was only 26%; but by 1920, it had increased to 142%; and had reached 155% in 1930. There is no question but that Negroes receive less of an equitable share of school funds now than they did in 1900.

Higher Education. Although the population ratio is only 3 to 1 (68% whites; 32% Negro) nevertheless the Southern states provide college education for white students at state expense in the ratio of 16 to 1. Moreover, in these states there is not a single state-supported institution where a Negro may pursue recognized graduate or professional work, yet some 15,000 white students receive such training at state-supported institutions. However, six of these states, Oklahoma, Missouri, Kentucky,
Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia have passed laws providing for the financial aid of Negro students thus deprived. But the small pittance generally provided serves more as a means to allow the state to escape the law than it does as an honest substitute for excluding Negroes from their legal right.

How Educational Discrimination Is effected

In general, the same methods are used to effect educational discriminations as are employed in other phases of Negro life-discriminatory legislation, evasion and violation of law, intimidation, and the like.

Discriminatory Legislation. This method of discrimination is of two types. The first type arises because a differential in the educational provisions for whites and Negroes is written into the law itself. For example, the Public School Laws of Maryland make the following provisions regarding salaries of county teachers: "No white teacher regularly employed in a public school of the State of Maryland, holding a first grade certificate, shall receive a salary of less than nine hundred and fifty dollars ($950) per school year.....No teacher regularly employed in the public schools for colored children in the State of Maryland, holding a first grade certificate, shall receive a salary of less than sixty-five ($65) per month....Thus by law a lower minimum salary is set for Negro teachers in Maryland.

The second type of discrimination through legislation consists in framing school laws so as to permit discrimination without actually writing it into the law. The Mississippi salary law (1928) is a good

example of this type of legislation. The law provides that teachers with a third-grade certificate shall receive a salary between $20 and $30 a month; those with a second-grade certificate, between $30 and $40 a month; and those with a first grade certificate, between $30 and $150 a month. Observe that no distinction between the races is made in the wording of this law as is the case in Maryland, although its practical operation has the same effect. Under this law a Negro teacher with a first grade certificate may be paid as small a salary as a white teacher with a third grade certificate, while a white teacher may be paid five times as much as a Negro with the same training, certification, and work. It is needless to state that this is exactly what happens in many instances.

Discrimination in Violation of Law. This probably is the method employed most frequently to impose discriminations. Numerous illustrations might be given but one or two must suffice.

First, illegal discrimination in regard to high schools and colleges has already been pointed out.

Second, state funds are generally distributed to the various county or district units on the basis of the number of children of school age in the particular educational unit regardless of race. In Louisiana in 1932-33, for example, each one of the 66 parishes received $6 from the State for every child of school age in the parish, white and Negro alike. In addition, the school districts of the parish supplemented this fund of $6 per child from local revenues. At the end of the school year it was found that 47 of these parishes spent less than half the money (4.8%) on each Negro pupil enrolled in school than they actually received from the state fund by virtue of the presence of Negro children in the parishes.
Exclusions of Negroes from Positions of Authority. Negro common schools, like all other American common schools, are controlled by state, county, district, and city boards of education, and to some extent, by state, county and city school superintendents. Superintendents and boards of education are either elected by the people or appointed by someone who holds office through election. With few exceptions in large urban centers, Negroes in the South, either because of "custom" or for other well-known reasons, do not vote. Nor are they frequently appointed or selected as members of school boards. The same situation obtains in the case of superintendents; there are practically no Negro county, city, or state school superintendents.

MOTIVES UNDERLYING DISCRIMINATION

The basic motives underlying the educational discrimination imposed upon Negroes are two-fold.

Lack of Funds. The South is unable financially to support one system of public schools, yet it attempts to maintain two. Education, being mainly a state function, is dependent upon the resources of the several states. The South is poor in wealth but rich in children. The average per capital wealth of the South in 1930 was $1,785 as compared with $3,609 for the rest of the country. The South also has 20 per cent more children. Moreover, the South expends just as large a proportion of its funds for education as the other states. And yet, if all the money for education were spent on white children alone, the school systems of the Southern states would still be at the end of the list. In such a situation, the school officials in the South, who are almost invariably white, have diverted school funds as far as possible from Negro schools to white schools.
"Keeping the Negro in His Place." The second motive underlying discrimination is the main one, "Keeping the Negro in his place." The Negro's "place" is a rather indefinite status, but always inferior to the whites in the same community. Unfortunately the white masses of the South have been led to believe that they can raise their own status by degrading the status of the Negro.

**Effects of Educational Discrimination.** As might be expected, the discrimination in educational opportunity which the Negro suffers in the separate schools is reflected in a correspondingly lower educational and social status. Just a few examples will suffice to illustrate some of the effects of these discriminations.

First, the Negro school term is 1½ months shorter than the white school term is in the same community. The Negro is compelled to take 9½ years to complete the same curriculum that the Southern white child has an opportunity to complete in 8 years. The result of this situation is seen in the fact that in 1922, 17.9 per cent fewer Negro pupils were above the fifth grade as compared with the white pupils in the same community, and in 1932, 19 per cent fewer Negroes were so enrolled thus, indicating that Negro pupils were 17.9 per cent more retarded than the white pupils in 1922 and 19 per cent more retarded on 1932. (Note the increase).

Second, attention has been called to the fact that not only are Negro high school facilities very inferior when they are provided, but in many instances no high school opportunity is provided at all. Obviously, this situation reduces the educational level of the Negro group correspondingly. In 1910 two and one-third times as many white pupils
of high school age were enrolled in high schools as Negroes of high age in the same communities; in 1932, almost three and one-third times as many whites as Negroes were enrolled in high school. The same sort of situation exits on the college level. In 1932, there were 4 times as many white college students in the South in proportion to the total white population of the South as there were Negro college students on a similar basis; and 5½ times as many white graduates as Negro college graduates on the same basis. One can easily imagine the handicap that Negroes must suffer in any competition which required educational competence.

Third, in 1930, 19.7 per cent of the Negroes 10 years old and over in the South could not read and write, as compared with 3.7 per cent of the Southern whites of the same age. Even in the school-age group of 10 to 14 the proportion was about the same. 6.1 per cent of the Negro children in the South of this age group were illiterate as compares with 1.3 per cent of the white children in the same communities.

Illiteracy statistics indicate definitely the differential effect of various types of school opportunity. In the North where Negroes have access to much better schools opportunities, less then 1 per cent (.4%) of the Negro children 10-14 years old are illiterate. This is considerably less than the illiteracy rate (1.3%) of white children of the same age level in the South. Not only is this true of illiteracy but also of other measures. Where Negroes have school opportunities that approximate the whites we find their educational status correspondingly approximates that of the whites. Where the school opportunities of Negroes are lower, we find Negroes' educational correspondingly lower.
A Comparative Summary of Educational Expenditures in Eleven Southern States. The best comparative summary of present educational costs is provided in a pamphlet published by Fred McQuiston, agent for the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This summary indicates that in 1937-38 the Negro child receives 37 per cent of the amount to which he is entitled on the basis of an equal distribution of public funds.

SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES IN COLORED SCHOOLS IN 1937-38

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total Expended on Negro Schools</th>
<th>Additional Amount on Equal Basis</th>
<th>Percentage of Equal Expenditures Received by Negros</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>$1,964,542</td>
<td>$3,515,964</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>1,443,306</td>
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<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>1,302,623</td>
<td>2,881,090</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1,667,884</td>
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<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
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<td>5,028,664</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>2,230,857</td>
<td>912,928</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>1,583,541</td>
<td>6,015,099</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>4,086,792</td>
<td>4,409,217</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>1,657,544</td>
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<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>1,718,854</td>
<td>6,056,927</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>3,263,821</td>
<td>4,020,443</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total $23,461,959 $39,688,052 37

If any satisfaction is to be drawn from these figures it is from the fact that the eleven states with separate schools systems spent $23,461,959 in 1937-38 for Negro education, which is little more than one third (37%) of what should have been spent on the basis of the Negro population in those states. But, as we have seen, the South is less able than any other sections, financially, to support the cost of education. To make matters more serious, the South has assumed the obligation of supporting two separate schools systems. In the end, both systems suffer.
average expenditure for each pupil for education in the nation at large was $99 in 1934. For white children in the South it was $44.31 and for Negro children $12.57, or about a fourth of the amount expended on white children in the South and one-eighth of the amount expended on the average for children in the country as a whole.

The disproportion in expenditures varies by states. In Mississippi the amount spent for each white child, 6-18 in 1937-38, was $45.34 and for each Negro child, $5.45. It is estimated that the Negro child in the deep South has about one-fifteenth of the educational opportunity of the average American child. Because it has a bearing upon the type of Negro teacher available for the Negro child and the income of Negroes generally, it should be mentioned that the average annual salary of white teachers in 1930 was $901 and of Negro teachers, $433. Thus for the same, or, in some instances an even greater volume of work, the Negro teacher receives somewhat less than 47 per cent of the salary of the white teacher.

THE NEED OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION FOR THE MASSES OF NEGROES

To prove the value of the industrial education for the masses of Negroes, let us take a brief examination of the educational philosophy of the late Booker T. Washington:

Booker T. Washington's Idea. Over fifty years ago there came forward a Negro with a new idea. He said to his race: "Cast down your bucket where you are." In other words, the Negroes must work out their sal-

Adapted from a table in "Financing Schools in the South," by Fred McQuiston, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Chicago, p.18. 1934.

Computed from the total amount spent on white education divided by the total white school population, 6-18 inclusively in 1937-38. The same procedure was followed in determining the expenditure for each Negro child.
vation in the South. He was a native of Virginia. He had been trained at Hampton Institute and under adverse circumstances had founded a school at Tuskegee, in Alabama, which afforded him the opportunity to study Negroes in all their aspects. Washington's pleas were: "live at home; take a load of produce to town to exchange for those items that you can not raise; keep a year round garden, a pig, a cow and raise some fruit; start a bank account; put aside a little money each year until you get enough to buy a piece of land, even if it is but an acre." Seeing that the need of the Negro was a foundation in things economic, he came forward with the bold advocacy of industrial education of Negroes "in those arts and crafts in which they are now employed and in which they must exhibit greater efficiency if they are to compete with the white men." The world had heard this before from Pestalozzi, Owen, Douglas and Armstrong, but never before had an educator so expounded this doctrine as to move millions. This man was Booker T. Washington.

The Atlanta Address. This celebrated pronunciamento of Washington was well set forth in his address at the Atlanta Exposition in 1895. His educational theory and practice have not since ceased to be a universal topic. He insisted that since the Negroes had to toil they should be taught to toil skillfully. He did not openly attack higher education for Negroes, but insisted that in getting an education they should be sure to get some of that which they could use. In other words, the only education worth while is that which reacts on one's life in his peculiar situation. A youth, then, should not be educated away from his environment, but trained to lay a foundation for the future in his present situation, out of which he may emerge into something above and beyond his
Washington's Plan Accepted. Washington's plan was received by the white people in the South as a safe means by which they could promote Negro education along lines different from those followed in the education of the white man. They desired to make education mean one thing for the whites and another for the Negroes. The North was at first divided on the question. The sympathetic class felt that such a policy would reduce the Negroes as a whole to a class of laborers and thus bar them the higher walks of life through which the race must come to recognition and prominence. The wealthy class of whites in the North took the position that there was much wisdom in Washington's policy.

With the encouragement which they have given his industrial program, with the millions which they have endowed Tuskegee and Hampton Institutes and with the support given the many other schools established on that basis, they have brought most northern people around to their way of thinking.

Opposition to Washington. With exception of a small minority, the Negroes, however, regarded this policy as a surrender to the oppressors who desired to reduce the whole race to menial service, and they proceeded militantly to attack Washington. They branded him with the opprobrium of a traitor to his people. In the course of time, however, the South, following the advice and example of Washington, reconstructed its educational system for Negroes and began to supply these schools with faculties recommended by men interested in industrial education and too often by Washington himself. The South thus gradually elevated to leadership many Negroes who, in standing for industrial education, largely increased the support of Washington among his people. When, moreover, this influ-
ence as an educator extended into all ramifications of life, even into politics, to the extent that Washington dictated the rise and fall of all Negroes occupying positions subject to the will of the whites, that constituency was so generally increased that before he died there were few Negroes who dared criticize him in public or let it be known that they were not in sympathy with his work.

Trotter and Du Bois. Against this policy, however, there have always stood forth some Negroes who would not yield ground. The most outspoken among these were W. M. Trotter and W. E. B. Du Bois. These men had the idea that the first efforts to secure recognition for the Negro must come through agitation for higher education and political equality. What they demanded for the Negro was the same opportunity, the same, treatment, generally given the white men. To accept anything less meant treachery. Feeling that Washington's position was a compromise on these things, they persistently denounced him from the rostrum and through the press in spite of the great sacrifices which they thereby suffered. Du Bois lost the support of white friends who can not understand why all Negroes do not think alike, and Trotter suffered unusual humiliation because he undertook, by lawful means, to break up one of Washington's meetings in Boston. This agitation has exhibited evidences of unusual vitality. It has given rise to widely circulated organs which stand for equal opportunities — in short for a square deal for all men regardless of race, color or previous condition of servitude. One of these, "The Crisis", is now a self-supporting popular magazine with a circulation of almost 100,000. It is the organ of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, a movement launched by the remnant of the abo-
An Unjust Criticism. Washington's long silence as to the rights of the Negro, however, did not necessarily mean that he was in favor of the oppression of the race. He was aware of the fact that the mere agitation for political rights at that time could not have been of much benefit to the race, and that their economic improvement, a thing fundamental in real progress, could easily be promoted without incurring the disapproval of the discordant elements of the South. He may be justly criticized for permitting himself to be drawn into certain entanglements in which he of necessity had to make some blunders. As an educator, however, he stands out as the greatest of all Negro Americans, the only man in the Western Hemisphere who has succeeded in effecting a revolution in education. A few centuries hence, when this country becomes sufficiently civilized to stand the truth about the Negro, history will record that Booker T. Washington, in trying to elevate his oppressed people, so admirably connected education with the practical things of life that he effected such a reform in the education of the world as to place himself in the class of the world's great educators. Seeing that the white people have realized that industrial education is not only a good thing for the Negro but a blessing to the white man, the Negroes as a whole have little to say now against his educational policy. The whites have accordingly proceeded to spend millions of dollars for buildings and equipment to secure these advantages to their youth. Washington's advocacy of industrial education, moreover, in spite of all that has been said, was not a death blow to higher education for the Negro. The movement has lived in spite of opposition. Washington himself frequently stated that in-
Industrial education, as he emphasized it, was for the masses of the people who had to toil. Knowing that the race had to have men to lead it, he did not object to higher education. Today Hampton and Tuskegee and the Negro land-grant colleges, the exponents of this idea, are offering college courses and may soon be recognized as universities.

Washington's Educational Principles Accepted by the Negro Land-Grant Colleges. Today we read much of the "Activity School," frequently called the "New School." We are informed of such programs of education in America, England, and France. Yet, over fifty years ago, Booker T. Washington started Tuskegee Institute. A few years later he published a simple narrative of the school's organization and activities in the book called Working With The Hands. The Material found in this informal exposition, and later developments at Tuskegee, show the progressive theories of its founder in action - such theories as are now accepted the world over by leading educators and the most progressive schools.

An attempt is here made to (1) formulate and organize the views of this educator in the light of so called modern educational philosophy and (2) to give specific cases of their application. Booker T. Washington tells us that because it was his ambition to make the school a real service to his people, he studied their living conditions by traveling in rural districts. Here, he slept in their cabins, ate their food, and talked with them about their interest in general. He brings out the idea that we cannot build a race by beginning at the top anymore than we can build a house by beginning at the top. Other evidences of his technique for the determination of the Tuskegee curriculum reveals itself in two
great questions which he set up. These questions, he writes, were inspired by his personal knowledge of the lives of the first students who came to Tuskegee. The questions were:

(1) What will these young people find to do on returning home?
(2) What industries do they and their parents depend on for self support?

He tells us that the answers to these queries were not always to his liking, but what he might have wanted to have them do was one thing, and what they were actually doing was still another. Therefore, what they were actually doing was what he decided to base the activities of Tuskegee upon. He describes how, as a result of close study of facts and figures, he found that the larger number of students came from farms. These facts convinced him of the great necessity of teaching the intelligent use of hands plus brains on the farm, "not theorizing but practical effort."

There was a need of intrinsic matter and method - need of desirable attitudes, habits and appreciations. During his visits among his rural folk, he was much affected to find that those who had been to school saw no connection with subject matter and life about them. Rather, he found that what little they got was limited to memorization of certain rules of grammar and arithmetic. To figure how their fathers lost on every bale of cotton or why they were mortgaging their crops or getting deeper in debt never occurred to them. The girls could glibly locate foreign places from memory, but had no idea of proper location of the knife and fork on the table, they could tell where bananas were grown, but were absolutely ignorant of their food value. Teachers were served salt pork and canned food from afar, while the country abounded with pigs, chickens, vegetables, fruits, etc. It was, therefore the aim of the colleges to dignify labor
and make it attractive to the pupils, to combine the brains and labor of
the hand and to teach the pupil in the meantime to respect labor. Because
hand training combined with mental and moral training is esential in the
harmonious plan.

A BACKWARD GLANCE AT THE NEGRO IN THE SOUTH

Effects of America's Color Consciousness. In the eighteenth century
America became color conscious and in the nineteenth century it became
color-blind. There was written into our ethics, our customs, and even
in our religion that one accepted virtue - whiteness, and there was pro-
trayed in our books, our plays, and even our poctures that one everlasting
evil - blackness. Everything that embodied superiority, purity, beauty,
and honor was white; everything that symbolized superstition, ignorance,
and inferiority, and dishonor was black. White men were locked upon
as Gods, and black men were thought of as devils. Heaven was described
as a pearly white city and hell was pictured as a black dismal pit.
This American philosophy of color has been read into our Constitutions
and it has been interpreted from our laws. The color consciousness has
not only created a racial issue, but it has also produced the inevitable
segregation. The color question, however, is not alone the Negro's
problem but it is also an American problem as well.

Odds against the Negro. "Negroes are dirty and full of disease,"
says the health officer, and he seems to think that is a good reason for
not providing adequate health services to make them well and so protect
the common public health.

"They fill the courts and jails," shouts the magistrate, "they have
no sense of decency," and he does not look for the answer in part at least
to the fact that Negroes have to live in bad and congested areas, that
their children are forced into association with the worst elements of
society, that they have the fewest parks and recreation facilities, and
that the courts are filled with Negroes often carelessly arrested on
trivial or false charges.

"Sure, the unions are against the nigger; he's a scab," but as we
have shown, most of the unions won't admit the Negro to their membership
where he could cease to be a scab.

"They are ignorant and backward," protests the school superintendent;
yet he spends four times as much on the education of each white pupil
as he does on the colored and runs the white schools eight months and the
colored but four or five. The retort of Booker Washington to this was,
"The Negro boy may be smart, but the white folks pay him too great a
compliment when they assume he can learn as much in three months as the
white boy can in eight."

There is no use pretending that Negroes are better than they are.
While a great many are fine, educated, upright men and women, in the mass,
they are still poor, uneducated, subject to more than their fair share
of disease and crime. However friendly to the race he may be, no one
who knows the black belts of the South can deny the general low level of
Negro conditions in America...

The only questions are: Do we want to leave them there? Are we
willing to allow ancient prejudice and primitive taboos to keep back the
growth of twelve million people who are a part of this nation, who are
inextricably tied up with its backwardness or progress?

This nation cannot exist half slave and half free, a modern state
cannot progress with one-half trying to go forward and at the same time trying to hold the other half back. A society cannot be healthy while one-half is ridden by communicable disease. A region cannot be orderly with one group so ill-used and ill-adjusted that it is constantly liable to crime and disorder. A modern economic order cannot attain prosperity with one great section of the population so ill-trained that it cannot work skillfully, so handicapped, so poor that it cannot buy goods. A Christian nation cannot exist devoting half its time to professing brotherly love and the other half discriminating against a whole class of its brothers in Christ. The American democratic public school system cannot stand save on the principle and the practice of free and universal education for all the people.

There is no rational explanation for anything so emotional and irrational as race prejudice or caste feeling. But there is no getting around the fact that it exists, that it applies to many races and in many societies, that it is almost universal, and that it is a very real thing with material as well as spiritual handicaps to all concerned.

It is hard for any race, under the most favorable conditions, to climb the rough road of modern civilization. This the American Negro has tried to do in less than a single century. He has had one great advantage—that of living in immediate association with another racial group which is notably successful in its industrial accomplishments. But with this stimulating association have gone great disadvantages: enslavement, discrimination, disdain, the relegation to certain limited places in the dominant civilization.

Prejudice is shown in different ways by two classes of white people.
There is, on the one hand the bitterness of the competitive struggle by poor whites. When the slave power was broken, the poor whites reentered the fight for a place in the sun. To obtain bread, and, prestige they eagerly took every possible advantage of the Negro, who had been the means by which they had been driven physically into the shadows. Fears were easily transformed into hate. Bitterness was further inflamed as the Negroes came into transient power during the Reconstruction period. From that time forward the poor whites in the South, consciously or unconsciously, have used every means in their possession to handicap and thwart the Negroes. It is this class which has found representation in the Tillmans, Heflins, Bleases, Bilbos, and Peppers, and their campaign of racial abuse.

Quite another kind of discrimination has come from the old aristocracy. These people have been considerate of the Negro personally and helpful to him in his struggles upward. The difference in status was so great that there was no question of competition. But with this sympathy has gone a patronizing and paternalistic attitude and the assumption that the Negro is clearly and inevitably inferior. "They are only children; we must be kind and patient with them." Unfortunately when people say this of another race they always assume that these children will never grow up, that they are pleasantly feeble-minded.

The aristocrat has taken a great deal of satisfaction from his kind treatment of the Negro. He keeps saying, "We know the Negroes." We love them and are kind to them. Have we not all had Negro mammys, and do we not weep at their deaths, and even bury them in inconspicuous corners of our cemeteries? Leave them to us, and we will keep them happy and
and content." This attitude has helped the Negroes to build churches and schools and has smiled indulgently at their excessive piety and fervor.

The attitude of the aristocrat and of the poor white, starting from opposite motives, often result in the same discrimination. Both classes demand segregation. While the law says that equal facilities must be furnished the two races, the Negro inevitably gets what is left over. The "Jim Crow" coaches are inadequate and often old. Living quarters are usually poor, recreational space is restricted. In parks, hotels, amusement houses, Y. M. C. A. 's, and churches, Negroes are segregated and from many are excluded. Both classes of white people have been reluctant to vote adequate tax funds for schools; the gentlemen because he thinks education of inferiors is futile, the poor white because he is unwilling to see public money go to Negroes until he is sure of proper schooling for his own children. Both have conspired to keep him from the polls. Both insist upon the taboo against "Mister," Miss, and Missis:" one because he feels it absurd to address an inferior by a title which he reserves for his friends, the other because he wants to register the fact that Negroes are not in the field of fair competition.

This little question of the use of gentlemanly titles causes a great deal of heat throughout the South. More emotion sizzles about it than any single item of discrimination. It is the windmill against which millions, both white and Negro, are tilting every day. The Negro must never be called "Mister" - the white man, always.

The Southern white man resorts to strange devices to avoid the title "Mister" in reference to a Negro of such distinction that even the speaker recognizes the absurdity of using the familiar first name. When Booker
Washington was introduced on southern platforms, he was called professor, doctor, president, principal, even on one occasion, major, anything to avoid mister.

Of course, the races must never eat together. This convention sees some strange compromises these days. A Negro demonstration agent was in Arkansas looking over a farm project with a group of local white farmers and educators in 1938. Lunch time came. All the group went into the big farmhouse and ate together. A small separate table was set for the colored agent and drawn up just three inches from the table where the white men ate. The same service was given to all, and the conference continued through the meal. The proprieties had been observed by the formality of the separate table, which just failed to touch the one at which the whites ate.

Segregation in Christian churches is an embarrassment. In a religion whose central teaching is brotherly love and the golden rule, white preachers have to do a great deal of rationalizing as they expound their own gospel. It is not surprising that with this stark barrier between doctrine and practice, southern churches should have turned so much attention to the stories of the Old Testament, should shout their fundamental allegiance to Jonah and the Whale and the six-day creation, and should slight the practical applications of the teachings of Jesus.

Odds against the Negro are reflected in disease, poverty, illiteracy, and crime. In all these, Negroes are far worse off than their white neighbors, and are, therefore, a menace to health and good order and a drag on progress and prosperity.

Negroes have more disease than any civilized country needs to permit.
Their average life span is ten years less than that of white Americans. These shortened lives mean human and economic waste. And modern medical knowledge makes it clear that a community cannot maintain public health with one large group harboring contagious disease. For purely selfish reasons, if for no other, it behoves the nation to give attention to Negro health.

The masses of Negroes are ignorant - nearly one fifth of them are still unable to read and write. But there is no evidence that this is because of lack of native intelligence. It is due rather to lack of instruction. Evidence of this is the accomplishments of colored boys and girls wherever they are given adequate schooling.

In labor and business the odds against the Negro are well known. The struggle to get an equal chance to make a living will probably be the hardest and the longest. In fact the economic struggle, however, it may be rationalized, is at the base of almost all the discriminations.

Here again the injury to the Negro is to the community as well. The inefficient crop-sharing system keeps the black farmer down, holds his white fellow tenant in the same poverty and debt. And prosperity will be slow to come to the South as long as millions of Negroes are so ill-trained that they cannot perform efficient labor, or so poor that they cannot buy goods.

Summary. We have described and evaluated some of the major social, economic, political, and educational conditions of Negroes of the South as a background for a program for the land-grant colleges. This description and evaluation necessitated a discussion of various phases of Negro life, including such main topics as: (1) tenancy and its effects
upon the Negro; (2) the Negro's place in organized labor and the types of labor unions which refuse, restrict, or discourage his membership; (3) the domestic life of Southern Negroes and the social, moral, and intellectual consequences of bad home conditions; (4) suffrage restrictions and their positive influence on the perpetuation of white supremacy and racial prejudice; (5) segregation of the Negro and its accompanying forms of discomfort, embarrassment, and humiliation; (6) injustices committed against the Negro and their retarding influence on the development of good will mutual understanding among the races; (7) Peonage and its social moral and economic implications; and (7) discrimination in Negro education and the necessity of the termination of this practice in order to provide equal educational opportunities for all people in a democracy.

Having examined the present living conditions of Negroes in the South, we are now ready to show how the Negro land-grant colleges may modify these conditions and thereby improve Negro life in the South. We shall explain how this may be done in the next chapter.
CHAPTER VI

A PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR THE COLLEGES IN THE
LIGHT OF THE PRESENT CONDITIONS OF NEGROES IN THE SOUTH

When one has examined very closely the present conditions of Negroes in the South, as we have done in the preceding chapter, he is then more able to see along what lines the Negro land-grant colleges should concentrate their future efforts in an attempt to improve Negro life in the South. For after all, it is only by improving the living conditions of the Negro in America that this nation can ever hope to reach a higher level of development itself.

Many people have criticized the agricultural, mechanic-arts, and home economics programs of Negro land-grant colleges. Some have said that they lowered the status of the colleges; others have said that trades could be learned as well, if not better, through apprenticeship and therefore, had no place in the colleges. The author wishes, however, to come to the defense of this type of education, because he believes that in these vocational fields lies the greatest contribution of Negro land-grant colleges.

From the data presented in the preceding chapter, it is obvious that before the Negro can obtain a higher social, political, economic, and educational status in the South, something needs to be done (1) to eliminate the evils resulting from tenancy; (2) to improve the training of the Negro rural school teacher; (3) to provide a better home and farm for the rural Negro; (4) to build up a well-trained class of Negro artisans to serve the towns and cities; and (5) to initiate strong movements for better relations between the races and to formulate a constructive basis for racial understanding. The land-grant colleges for Negroes, through the modification of their present curricula, could and should strive for the attainment of
these worthy objectives.

Tenancy. Let us first consider this matter of tenancy. Through the agricultural divisions of Negro land-grant colleges, in cooperation with similar divisions of the white land-grant colleges, a "way out" could and should be found for the Southern share-cropper. Being closely associated with the United States Department of Agriculture, the land-grant colleges hold the advantage over the other colleges in that they can expect financial cooperation from the Federal Government for research in agriculture. The final solution will probably require years of labor and agricultural experimentation, but something might be worked out along the lines of farming in the cotton states. Here in briefest outline are the suggestions which have been advanced almost unanimously by students of farm problems, southern statesmen, and government officials.

1. That the Federal Government (through some special agency set up for that purpose) buy up huge acreages of farm lands now in the hands of insurance companies, land-banks, and others, and distribute this land in small plots of minimum size required to support farm families, probably twenty to forty acres in the cotton area. The land may be allocated to the new owners either on long leases or through contracts of sale on long-time payment under easy terms. The aim is to give the new farmers a sense of ownership or stability and to prevent them from selling or mortgaging the holdings or otherwise alienating their new birthright.

2. That service agencies be set up by regions and local areas to supervise, guide, and aid the new home-steaders. These service agencies

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should not only give expert counsel, but also provide seed, fertilizer, and even certain of the current supplies which were heretofore furnished by the plantation owner. In certain instances the service agencies will have to finance buildings and farm animals, but these capital investments should be held to the very minimum so that the homesteaders will not start with too burdensome a debt. It is believed that the project can succeed on a large scale only if the capital investment (including land and whatever buildings, repairs, and animals are required) does not exceed one thousand dollars to fifteen hundred dollars per family.

3. That along with this general wide-scale distribution of lands, experiments be conducted in unified and carefully directed types of communities, such as (a) cooperative farm colonies, (b) communities with highly developed services in schools and health and recreational facilities, and (c) communities of the European type with homes and public services concentrated into villages with farm lands on the outskirts.

The Re-homesteading Project is intended to establish in farm ownership a huge number of families heretofore excluded from ownership and now being cut off even from tenancy or crop-sharing arrangements. To this end the provisions and stipulations must be few and simple.

Success will depend largely on the low cost of the capital investment to each homesteader and on the resourcefulness, helpfulness, and honesty of the service agencies in supplying central services, carrying the families until the first crops are in, and guiding the homesteaders both as individuals and as communities. Schools, health facilities, and other public services will continue to be furnished by the state, county, and district authorities as at present, but the new service agencies probably can do
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of homes and barns, of schools and other community centers. Congress has before it a bill authorizing an issue of bonds to finance individual farm purchases on a wide scale. It looks very much as though, by these and other means, broad and effective measures may be taken to mitigate the tenancy evil and to rehabilitate great numbers of the population as self-supporting and self-respecting farmers.

It is, of course, not to be supposed that this scheme of land distribution, even if carried out wisely and on a wide scale, will solve all the problems of the rural South. There remain such severe ills as: (1) large stretches of worn-out soil, (2) the long tradition of concentration on the single cash crop, cotton, which the new farmers will find it hard to break away from, (3) the vicious and enervating prejudice between the races which beclouds issues and makes almost impossible any concerted program of recovery and progress, and (4) the traditions of dependence and the general shiftlessness and incompetence of the workers, both white and colored, who make up the large marginal farm population. But organization of the farm system is basic to reform in other matters. A group of independent farmers working together, under competent leadership can begin to plan decent lives as well as a self-sustaining economy.

Some of the civilized nations of the world long ago faced the problem of tenancy and developed far-reaching measures to reorganized this backward system of land tenure. Denmark systematically abolished tenancy almost completely, Ireland, Germany and Mexico have made drastic reforms. In the United States nothing of a serious and far reaching character has been done to modify an admittedly wretched agrarian system. Secretary Wallace has expressed himself unqualifiedly on the dangers of tenancy when he says:
It seems to me that it will be virtually impossible for America to develop a rural civilization which affords security, opportunity, and a fully abundant life for our rural people unless she acts to convert tenants of this sort into owner farmers.

The Negro land-grant colleges could and should take the lead in the fight to abolish the present system of southern farm tenancy and to organize a system of small, independent farmers, working together under competent guidance and supervision. The type of leadership indicated here involves the following activities on the part of the colleges:

1. The need for a complete reorganization of the present system of farm tenancy and the value of a system of small, farm ownership should be expounded through periodic lectures to the entire clientele of Negro land-grant colleges.

2. The presidents of Negro land-grant colleges, in their annual meetings, should formulate systematic campaigns of publicity in order to exert political pressure upon the nation as a whole in favor of a system of small, farm ownership in place of the present system of farm tenancy.

3. The directors of the agricultural and home-economics divisions of Negro land-grant colleges should unify their efforts together with the directors of similar divisions of white land-grant colleges, to get their state, regional, and national superior officers to realize the need for a vital change in the present system of farm tenancy and then work together as a unit to effect such a change.

4. A course in The Problems of Farm Tenancy and Some Possible Solutions should be offered by all Negro land-grant colleges and required of all their students. Advanced courses dealing with the problems and possible solutions of farm tenancy should be offered as electives by all the colleges, especially
for students specializing in agriculture and home economics.

(5) Administrators and directors of the various divisions of Negro land-grant colleges should arrange to have a meeting once a month with the several local or state Negro farmers' organizations in order to discuss possible solutions to the problems of farm tenancy. A joint meeting of both Negro and white administrators and directors of the several divisions of the colleges should be held at least once a year in order to formulate a unified program of action for all the people of the South.

(6) The administrators of Negro land-grant colleges should exert every possible effort to include within their libraries all available literature relating to the fields of agriculture and home economics particularly the present system of farm tenancy and the system of small, farm ownership.

(7) Some of the courses in the social and economic sciences of the Division of Liberal Arts, as well as courses of other divisions of Negro land-grant colleges, should be centered around the theme of possible solutions of the problems of farm tenancy.

(8) The Negro land-grant colleges, through their official representative organization, The Association of Negro Land-Grant College Presidents, should encourage research in the field of farm tenancy by providing annual scholarships for advanced study in agriculture to Negro college graduates who have made significant investigations in this area.

Improvement of Negro Rural School-Teachers. That some steps need to be taken to improve the training of teachers for Negro rural schools is generally known today. Through their divisions of education including a program whereby the student-teachers will receive teaching experi-
ence in an actual rural-school situation rather than in a model practice
center on the campus, the Negro land-grant colleges have an opportunity
to lead the way in the improvement of instruction in the Negro rural schools.

There were approximately 24,000 Negro teachers at work in one-teacher
and two-teacher schools, in 1935. This represented nearly half of all
Negro school teachers. In organizing their schools, it is not possible
for them to do effective teaching if they follow the pattern of rigid
grading found in the larger consolidated and city school systems as indi-
cated in most of the State courses of study. Many of these rural teachers
have never gone beyond high school. What professional training they have
had has been acquired in summer schools. This task is made more arduous
for them in that they are expected not only to teach children, but to
build up a better community and a wholesome school sentiment.

More than half of the Negro children attend this type of school.
They are of varying ages and at varying stages of advancement. The young-
er children are too frequently neglected and stagnate in the first two or
three grades after which they are likely to quit school. They are often
poorly supplied with textbooks and reading material, their attendance is
frequently irregular, their physical condition unsatisfactory, and the
economic strictures under which they live deprive them of the opportunities
enjoyed by children differently situated. If their aspirations are to
be aroused, and if they are to be stimulated to a higher plane of living,
they must rely upon the teacher to do it.

2 Taken from the bulletin on The Training of Teachers for Rural
Schools, p. 9, prepared by the General Education Board, 1935.

2 There were 56,000 Negro teachers altogether in the United States in
1930.
A teacher, therefore, needs to know not only the children committed to his care, but he should have knowledge of the homes from which they come, the family life and cultural opportunities in these homes, the ways the people make a living, the kind of living they make and the standards of living they maintain, the types of churches they attend, the activities in which they engage, the recreational opportunities the community provides, the health conditions prevailing, and the agencies that operate in the community for the betterment of the people. But a mere knowledge of the institutions, organizations and agencies, a census of occupations and statistics on health, will not suffice. It is essential to know the people, the parents of the children, the ministers that serve the churches, the leaders in various activities, the key persons and families - their interests and the kinds of influence they exert, the human forces that strive to build up community life and those that tend to tear it down. He should know the ideals toward which they are striving, their aspirations for their children, for better homes, better food, clothing and shelter for their families, for those things that enrich life and make it more worth living.

In view of the facts presented in the last paragraph, the land-grant colleges, for Negroes, by authorizing their directors of the divisions of education to work in cooperation with the local school authorities, could formulate a practical program of teacher training that would prepare a better teacher for the Negro rural schools in the South. Such a program for the better training of teachers for Negro rural schools might be worked out along the following lines:

1. The formulation of a working agreement with local school au-
authorities whereby senior students of all departments of the colleges will be excused from regular class-room work and permitted to teach in a rural school for one quarter or semester for a salary equal to their living expenses.

(2) In order to be excused from classes for an entire quarter or semester students preparing to become teachers will begin during their freshman year to take from three to four quarter or semester hours of work above the regular program of study to enable them to accumulate over the course of three academic years enough credit to allow them to be absent for a quarter or semester from college classes to obtain actual rural experience as a paid teacher. In view of the fact that the state boards of education of the several states now prescribe a certain number of credit hours in specific courses for graduation, this plan seems to be not only practical but also necessary at the present time.

(3) Under this arrangement senior students will have had all their theory courses in Education, such as History of Education, Educational Psychology, Tests and Measurements, Classroom Organization, and Management, Principles and Theories of Education and etc. before they begin to receive their rural-school teaching experience. A "theory" course after the field experience should also be included to relate what has been taught with what should be taught.

(4) If necessary, senior students will be divided into groups, one group going into the rural school to teach one term and another group replacing the former group the next term.

(5) Local school officials will cooperate in this set-up by providing the schools, equipment, and adequate supervision for these interne
TEACHERS.

(6) Through this type of practice teaching the new teacher is fully aware of the rural school's situation, its problems, and possible solutions before he is actually appointed as a regular teacher. This type of intern teaching should be preceded by some theoretical knowledge of (a) the rural community background, and (b) the adaptation of teaching to the rural situation. Such theoretical information is to be supplied through modified curricula of the divisions of education of the colleges. Each of these might be organized and developed in a way that its contents could be given to prospective teachers in the form of large units, with sub-units under each. How this might be done is illustrated in Appendix C on pages 397 to 419.

Improvement of Negro Farm and Home Life. Another great function of the land-grant colleges for Negroes should be the improvement of living conditions of Negroes on the farms. This can be accomplished through the agricultural, home economics, and mechanical-arts divisions of the colleges by:

(1) Preparing better agricultural, home economics, and trade teachers who are willing to go on the farms and into the farm homes and work with rural people to help improve their living conditions. This will necessitate a practical program of training similar to that suggested for the regular teachers of rural schools.

(2) Creating public opinion strong enough to encourage the white local and state officials to spend an equitable part of state and federal money which is appropriated annually for agricultural and home economic education in accordance with the original Smith-Lever Extension and Smith-
Hughes Vocational Agricultural Acts. This will enable Negro county
and home demonstration agents to reach more Negroes in the rural areas,
and also expand the program of vocational agriculture and trades, which
are now being taught in some of the Negro secondary schools in the South.

(3) Encouraging some of the agricultural and home-economic students
to return to the farm where, through the utilization of their increased
knowledge of soil, plants, animals and agricultural and household economics,
they will be able to make a decent living as intelligent farmers and home
makers. Professor C. S. Woodard, Director of Smith-Hughes Vocational
Work for Negroes in Arkansas, made a study in 1938 of all graduates who
had received the bachelor's degree in Agriculture from Negro institutions
since 1930 and found that 90 per cent of them were either teaching agri-
culture or some subject connected with it. Three per cent of them were
living and working on the farms from which they came. Two per cent were
independent farmers. The remaining five per cent were not connected with
either farming or teaching. It is clearly seen from this study of Pro-
fessor Woodard that over four-fifths of the Negroes who had been educated
as scientific farmers in Negro land-grant colleges from 1930 to 1938 did
not return to the farms at all as farmers. It is still necessary for the
Negro to learn the difference between being worked and working, to learn
that being worked means degradation while working means civilization, and
that all forms of idleness are disgraceful. What the South needs today
is more intelligent farmers who can make their farms pay dividends. It
is the task of Negro land-grant colleges, through their divisions of agri-
culture and home-economics, to develop in more of their students the atti-
tude that there is always a living on the farm and that farm life can be
made as decent, pleasant, and profitable as the farmer and his wife will make it. This change of attitude can come only when an intelligent approach is made to the study of the agricultural and industrial situation in the South. Negro land-grant colleges should provide their students, especially those who are being trained in agricultural, home-economics and the various trades, with that type of instruction which will analyze clearly the present agricultural and industrial situation, its problems, possible solutions, and future opportunities. The discussion that follows is an example of the type of analysis of agriculture and industry that students in Negro land-grant colleges should receive in order that they might realize the future opportunities for Negroes on the farm and in the various fields of mechanical arts.

PROBLEMS OF THE NEGRO FARMERS

What are some of the disadvantages and handicaps that have retarded Negro progress on the farms in the past, and serve to discourage him today? What are some of the things that caused migration to urban centers north and south? These disadvantages fall under two heads: economic disadvantages and social disadvantages.

Economic Disadvantages. We shall speak mainly of the South because the majority of Negro farms are located in the Southern states. But we do not mean that Negroes who desire to own farms shall limit their efforts to the South. Negroes have already proved that they can succeed on the farms in other sections of this country.

Southern agriculture during the whole of the nineteenth century was built up around the one product, cotton. Cotton was the one big export crop of this country. The value of the exports of cotton to foreign countries was not exceeded by any other product until 1930 when machinery took the lead. This crop made it possible for this country to have a
favorable balance of trade practically since the founding of the Republic. The South was able to produce this cotton at an advantage over other countries. The growing of cotton became the chief and almost the only business of the South. But, the cotton plant robbed the soil of its fertility; and as it was grown on extensive areas, the whole section soon became very poor. As soon as new lands were needed, the forests were felled and fertile lands were taken in and old lands allowed to grow up to brush and wash away. Negro farmers found themselves in 1865 with empty hands and the ability to grow cotton in the old unscientific way. It is to their everlasting credit that, under the circumstances and conditions, they were able to take hold and gain such an excellent foothold in such a short time.

Thus we see that this one crop, cotton, became the bane of the South. This section is still largely under the influence of this one crop system, depending upon cotton for money and for bread and meat and other articles of sustenance which should be produced on the farms of the South instead of being imported from other sections. Already suffering, when the Mexican boll weevil came, in the first and second decades of the twentieth century, Southern farming conditions became almost intolerable. The one crop that the people knew how to grow had failed and farmers of both racial groups were reduced almost to starvation. With the failure of cotton, the credit structure failed. Heretofore there had been credit based on cotton. It was ruinous credit of from 10 to 30 per-cent in most instances, but it was, after all, credit.

About this time came the World War. There was a scarcity of labor in the urban centers, North and South. High wages were offered to Negroes and they went by the thousands. No one could or would blame them for going, when they went to infinitely better their economic and social conditions. And
may I add here that I believe every man should seek that place where he will be able to live his life more completely, whether it be in the shops or in the professions, in our cities or on well-balanced farms in the rural districts.

As they went to the cities, Negroes left behind them an almost paralyzed South. Many of the rural counties have not been able to meet their regular current obligations since that time, owing to the general decline in land values and in total population. The rather general failure of banks throughout the South also added materially to this gloomy situation that confronted the farmers of that region—thousands of farmers lost their savings between 1920 and 1933.

Social Disadvantages. With the failure of the credit structure caused by the inability to produce cotton, as in former years, many of the best families left the rural communities. This caused a breakdown of the community life. Churches and schools were closed in many sections. The people who remained in the communities were either too poor or unwilling to attempt to build again in such uninteresting environments. Many of those who remained were only awaiting letters from those who had preceded them, assuring them of places to work in the cities.

Along with this general wretched condition in the farming regions, due to crop failures, may be added the general fear of mob violence. Unquestionably this was a major factor in the migration of the Negro to the cities. Negroes who owed obligations were often required to make good at the expense of their personal effects. Left in the country by many of those who had formerly befriended them, they did not have even
the protection that was formerly provided. Lynchings were frequent. The lawless elements seemed in control in many counties. Under these conditions it is not to be wondered at that large numbers of Negroes left the farms.

What Negro farmers wanted then and still want is full protection and the guarantee that their farms will be safe and secure when they are made attractive and beautiful as when they are unimproved and unsightly. They want a place to educate their children in a school that is as good as may be found for any group anywhere. They want a full share of the public funds for better health, good roads and other public improvements in their communities. Without such assurances of protection and an adequate share in the public funds no people of any group may be expected to remain long in the farms when other more favorable employment is offered, where such opportunities may be enjoyed.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR NEGROES IN AGRICULTURE

As we have already indicated, Negroes have made an enviable record on the farms. Despite the recent downward trend in farm ownership it is apparent to any one conversant with the situation on the farms today, that there is still an opportunity for Negroes to succeed on the farms individually and collectively. From every state in this country opportunities beckon - opportunities to own and possess the most fertile farms at hitherto unheard of low price levels. Millions of acres once denied to Negroes in many states may now be had on the most favorable terms for less than the original cost of the buildings on these farms. Negro landowning communities may be organized in practically every state where there is a desire to own a farm. The movement of the industries to the South
is providing domestic markets for the products of the farms in that region. As the South becomes more fully industrialized there will be a large place for the efficient farmer who is able to bring to the market a superior variety of quality products. The Japanese, Chinese and Italian farmers of California have shown us how to do the job. Their success on the farms, formerly considered of little value, has challenged the admiration of the world.

It is worth noticing that during the past decade for the first time more people returned to the farms than left the farms for the cities. The Census records that the farms had a net gain of over 200,000 people during that period. Some of our New England agricultural colleges show a large percentage of city boys studying agriculture. When people are better acquainted with what the country has to offer in providing both a living and a life, it is my firm belief that we will have an even greater movement from the cities to the farms. On the farms the trained specialist, who loves the outdoor life, will always have opportunity. Competition in our cities is keen, and men soon find it impossible to make the pace. Out in the country there is an all-time job for everyone.

The business of agriculture seems to offer a comparative advantage to men of moderate means who seek a business of their own. Here they are able to get in on the ground floor of a business that is fundamental to the welfare of society. It is the one big primary industry in which the little fellow with small capital can do business at a comparative advantage with other men, and at the same time live a wholesome life.

This is an age of capitalism. Mergers and combinations are the order
of the day. In recent years there have been 1,063 mergers of manufac-
turing and mining concerns; and over 3,500 mergers of public utilities. Every business and industry of importance except farming is in the hands of the capitalists. It is estimated that 90 per cent of the business of this country is controlled by capitalistic organizations and more than 11,000 trade associations. These facts present a very difficult situation to Negroes or to any other group with small means, desiring to get a place in a business on the ground floor.

In agriculture Negroes have already nearly fourteen million acres of land and very valuable experiences and a background, in this industry, that makes it fairly easy for us to move forward. Quality crops of corn, cotton, wheat, cattle and poultry are just as easily possible for the Negro farmer in the future, as for the farmers of any other group. Negroes in California have become members of the California Raisin Growers Association and are making remarkable success. At Starkville, Mississippi, Negroes lead the white farmers in furnishing cream for the big tri-state plant. In Montgomery County, Alabama, there is an association of market milk producers and a Negro farmer carries the record for handling some of the best milk and one of the cleanest dairies. There are Negroes in Georgia who receive splendid incomes from the turpentine and other resin products taken from their pine forests, and there are others who are succeeding at this business. In Massachusetts there is a young Negro with a Ph. D. degree in agriculture, who is making a great success with one of the largest poultry farms in that State. It is not a question of color as proved by the thousands of Negroes who are already making the grade. Success will come on the farms, just as in other businesses
when there is a combination of ability and untiring energy, centered on some definite objectives.

There never was a time when there was such an opportunity to do a full day's work, at a job worth while, as there is today on the farms. Ten thousand well-trained specialists in agriculture could revolutionize conditions in the lower South. We need trained men in our schools and colleges and on our farms to reforest our cut-over timber lands, and to provide a more adequate system of marketing farm crops. Everywhere the call is for the specialist. The Negroes who live on these farms should be provided the leadership that will make it possible for them to take their place as happy, contented farm owners in the front ranks of this march of progress.

The South has been thinking and talking about agricultural education for some time but making comparatively little progress. The colleges of agriculture for white people are just at the beginning as compared with the colleges of the Middle West. The process of developing scientific leadership for Negroes in agriculture has been exceedingly slow. At present there are nearly one thousand workers in the vocational and extension services among Negroes and it is estimated that less than twenty per cent of this number have had the advantage of a standard four-year college course in agriculture. The men and women in these services are doing a splendid work against tremendous odds. The seventeen Negro Land-Grant Colleges, Tuskegee and Hampton, are making efforts to meet this growing demand for leadership but most of these institutions lack properly trained personnel and laboratory facilities for the preparation of qualified leaders. There are only a few available men with advanced degrees in
soil technology, agronomy, dairy, husbandry, poultry husbandry, horticulture, floriculture, landscape gardening, entomology agricultural economics, marketing and agricultural education. Men fully trained in these and other fields will command good incomes, as teachers, managers, investigators, and practical farmers.

We would not minimize, however, the difficulties that confront the Negro farmer. There are real difficulties as we have indicated, difficulties caused by lack of opportunity, ignorance, illiteracy, lack of credit facilities and the general prevalence of mob violence in many regions. These economic handicaps, the inadequate distribution of funds, and lawlessness must be corrected. Many right-thinking white people of the South are already convinced that such injustices must go.

One of the surest signs of an awakening in the South is the statewide interest in college education for Negroes. This is evidenced by the increase of appropriations for most of the Negro land-grant colleges, from one hundred to three hundred percent in the past ten years. This change of attitude is especially noticeable in Texas, where there is an enrollment of 1200 students in the college department; in Oklahoma, Louisiana, Tennessee, Florida, Delaware, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia and West Virginia. The plants of these institutions, while not sufficient for the needs of the Negroes of these states, nevertheless evidence a growing appreciation, on the part of the white South, of the great asset that the college trained Negro is to the state.

In Virginia, West Virginia, and Tennessee the dormitories recently completed at the state colleges for Negroes can hardly be surpassed by any other institution in the country. The five thousand Julius Rosenwald
schools now found in all states of the South could hardly have been possible without a change of attitude towards Negro education.

Although lynching and lawlessness continue to the chagrin of every real lover of the South, we no longer find the press and pulpit silent on this evil. Public sentiment no longer tolerates leaders who openly approve of lynching and mob violence. Liberal minded men are joining with the leaders of the movement for Interracial Co-operation all over the South, to the end that Negroes may enjoy complete citizenship rights. It certainly looks like progress, it matters not how gloomy the situation may seem at times, when Southern white men and women in conference with Negro men and women can agree on such a program of full and complete justice, and then go out and fearlessly work towards the consummation of these objectives.

What is the next step forward in making life for Negroes on the farms more satisfying?

1. The goal should be to see that every child, white and black, receives an education that will fit him to live a full life. Illiteracy and ignorance must go. There should be education for all. This education should make it possible for the child to orient himself into the life of the community where he lives or to succeed in some other community rural or urban. But by all means he should be taught an appreciation of the life about him as he grows up. This to me is most important. Much of the education in the past has tended to draw children away from their communities regardless as to whether or not they had a natural bent for farm life. There is no reason why a farm boy should not go to the city if he desires
to go; on the contrary, there is every reason why many boys should leave
the country for the city. But boys and girls who have a natural love
for the outdoor life, and all of the independence that may be had with the
same should be given the chance to grow and develop where they are.
County superintendents and teachers everywhere should be encouraged to so
redirect the schools of the country that these schools will more nearly meet
the needs of the people they are supposed to serve.

2. There should be a Negro county farm agent in every county where there
is an appreciable number of Negro farmers. There should also be a trained
home demonstration agent. At present there are only 448 of these
workers. There should be at least 1500 agents with the best possible
training and experience for the service.

3. There should be teachers of vocational agriculture and home
economics in at least two or three centrally located schools in every
rural county where Negro farmers predominate. At present there are
about 900 of these workers who reach 20,000 people annually. There
should be at least 5,000 such workers who would be able to train and inspire
Negro future farmers.

4. There should be an equitable distribution of all federal funds
now apportioned to the different states, and made available for farmers
and for training of agricultural teachers, so that Negroes will receive
their full share.

5. There should be at least 100 agricultural economists, of large

Doxey A. Wilkerson, "The Participation of Negroes in the Federally-
Aided Program of Agriculture and Home Economics Extension," The Journal
native ability, trained for the various Negro land-grant colleges and other agricultural activities. Already a beginning has been made in this direction. There are seventeen Negro men and women studying in the fields of agricultural economics, home economics, and sociology at northern universities this year (1939) under grants made available by the Julius Rosenwald Fund.

6. There should be made a careful scientific study of present-going-communities where Negroes own large numbers of farms. The facts gained could be used to build other communities and to improve existing communities in their production methods, in marketing and in community school, church and recreational activities.

7. There should be selected certain strategically located Negro rural land-owning communities as demonstration centers. Here the various agencies under the direction of the Negro land-grant colleges, State Extension Services and interested private funds should seek to stimulate the people that they may demonstrate the possibilities of rural community life from both the economic and social points of view. These communities would become examples for other Negroes desiring to improve their community.

8. There should be made available to both Negro farmers and would-be Negro farmers federal aid from the Farm Loan banks and other federal and state sources. It is sometimes difficult for Negro farmers to obtain the aid that is rightfully theirs under the acts that made the aids possible.

9. There should be started a movement to encourage privately endowed boards and individuals to make available loans for the purchase and improvement of farms at small rates of interest over long periods of time.
The Association for the Advancement of Negro Country Life, the seventeen Negro land-grant colleges, and right thinking friends of Negro progress everywhere confidently look forward to the time when there will be a growing number of intelligent Negro men and women owning and operating farms in every section of this country. We believe when Negroes control millions of dollars of cattle, hogs, poultry, dairy products, cotton, corn, wheat and other necessities of life in their own right and are able to market these products co-operatively and intelligently, they will not only find themselves a larger and more important place in the life of the nation, but they will by this same program make the outlook for Negroes who live in our cities more nearly what it ought to be.

Development of a Proficient Class of Negro Tradesmen. Every race must have its supply of professional workers, business men, farmers, laborers, and artisans if it is to prosper. The Negro race is no exception. So far in this chapter we have discussed the function of the Negro land-grant college in its relationship with tenancy, the rural school teachers, and the farmer and his family. We will now consider the function of the colleges in building up a strong class of good tradesmen. In order to show the real need of industrial education for Negroes and the great contribution the Negro land-grant colleges can make in preparing mechanical-minded students to meet this need, it is necessary to take a glance at the race over a period of seventy years.

Over seventy years ago the Negro emerged from slavery to freedom. In too many cases he began his development at the wrong end. For two hundred and fifty years the way for the redemption of the Negro was being prepared through industrial development. Through all those years
the Southern white man did business with the Negro in a way that no one
else has done business with him. In most cases if a Southern white man
wanted a house built, he consulted a Negro mechanic about the plan and
building of the structure. If he wanted a suit of clothes made, he went
to a Negro tailor, and for shoes he went to a shoemaker of the same race.
In a certain way every slave plantation in the South was an industrial
school. On these plantations young Negro boys and girls were constantly
being trained (mostly through imitation) not only as farmers but as car­
penters, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, brickmasons, engineers, mechanics, cooks,
laundresses, sewing women and housekeepers.

I do not mean, in any way, to apologize for the curse of slavery, but
I am simply stating facts about the industrial training that the Negro
received during this period of bondage. This training was, indeed crude,
and in most cases was given for selfish reasons. It did not serve the
highest ends, because there was an absence of mental training in connection
with the training of the hand. To a large degree, though, this business
contact with the Southern white man, and the industrial training on the
plantations, left the Negro at the close of the Civil War in possession
of nearly all the common and skilled labor in the South. The industries
that gave the South its power, prominence, and wealth prior to the war
were mainly the raising of cotton, sugar cane, rice and tobacco. Before
the way could be prepared for the proper growing and marketing of these
crops, forests had to be cleared away, houses built, public roads and
railroads constructed. In all these the Negro did most of the heavy
work. In planting, cultivating and marketing of the crops not only was
the Negro the chief dependence, but in the manufacture of tobacco he
began a skilled and proficient workman.

Until about 1920, except in a few instances, the value of the industrial training given on the plantations was overlooked. Negro men and women were educated in literature, mathematics and the sciences, with little thought of what has been taking place during the preceding two hundred and fifty years, except, perhaps, as something to be escaped, or to get as far away from as possible. As a generation began to pass, those who had been trained as industrial workers in slavery began to disappear by death, and gradually it began to be realized that there were few to take their places. There were young men educated in foreign languages, but few in carpentry or in mechanical architectural drawing. Many were trained in Latin but few as mechanics, engineers, and blacksmiths. Too many Negroes were taken from the farms and educated, but educated in everything but farming to which a majority of them returned after graduation.

Booker T. Washington writes of his experience in 1910 when he decided to make tailoring a part of the training of Tuskegee Institute. He was amazed to find that it was almost impossible to find in the whole country an educated colored man who could teach the making of clothing. He found numbers of Negroes who could teach astronomy, theology, Latin or Greek, but almost none who could teach the making of clothing, which was something that had to be used by every one, Negro and white, every day in the year.

Although the picture has changed somewhat since 1920, it is nevertheless discouraging to go through many parts of the country, especially the South, even today and into the homes of the people of the Negro race.
and find women who converse intelligently upon abstract subjects, and
yet cannot tell how to improve the condition of the poorly cooked and
still more poorly served food which they and their families are eating
three times a day. It is also discouraging to find a Negro girl who
can tell geographical locations of the various countries on the globe,
but who does not know where to place dishes on the table. It is even
more discouraging to find a Negro boy who knows much about theoretical
chemistry, but cannot till the soil on which he lives.

In what I say here I would not by any means have it understood that
I would limit or circumscribe the mental development of the Negro student.
No race can be lifted up until its mind is awakened and strengthened. By
the side of industrial training should always go mental and moral train­
ing, but the pushing of mere abstract knowledge into the head of the
average Negro is of little value either to him or his race. We want
more than the mere performance of mental gymnastics. Our knowledge must
be harnessed to the things of real life. I would encourage the Negro
to secure all the mental strength, all the mental culture - whether
gleansed from science, mathematics, history, language or literature that
his circumstances will allow, but I believe most earnestly that for yeare
to come the education of the people of my race should be so directed that
the greatest proportion of the mental strength of the masses will be
brought to bear upon the every day practical things of life, upon something
which they will be permitted to do in the community in which they reside.
And just the same with the professional class which the race needs and
must have, I would say give the men and women of that class, too, the train­
ing which will best fit them to perform in the most successful manner the
service which the race demands.

I would not confine the race to industrial life, not even to agriculture, for example, although I believe that by far the greater part of the Negro race would be in a better position in the rural districts and must and should continue to live there, but I would teach the race that in industry the foundation must be laid - that the very best service which any one can render to what is called the higher education is to teach the present generation to provide a material or industrial foundation. On such a foundation as this will grow habits of thrift, a love of money, economy, ownership of property, bank accounts. Out of it in the future will come moral and religious strength. Out of it will grow wealth from which alone can come leisure and the opportunity for the enjoyment of literature and the fine arts.

In the words of the late beloved Frederick Douglass: "Every blow of the sledge hammer wielded by a sable arm is a powerful blow in support of our cause. Every colored mechanic is by virtue of circumstances an elevator of his race. Every house built by a black man is a strong tower against the allied hosts of prejudice. It is impossible for us to attach too much importance to this aspect of the subject. Without industrial development there can be no wealth; without wealth, there can be no leisure; without leisure; no opportunity for thoughtful reflection and the cultivation of the higher arts."

I would set no limits to the attainments of the Negro in arts, in letters or statesmanship, but I believe the surest way to reach those ends is by laying the foundation in the little things of life that lie immediately at one's door. I plead for industrial education and devel-
opment for the Negro because I want to free him. I want to see him enter the all powerful business and commercial world. It was such combined mental, moral, and industrial training which the late General Armstrong set out to give at the Hampton Institute when he established that school over sixty-five years ago.

Like most of the graduates from the agricultural and home economic divisions most of the graduates from the mechanical-arts division of Negro land-grant colleges engage in the teaching of their trades along with manual arts to students in the public schools. Only a small percentage of these graduates work at their trades as tradesmen. The Negro land-grant colleges must now encourage more of their students to practice their trades in their respective communities. There will always be a demand for good artisans not only in the cities but in the towns and villages as well. And even in the open country there will be a demand for the tradesmen. All people need houses, clothes, shoes, printed materials, and almost everybody today needs some form of mechanical repair work, to his car, tractor, radio, and heating, lighting, and water systems. Therefore, the carpenter, tailor, shoe-repairer, bricklayer, printer, plumber, mechanic, and electrician, are indispensable in our modern society. One factor that has always handicapped the Negro tradesman is the discrimination against him by some labor unions, especially in the South. Here again, the Negro land-grant college should assume the leadership, through their directors of mechanical-arts along with the presidents of the colleges, in formulating state-wide campaigns, designed to change the attitudes and sentiments of the all-white labor unions. When this day comes, the future for Negroes in the various trades will become brighter
than ever before during the history of the race.

The training of a student for a trade must include also some academic work. No one can build a house, make a suit of clothes or run a farm successfully who cannot read, write and perform practical mathematical computations. Therefore, all the mechanical-art divisions of the colleges include some work in English, mathematics, and the social, political and natural sciences. In order that the trade practice might be more closely correlated with academic practice, a few model cases of such correlation have been set up for the Negro land-grant colleges. This material is found in appendix B on pages 394 to 396.

**Improvement of Race Relations in the South.** The greatest of all forces working against the progress of the Negro in the South today is race prejudice. This topic was developed quite fully in Chapter V and is discussed here in order that we might see the part which the Negro land-grant colleges should play in the fight against racial hatred. What then is the cause of race prejudice? Two theories have been advanced.

In the first place, anything strange is feared and hated, not only by men but by other animals. A deformed beast is promptly set upon and killed by his fellows. A three-armed man or bearded lady is stared at in a circus and persecuted outside. So an unusual pigment of the skin may cause a feeling of strangeness, which easily turns into dislike. There is hostility to strange people even though they have similar appearances. All foreigners are under suspicion in every country. People of a different religion are heathen, those of a different culture are savages, unaccustomed dress is outlandish, strange musical instruments jangle, a foreign language is gibberish. Every term for strangeness
carries some odium and readily joins itself to a scornful adjective. How trippingly to the provisional tongue come such phrases as "dirty foreigner," "heathen Chinese," "damn Yankee." One explanation of prejudice, then, is simply in difference.

In the second place, there is the tendency to hate a person or group whom we have injured. The only real scorn of the Indian in this country has been by the groups that were actively exploiting him. In general today there is a favorable feeling for the Indian, except in those places, chiefly the Southwest, where he is still fair game for the white exploiter. In the case of the African, the white Americans realize that with selfish cruelty they dragged him from his native continent and enslaved him to their demands and desires. As a race he is on their conscience and, by a principle of psychology understood by every schoolboy, they turn their distress because of him into active enmity against him.

During slavery an intellectual justification of caste was built up that is slow to down. In order to justify the enslaving of fellow men in a country founded on the principle of personal liberty, sophistry had to be called in. Practical politicians declared that the Negro was scarcely human; preachers argued as to whether he had a soul; scientist offered voluminous proofs that he was biologically and mentally inferior. The inertia of all this official talking down of the Negro persists long after the occasion for it has passed.

It may be useful to indentify some of the racial attitudes and dogmas which so largely control relations down in Dixie. If these attitudes are grouped, it will be noted that they tend to sift down to a few broad
assumptions, accepted as so true as not to be questioned. First, there is the assumption that Negroes are mentally and morally inferior to whites and that this difference, being innate, cannot be changed easily, if at all. Then there is the assumption that Negroes represent a backward culture and are constitutionally incapable of fully taking on European culture. This is accompanied by the conviction that the incorporation of Negroes into the basic American culture carries the threat of weakening this culture.

These basic assumptions are most firmly held by those who have least studied the questions involved, and they vary in intensity among individuals and groups. They are, nevertheless, very real considerations and, because of their persistence and force, frequently prevent the first steps of action dictated by simple impulses to social justice.

Persons interested in the American race problem in its so-called practical aspects have from time to time proposed and advocated numerous "solutions." These proposals differ with time and place as well as with the information and point of view of the individual reformers.

A persistent popular idea prevails to the effect that the problem is in the way of solving itself through the disappearance of the Negro people. It is thought that they are biologically incapable of adaptation to the American climatic conditions and will, through the operation of the selective forces of nature, presently become extinct. So far as this idea is anything more than the rationalization of a pious wish, it seems always to be based upon certain immature deductions from inadequate and partly analyzed statistical data.

During the last three generations many people have proposed to solve
the race problem by colonizing the Negro. The deportation scheme arose very early after the close of the Civil War and had an enthusiastic following. In spite of the manifest impossibility of carrying any such plan into execution as well as the very questionable desirability of doing so if it were possible, it has even at the present time a great many advocates. Some of the persons who advocate this type of solution would force all Negroes to migrate to Africa or elsewhere; others would colonize them in some American state or in some territory adjacent to the United States.

In his first message to Congress, December, 1861, Lincoln advocated the colonization of the thousands of Negroes who had come into custody of the Federal Government through the operations of War. Congress accordingly passed an act appropriating $600,000 to be used by him in carrying out his plan. The money appropriated for carrying out Lincoln's plan was used mostly in fruitless efforts to settle Negroes in New Granada, and on La Vache island, off the coast of Haiti.

Since the Civil War there has been only one organized effort to send the Negro out of the United States. The originator and leader of this movement was Marcus Garvey, a Negro from Jamaica, West Indies, known in 1925 as the "Negro Moses." He was at the head of an organization entitled The Universal Negro Improvement Association and African Community League. His idea was to set forces at work in Africa that would give rise to an African Empire, using the Republic of Liberia as a nucleus. Marcus Garvey was later deported from this country and his organization has

Senator Bilbo of Mississippi introduced a bill of this nature in Congress in 1939, but it failed to come to a vote.

Messages and Papers of the President, Vol. 6, p. 54.
become inactive.

William Archer, a scholarly writer on the race question about fifteen years ago, contended that the proper place to colonize the Negro was not in another country or continent but in Lower California or in some other underdeveloped region of the West. This type of colonization has persisted in the minds of numerous students of the Negro problem.

Another numerically important group of people believe that Christianity is the only solvent of racial problems but they are sometimes vague as to the practical details of the program. It would not be profitable to discuss at length the numerous proposals of which deportation, colonization and Christianity are typical.

Another approach to the race problem is by way of publicity, propaganda, and legal action; and open fight to secure for Negroes the full and complete enjoyment of constitutionally guaranteed rights. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People is the chief organization sponsoring this type of solution. This is an aggressive militant organization of biracial membership that has brought to the present-day situation the spirit and methods of abolition societies of an earlier generation. It has engaged in systematic and persistent agitation and protest against all forms of inequality in racial treatment, engaged in numerous legal struggles to stop discriminatory treatment, and lobbied extensively for legislation favorable to the interests of Negroes. The tacit assumption of this organization is that the race problem is a political problem, or at least a problem which can be solved by political means.

Another solution of the Negro problem is a very simple one, namely, to give the Negro the same civil rights as the white man. This would
eliminate the great fight that is now being made to secure civil equality for the Negro. This type of solution involves the enforcement of the decrees of our Constitution which prohibit any civil discriminations on account of race and color. This solution was the one advocated by William Lloyd Garrison and his anti-slavery followers prior to the Civil War, and since the adoption of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to our Constitution, it has been earnestly desired by many white people of the United States, including some of the highest patriotism and finest idealism.

Opponents of this solution of the race problem argue that the author of the Declaration of Independence represented a state where Negro slavery was a recognized institution, and that he had no idea that Negroes would ever be citizens of the republic. These opponents further argue that at the time of the adoption of our Constitution it was so generally understood that citizenship in this country was for Caucasians only that the question was not even discussed, and all of the original declarations of equality in our organic laws must be interpreted as having reference to the white population only.

On somewhat more intelligent levels white opinion is not formed. A certain highly articulate group advocates the immediate admission of the Negro to full social and public equality with the whites and their treatment as individuals on the basis of their personal worth. Others seem to desire their independent but somewhat separate development in order that the culture may profit by any unique contributions that they, because of their racial temperament, may be able to make. Still others are willing to grant equal civic and intellectual equality but would place
restrictions upon intermarriage and other personal and social activity. The general body of Southern opinion leans to the side of repression, to the plan of excluding the race from all participations in public life. Certain extremists would gladly see the restoration of a slave regime. The more moderate view would keep Negroes as laborers and menials, permitting such development as promised to be conducive to the comfort and convenience of the whites. Certain individuals and groups see a solution of the race problem in a manual and industrial education of Negroes, and education that would make more efficient laborers without creating discontent with an inferior racial status. The solution through popular education has in general the same reservation: it is designed, fundamentally to make Negroes a greater convenience to white people than they are as illiterates; there is no intention on the part of the advocates of popular education for Negroes, nor on the part of the philanthropic men who have contributed so generously to the elementary instruction of the race, that they shall be given equal or sufficient education to jeopardize the existing racial order. There is difference of opinion as to the type and amount of training to be provided but no radical difference of opinion as to the desirability of racial inequality in educational opportunity.

Different groups of people have advanced many different solutions of the race problem, such as (1) amalgamation; (2) race segregation; (3) a free state in the Black Belt (but the greatest danger of such a solution lies in the possibility that the immigration of dark whites from Southern Europe or Mexico may lead to a hybrid race similar to that of tropical South America); and (4) white supremacy, based on the theory of Carlyle that the right to hold and control any territory belongs to the race best
fitted to use it, and the theory that the Caucasian is unwilling to divide
responsibility of government with another race in the same territory.
Space does not permit a general discussion of each of these four proposed
solutions of the race problem. An elaborate description of these theo­
ries is found in Professor Edward B. Reuter's *The American Race Problem*,
pages 423 to 435.

A very popular present-day solution of the race problem is the Inter­
Racial Commission. Here there is apparently an acceptance of the essential
political soundness of a bi-racial organization and the assumption that
satisfactory relations may be maintained between competing nationalistic
groups within the same political unit by diplomatic mediation. The
Commission on Inter-Racial Cooperation grew out of the spirit of unrest
among Negroes in the United States following the World War. The situation
suggested to the minds of several prominent religious workers the idea of
a conference to devise some means by which better relations between the
races might be established.

In furtherance of this idea a conference was held in Atlanta, Georgia,
in 1919, attended by men and women of both races from all sections of the
country. After a general discussion of the situation the conference
issued the following proclamation:

*We, a group of Christians, deeply interested in the welfare of our entire community, irrespective
of race, or class distinction, and frankly facing the many evidences of racial unrest which in some
places have already culminated in terrible tragedies, would call the people of our own beloved
community to a calm consideration of our situation before extremists are allowed to create a condition
where reason is impossible.*

Jerome Dowd, op. cit. p. 555.
The idea of calling together representatives of both races to discuss differences met an enthusiastic response from the thinking public, and led to the formation of an Inter-Racial Commission whose purpose has been to bring about racial cooperation throughout the Southern states. The Y. M. C. A. appropriated money to finance the work of this Commission and furnished the leaders to direct the work. The Commission has its head-quarters at Atlanta, Georgia.

The Inter-Racial Commission has now established in each Southern state a general committee on inter-racial cooperation, composed of about twenty members, equally divided between the races. This state committee has general direction of all matters involving race relationships. It appoints two general state secretaries, one from each race, who are paid salaries, and generally required to give all of their time to organizing county inter-racial committees within the state, and to initiate plans and programs for the promotion of the mutual welfare of the races.

The work of the county inter-racial committees varies according to local needs. The activities of the committee have to do mostly with such matters as justice in the courts, repression of mobs, better school facilities, adequate libraries, parks, and the improvement of sanitary conditions. The county committee generally cooperates with the county and city governments, the boards of education, the superintendent of education, chamber of commerce, churches and other organizations which might be helpful in any program of common welfare.

From the headquarters of the Inter-Racial Commission in Atlanta, handbooks and pamphlets are sent to the state inter-racial commissions, and to the county inter-racial commissions, offering suggestions as to what
to do, and giving information as to what has been and is being done through out the South for the betterment of the Negro population. About a thousand county inter-racial committees have been organized in the several states and are functioning in cooperation with their state committees and the national committee.

It was the work of the Inter-Racial Commission of North Carolina that made it legally possible for Negroes in that State to ride on the busses. In Tennessee the state committee and state secretary were active in getting the legislature to appropriate $100,000 for the Negro A. and M. College, making available $222,000 more in conditional gifts from other sources. In Virginia the inter-racial committees assisted in clearing the Manassas Industrial School (Negro) from debt by raising $28,000. In Louisville, Kentucky, the inter-racial committee and state secretary assisted in raising $40,000 among the white people for Simmons University, a colored institution. In Hopkins County, Kentucky, the county inter-racial committee succeeded in averting the lynching of a Negro who had been accused of the murder of a white man. These few examples illustrate great influence of the Inter-Racial Commission in bringing about better race relations in the South.

This brief description of racial attitudes, sentiments and proposed solutions of the race problem should issue a challenge to the presidents and other administrative officers of Negro land-grant colleges to "blaze the trail" that will completely conquer race prejudice and bring about a feeling of "peace and good will toward all men", regardless of race, color, or creed.

Drawing upon the experiences of such groups as the National Y. M. and Y. W. C. A., the Southern Sociological Congress, the University
Commission, made up of professors in Southern universities, The Federal Council of Churches in Christ, and the Inter-Racial Commission which have been successful in constructively altering the old patterns of race relations in various localities, these projects may be noted as types of possible and useful activity for Negro land-grant colleges:

1. Encouraging and aiding participation of Negro groups in the work of such organizations as the Parent-Teacher Associations, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Women's Christian Associations, Leagues of Women Voters, Better Government Leagues, and similar organizations.

2. Working with local administrative officials to secure the inclusion of Negroes in public provisions for education, health, recreation and work.

3. Urging the broadening of the study of race problems in high school and college courses in sociology. In this connection should be mentioned the recommendation of field work projects, under competent direction, in the race or interracial field, and the use of white and Negro lecturers of high grade and sound understanding. The Phelps-Stokes Fellowship Studies at the University of Georgia are excellent examples of the usefulness of this type of special programs.

4. Urging a wide dissemination of literature which can help acquaint the general public with the correctable handicaps, as well as the striking evidences of the cultural development, of the Negro.

5. Planning to insure the inclusion of Negroes in the cultural and economic advantages provided by the local community, whether
these take the form of cooperatives or forums, musical programs or lectures.

(6) Making provision for the discussion of Negro welfare in local committees and an equitable share in the measures developed for the relief of the underprivileged.

(7) Cooperating with local librarians to the extent of recommending or securing for general reading a useful selection of books of poetry, novels, and problem discussion dealing with the Negro.

(8) Working with the various organizations of labor to insure the inclusion of Negro workers in a sound economic and labor policy.

(9) Assisting in the correction of injurious misstatements in the press.

(10) Expressing an active and pointed condemnation of such public crimes as mob violence and lynching, the prostitution of the courts in response to racial prejudice, and the economic exploitation of defenseless minorities, not merely in the interest of these minorities but in the interest of the morality of the nation itself.

(11) Encouraging constructive experiences such as musical programs, poetry reading, and folk plays which utilize Negro talent and racial experience.

(12) Creating actual occasions for meeting, and the participation of Negro individuals in public affairs which have no specific relation to race problems as such.

This list could be continued, but only as evidences of the resourcefulness on individuals and groups of various communities, who have allowed
their professed concern for social justice and a Christian way of life to find expression in practical action.

The South must be made to realize that the cost of prejudice and segregation is great both in money and in dissipation of energy. There is extra expense in having to maintain two school systems, separate libraries, separate parks; in building two sets of waiting rooms in bus and railroad stations and maintaining separate passenger cars even on little frequented routes; in supporting white and colored public nurses, and welfare agents, farm and home demonstration agents, and Smith-Hughes Vocational teachers. However inadequate and poor the provision for Negroes, they represent some added expense to the South, a section of the country least able to provide funds even for a single system of public services.

It seems to me that the first step in the direction of good will and cooperation among the races of the world is that they come to know each other. In the high school and colleges of our country there should be courses dealing with the culture and contributions to civilizations of the several great races of the world, especially of the races living under our flag. The study of race cultures is one of the most broadening and elevating branches of human inquiry, if we are able to lay aside prejudices and seek in each race its genius and its service in the forward march of civilization. The Negro land-grant colleges should therefore include in their curricula several courses dealing with the study of the races and employ competent people, Negro or white, to teach such courses. It seems to me that in the study of race relations the American people should begin with the American Negro, first, because of his numerical importance.
and secondly, because he offers a greater contrast than any other race to the Caucasians who founded our government.

THE FUTURE OF THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGE

It is, of course, impossible to prophesy with absolute certainty what the future — even the very near future — will bring forth when change is so rapid. With regard to general changes in the plant, equipment and instructional facilities of Negro land-grant colleges, fairly safe predictions may doubtless be made.

These colleges should in the future gradually increase in these respects to the point where they meet fully the material standards of regional and national accrediting agencies. Many of the institutions should develop until they compare favorably with the better white colleges of the South and of the nation at large. In the opinion of the writer, however, the greatest change will not be in things material but in the aims and spirit of the institutions. Hence, the present discussion will be confined to this phase of probable development.

Since it seems likely that the dual system of education will persist indefinitely in the Southern states it is reasonable to expect Negro land-grant colleges to continue as a part of that dual system. Nevertheless, it is not inconceivable that a few state universities in the northerly of the Southern states may within the next generation or so admit Negro students to several graduate or technical divisions, provided that no such work is offered in the state colleges and universities for Negroes. Perhaps even this is unlikely.

There is, however, a leaven at work whose future effects cannot possibly be gauged at the present time. This new force is the movement
in white colleges fostered by the Commission on Interracial Cooperation.

Mr. R. B. Eleazer, Educational Director of the Commission, writes as follows:

As you will observe, we are seeking to promote as widely as possible the study of race relations in the white colleges, with the hope of providing a basis for intelligent and fair-minded attitude on the part of teachers and students. So far as we know, no systematic efforts of the same sort are being made in the Negro schools. We have not attempted to go very much into the field, in view of the fact that the primary responsibility for our problems of race prejudice undoubtedly rests on the white group, and also because any effective approach to the prejudices of the Negro students will probably have to come from within the group itself. As you will see, a great many of the white colleges are attempting to do something constructive in this field and their interest, we feel, is steadily broadening.

The earnestness of the movement among white southern institutions may be readily seen in the reports of the Peabody Conferences of 1934 and 1935. The report of the first of these Conferences shows that southern colleges are making an attack upon the problem in various ways. A statistical summary follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colleges embraced in survey</th>
<th>155</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colleges giving specific courses</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of such courses</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges giving correlated treatment</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of race relations in sociology, history and other subjects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of such courses</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total race relations courses, specific and correlated</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges giving these courses (excluding duplicates)</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Commission on Inter-racial Cooperation, *The Quest for Understanding*, p. 3. 1934.
It must be understood, however, that the movement is not confined to the college campus. An attempt is being made to transform the spirit of the entire school systems from kindergarten through the graduate school. This transformation is intended to bring the various problems involved in the relations of the white and the Negro to a true focus, undistorted by groundless prejudices so that a fair appraisal may be made of the Negro's place in, and contribution to, American life. Mr. Eleazer sums up the place of education in such a program as follows:

(1) America desperately needs the contribution which only education can make toward the solution of its racial problems: (2) education has an inescapable obligation to render this needed service: and (3) this contribution can be made normally and properly in connection with almost any subject in college and public school. What we need is not propaganda, but simply such an objective presentation of facts as will stimulate the Negro to do his best, and prepare the white man to give him a man's chance.

The program should be adapted to the level of the individual's development whether he be a kindergarten child on the one hand or a college student on the other. That it is possible to adapt such material to the needs of even kindergarten children is shown by Dr. Edwin L. Clarke

Commission on Interracial Cooperation, op. cit., p. 11.
Let us begin with children in the first grade, or even in the kindergarten. Obviously they do not need to have the body of fact data which adults need. If they are properly trained, however, it is quite possible for them to act just as socially as though they were provided with all knowledge on the race problem. This of course is very desirable, for if children can acquire desirable habits while they are small, they have an excellent foundation for adult behavior.

At this stage little children need particularly to acquire two ideas regarding race: (1) They must know that persons should be judged as individuals, and not according to race. That is, they must get over the lumping fallacy, if they have ever cherished it. (2) They must be led to appreciate the fact of social solidarity — that in the gain or loss of one race all other races gain or lose.

It is further pointed out that all school subjects: reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, literature, music, art, civics and economics in the public school curriculum and many college and teacher-training courses may be made inconspicuous and natural vehicles for the formation of wholesome attitudes.

That changes in attitude can be brought about is well illustrated at Furman College in Greenville, South Carolina, an institution located in the "deep south" in a section steeped in traditions handed down from the period of slavery, Civil War and Reconstruction. At this institution a course on the Negro was conducted in 1931-32, which enrolled twenty-one students, fourteen men and seven women. Twenty questions were asked at the beginning of the course and the students were requested to state their opinions regardless of how unfavorable they might be. At the end of the course the same twenty questions were asked and the

9 Ibid., p. 16.
11 Commission on Interracial Cooperation, Education and Race Adjustment, p. 21, 1935.
students again registered their opinions. The marked change in attitude on the part of some individuals may be shown by the following answers to two selected questions:

Question 1. What is your immediate reaction to the word "Negro?" (Students were told to write without study the first 25 or 50 words occurring to them upon mention of the word "Negro").

Among answers in the first questionnaire were the following: Stupid, lazy, unlikable, dishonest, cowardly, mean; the lowest form of human beings; a piece of fallen humanity; a person who needs character education; people black in color and in character; was made as a servant only; leave them alone.

After taking the course, the same students said in immediate response to the word "Negro" such things as these: A grossly mistreated race; sympathy for the Negro and shame for the white race; neither love nor hate, but tolerance and fair play; we should be our brother's keeper. Two students said: "He is still repulsive; he is still black;" but even they added, "Give him a chance."

Question 2. Should the Negro have any part in the government?

Some of the answers in the first group were as follows: No, very positively, because of their low standards; they should pay taxes, but should go no further; let them vote, but not hold office; a very small part, proportionate to their numbers; Yes, but only in regulating their own race. One young woman, who answered many other questions rather favorable, said in response to this one: "I cannot bear the thought of Negroes having any part in the government."

But at the end of their course, the students said: A large part in ruling their own race; they should have a fair number of offices; give them the same opportunities as whites in the civil service; Yes, they are due a voice in government; they should have the same rights as the white man. The young woman who at first could not "bear the thought" said in the second questionnaire: "Yes, in state legislatures, in the national Congress, and elsewhere. Whites fought the Revolutionary War because they had no part in government."

Some considerable emphasis has been placed upon these newer developments in interracial understandings because they will in the future have at least two important influences on the higher education of Negroes.

Ibid., pp. 21-26.
In the first place Negro colleges, whether they desire to or not, have
spent a considerable amount of time and energy in fighting that insidious
propaganda which seeks to label the Negro as inherently inferior. When
once this propaganda has been stopped and the Negro is studied in all
schools as a contribution to the development of the nation, the colleges
may turn this released time and energy to other ends. In the second
place, the change of attitude on the part of the white South will ultim­
ately bring about a questioning of the wisdom of preserving the dual system
of education in all departments, and levels of technical schools, colleges
and universities. If, as a result of this questioning, Negro students are
admitted to certain departments of white southern state institutions,
these departments will not have to be supported in Negro state institutions
at additional cost to the tax payers. Thus the aims and purposes of
Negro institutions may be materially affected.

Recently the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary
Schools, which embraces educational institutions in twenty or more states,
has changed its basis for accrediting colleges. Turning from its former
emphasis upon the approval of the material resources of colleges applying
for membership, it is now placing its emphasis upon institutional aims
and their accomplishment.

President Coffman in discussing the application of the new standards
states:

... there will be a significant shift of emphasis in the
method of accrediting. Books, beakers, Ph. D's, entrance
credits, and hours required for graduation may be counted,
but if they are, they will be only as secondary considerations.

L. D. Coffman, "The Work of the Committee on Revision of Standards—
A Summary and Interpretation", North Central Association Quarterly,
September, p. 270, 1937.
Even income and endowment will fade into the background. The first and pivotal question which will be put to every institution will be: What is it that as a college you are trying to do? What are your educational objectives? The significance of this can scarcely be estimated... The answer which an institution gives to this question of its objectives will be used as a denominator. The answer to the next question will be the numerator. This question will be, How well do students, faculty, teaching, library, laboratory, curricula, buildings, college administration, student administrations, extra-curricular activities, and finances, support these objectives? In short, how well is this particular school doing what it says it should be doing?

Some of the implications that Dr. Coffman points out as worth mentioning are: (1) That there will be no necessity of any school being like any other to the accredited; (2) That each institution will be free to determine what type of institution it will seek to be without regard to the practices or prejudices of other schools; (3) Experimentation will be encouraged; (4) Standards, whatever their character, will be regarded as minimum rather than maximum attainments.

This is the type of standards needed to free the Negro land-grant college to do for students what should be done for their completest development. Dr. Wilson has expressed his opinion that there need be no essential difference between the education of whites and the education of Negroes. Dr. Carter G. Woodson of the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History set this problem in clear perspective when he wrote:

14 L. D. Coffman, op. cit.
The element of race does not enter here. It is merely a matter of exercising common sense in approaching people through their environment in order to deal with conditions as they are rather than as you would like to see them or imagine that they are. There may be a difference in method of attack, but the principle remains the same.

What then is this change of aim and spirit which is necessary to approach the education of the Negro in his environment? It must turn upon the old question, "What knowledge is of most worth?" And in seeking to answer this query, which, of course, must be an individual matter, the college of the future will begin with the student as he is and strive to make him a better individual of the kind he is. The Negro land-grant college of the future will find ways of aiding the student in the fulfillment of three commands: (1) Know thy self; (2) Be thyself; and (3) Improve thyself. It will not attempt to pour all students into a single mould. Instead it will seek to emphasize individuality and wholesome differences, growing out of background and experience. It will study the realities of life and equip the student to grapple with these realities.

This latter has been aptly epitomized by Dr. N. C. Newbold, director of Negro Education in North Carolina, as follows:

... you will not find in the colleges of the future students laboring over Greek verbs in a college that offers no course in health education, or giving profound thought to the intricacies of Aristotelian logic while ignoring the plight of the tenant farmer, a probable victim of peonage, laboring in the field across the road from the college campus.

The Negro college of the future will provide both students and teachers with the means for research in the problems which grow out of

Quoted from "The Future College for the Higher Education of Negroes" which is in Chapter VI of McKinney's, Higher Education among Negroes, p. 92, 1935.
community life and needs. There will be developed toward this end not only a genuine academic atmosphere but a community of free spirits united in a common enterprise. Fear and regimentation will have no place in this new type of collegiate community. There will of necessity be security of tenure for the instructor, who may thus devote his energies to the advance of knowledge rather than to political manipulation or the assumption of a hypocritical servility in the hope of securing preferment. Nor will the student stand in awe of the teacher. Instead there will be developed a spirit of cooperation which recognizes both the student and the teacher as fellow-workers in the task of dispelling the errors of ignorance and discovering not only truth in the academic sense but the true values of life by which men should live for their fullest realization.

In short, the Negro land-grant colleges of the future will use all the facilities of the institution, including officers, teachers and the immediate campus environment to give the student a new sense of direction. It will not attempt to make all students teachers, tradesmen or administrators but to provide the means of growth into the real culture that comes from living a full and fruitful life regardless of whether the vocation be of high or low estate.

The Negro land-grant college of the future will give the student a new sense of personal worth and the determination to find his place of greatest contribution to American society. It will give him the determina­tion to strive day in and day out to make that contribution honorably, unashamed and unafraid.

Summary. It was the purpose of this chapter to show the function of the Negro land-grant college in the improvement of Negro life in the
South. But in order to show the importance of this function, it was
necessary for us to consider first the present backgrounds in which the
colleges now operate. With this object in view, we attempted, in chapter
V, to analyze, at some length, the present social, economic, political, and
educational backgrounds of the Negro land-grant colleges. This background
enabled us to set up a proposed program for the colleges in light of the
present needs of Negroes in the Southern states. This program centered
around the following points: (1) the elimination of present system of
farm tenancy and the establishment of a system of small, farm ownership
in its place; (2) the improvement of the training of Negro rural-
school teachers; (3) the improvement of farm and home life of the rural
Negro; (4) the building up of a well-trained class of Negro tradesmen
to serve the town and cities, especially in the South; and (5) the
introduction of strong movements for better relations between the races and
the formulation of a constructive basis for racial understanding. If
the Negro land-grant colleges will adopt and strive to carry out this
five-point program as their major, social responsibility, definite improve­
ment in Negro life in the South can be assured.
CHAPTER VII

PHILOSOPHY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

PHILOSOPHY

For the sake of brevity and clarity in this topic, the term "college" will be used in a sense which includes both colleges and universities. It has already been pointed out that various names have been chosen for the Negro land-grant institutions. They will be referred to uniformly as "colleges" in this chapter.

We mean by a man's beliefs all those judgments, from certainties or convictions at one extreme to mere impressions at the other, upon which he customarily acts. The pursuit of this study of the Negro land-grant colleges has deepened our confidence in this concept of the term "philosophy". It has been easy to see the Negro land-grant college as an effort on the part of man to place into actual service to mankind a set of beliefs.

The Negro land-grant college involves, possibly, both positive and negative comments. By that is meant that in the study of these institutions made from the point of view of their probable philosophy, some estimates deal with features which have not appealed to the writer as being advantageous to the welfare of either these institutions or to college education as a whole. Nevertheless, favorable or unfavorable in their appeal to the writer, the points offered seem to stand out as characteristic of the situation as it exists.

Even though the writer has had an unusual urge to study this subject from a biased point, because of his active participation in a Negro land-grant college, he has attempted to make the study impartially and to arrive at conclusions not colored by a personal experience or point of view. He
has attempted to use the personal experience method in the drawing of any conclusions which are herewith presented. It is his feeling that his close contact with Negro land-grant colleges has contributed to an understanding of the underlying philosophy of them which could not be gained in any other way.

**A Philosophy of Adjustment.** It seems, in the first place, that the philosophy of the land-grant college, both Negro and white, might be termed a philosophy of adjustment. The historical treatment accorded this subject in the earlier pages of this thesis reveals many points which seem to point toward the shaping of a philosophy which might be so named.

Education, for the individual, is primarily a matter of acquiring in some way knowledge which will enable him to move through his life in the world and amongst people, society, with some degree of success. He must attempt to survive. He must attempt to do his share of the world's work. He must build his home, his niche in the world, and make it a satisfactory place to him. He must try to so fit himself into the scheme of things as to be accorded an honorable position in the community. He must attempt to find happiness. Whatever he has to do in order to prepare himself to accomplish any or a part of these things is a part of his education. His education may be something which is done to him, or it may be something which, by his own efforts, he has added to himself. This is a broad view of education, but it is a view which present day educators seem to hold, when one boils down longer definitions to their fundamental meanings. If this view is maintained, education, then, must change as man changes or develops with civilization. What goes to make up education must be re-defined as the requirements of the individuals change. If the individual were to remain in the same sort of circumstance of condition as pertained to every
other individual, as had characterized past generations, of promises to hold
in the future days, the type of educational fitting process would remain un-
changed. But, individuals and their environments and their settings in this
world of affairs and men do change, and their equipment of essential know-
ledge is constantly being altered.

Education, from the point of view of society, serves society best when it
prepares individuals for that society in such a manner that each one may
accomplish the purpose mentioned above. The community, as a whole, will be
no better than the aggregate of individuals who make it up. The community,
acting as such, therefore, must find it to be a matter of self-preservation
at least, to assist in creating and maintaining means of education for its
individuals.

The land-grant college system taking its initial inspiration from the
very wording of the Morrill Act, has repeatedly insisted that:

A. Agriculture and industry are absolutely essential to life and prosper-
ity of American people.

B. The development of both agriculture and industry has been rapid;
invention and discovery together with economic urges have changed; both agri-
cultural or industrial pursuits will be finding themselves engaged in work
which will be changing, probably continuously and at varied rates.

C. The economic significance of building and maintaining a stable and
sound agriculture and industry in America renders it vitally necessary to
insure that those engaged in such work must be adequately prepared for their
work, that is, educated to fitness for those undertakings.

D. Such utilitarian pursuits as are to be found either in agriculture
or industry necessitate a type of education which is best described by "learning
by doing". New types of courses and institutions were needed to aid exist-
ing collegiate organizations if such types of education in agricultural and
industrial fields were to be made available to the people of the country.

E. Educational methods and educational subject matters must change with
changes in man, his environment, his life situations and his needs. No static
knowledge gathered in ages past, no matter how interesting and useful in it-
self would suffice, except as interpretative backgrounds. The situation has
called for a knowledge of recent findings, of down to the minute facts.

F. Such educational needs were mandatory because of these factors and
situations which have just been enumerated.

A changing agriculture and a changing industry demand changing or changed
individuals, individuals capable of adaptation to the ever-occurring changes.
The process of change in human set-ups spells constant re-adjustment of in-
dividuals if changed environment is to be accomplished. It is in this sense
that the underlying philosophy of adjustment that the land-grant institutions
were admittedly conceived for this fundamental purpose, and the trend of their
development has been along that same avenue of thought.

As a philosophy of education, at the higher levels or at any levels, as
a matter of fact, this concept of so formulating educational courses and
methods as to economically and efficiently aid individuals and society to adjust
themselves to changing world conditions is tangible and easily grasped. It
partakes of a naturalist philosophy of life in many respects. It is to be
remembered that the land-grant college movement especially among Negroes has
dealt with comparatively few phases of life experience. It has dealt with
the utilitarian fields of agriculture and industry. Incidentally, it is
interesting to note that while the movement started by giving equal attention
to agricultural and mechanical industries, it is the farmer who has reaped the greater benefits and has had the far greater development. The Negro land-grant college has not attempted to formulate a complete philosophy of life as a whole. It has attempted to formulate its beliefs as to the sort of education needed by people whose lives were to be closely associated with agriculture and industry, and to set down with some clarity and distinctiveness the fundamental objectives of such a system.

It seems indeed true that one of the most important tenets in the land-grant colleges' philosophy is that of helping individuals, and thus societies to adjustment to conditions and situations as they may arise in the great American agriculture and industry. The economic urge would justify this alone, but the urge of finding happiness in human existence here in this world is also compelling. The person unadjusted to his surroundings or this world is also compelling. The person unadjusted to his surroundings or the conditions under which he has to live and work is rarely a happy and contented person. The community which is made up of such unadjusted individuals cannot but be an unhappy place.

A Philosophy of Economic and Social Stability. At the time that Senator Morrill made his entreaties before the United States Senate his greatest stress was laid upon the economic significance of American agriculture and industry. From this day forward the land-grant college, Negro and white, has kept that economic or business phase of the project uppermost in mind. The annual reports of the various agricultural and industrial organizations throughout the country attest to the tremendous impetus which the work of the land-grant college and their kindred institutions has given to agricultural and industrial production and distribution. There has unquestionably been nothing
short of colossal increase in both quantity and quality of the yields of these fields of endeavor. A chief objective of the land-grant college from the outset has been to develop and teach methods of economical and efficient farming and industrial operations for the express purpose of increasing national output.

Since this thesis is being written in the midst of a serious economic depression wherein the peculiar phenomenon of "starvation in the midst of plenty" has been seen, and wherein something dangerously akin to agricultural and industrial over-production has occurred, it is but fair to remark that this early objective of the land-grant colleges has succeeded, even too well at times and in places.

The deeply imbedded philosophy, however, has been a belief that the humanity involved in the development and continuance of agriculture and industry in America would not be happy unless economically safe. It has implied and expressed the belief that the welfare and happiness of the nation and even of humanity at large was tied up with the degree of success which might be made to attend agricultural and industrial pursuits in this country.

The objective of the educational system of land-grant college thus set up was, then, to definitely serve agriculture and industry by giving them trained personnel, and new facts upon which to base improvements in production and distribution.

This phase of the philosophy gets somewhat away from the individual, or even society, the collection of individuals, as the chief beneficiaries of the educational process, and sees industry and agriculture directly benefiting from the programs set up under the new scheme.
It is no small matter that this great system of publicly owned and operated collegiate institutions for Negroes avowedly made the improvement of basic industries a major objective of their activities.

CONCLUSIONS

In the preceding chapters a historical development of the seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes has been given. Some comparisons have been made showing tendencies of growth. Because of the conditions under which these institutions were established and under which they have developed, the program of Negro land-grant colleges constitutes a unique and highly important educational experiment in this country. Instead of coming into being as a result of a slow and steady period of evolution, as white land-grant colleges, the Negro land-grant colleges were established for the most part in haste and without an adequate supporting student body.

The Negro land-grant colleges have, nevertheless, gained strength and prestige. It still remains to be seen, however, whether collegiate curricula strongly infused with vocational courses can prove their worth as a compromise between the stricter types of professional courses in agriculture, home economics, and the mechanic arts and those purely vocational in character.

1) The land-grant colleges for Negroes have developed on the part of States a sense of responsibility for technical education for Negroes and a realization that education is a developmental function in which the State and Nation must take an active part. Negro land-grant colleges have perfected a type of vocational training upon which is dependent the permanent welfare of the colored race. Agriculture, industry, and home-making form the basis of national prosperity; they have been greatly benefited by the educational, research, and extension activities which have been carried on
by Negro colleges. The majority of the Negro leaders in agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics have been and are still being trained at these institutions.

(2) One of the most important aims of education is to train men and women who can think clearly and correctly. Negro land-grant colleges, during the earlier years of their existence, trained their students to do things and stressed the value of practical education. Up to 1920 the tendency had been to place too much emphasis upon studies which lead to the greatest usefulness immediately after graduation. Since 1920 the utilitarian phase has been giving way to the idealistic. Those who have been directing the policies of these institutions during the past decade have been stressing the training in the fundamental, have been reducing the number of informational courses, have been discouraging the development of the memory or of the skill of a student at the expense of reasoning power, have been trying to awaken the creative instinct of the undergraduate, have been stimulating in him independence of thought and self-reliance, and in the furtherance of these ends have placed a high valuation upon good teaching.

(3) Since 1920 the land-grant colleges for Negroes have become conscious of the need for higher and more uniform concepts of collegiate training as they apply to the major training divisions. This has been brought about by the demand for standardized courses in teacher training and the desire to bring technical training to the same level as that given in the white land-grant colleges.

(4) Fortunately, at least two forces are now actively at work in strengthening the Negro land-grant colleges:

1. The student medium is rapidly increasing through the increased support of Negro elementary and secondary schools, and;
2. Educational standards are being set up for the institutions by the state boards of education, regional accrediting organizations, and the professional schools.

(5) The Negro land-grant colleges should look forward to an exceptional period of development within the next decade because of the continuing growth of industrial activity in the Southern States. The increase in wealth resulting from these activities should continually release opportunities for those Negroes who are prepared.

(6) The Negro land-grant colleges have trained thousands of men and women for intelligent service and wise leadership in school, home and community improvement. The cost has been nominal in comparison with the returns to all the people in economic prosperity and effective citizenship. Through Negro farm and home demonstration agents, who have been trained in these institutions, the South each year has added hundreds of millions of dollars to its income. Much of this added income has been used to build better roads, provide better schools, develop better towns and cities, and make better citizens.

(7) The leadership contributed by Negro land-grant colleges has been able to make these institutions the promising centers of the gradual raising of the structure and standards of local public education. This was a difficult diplomatic task for two reasons:

(1) Southern sentiment was hard to change on the subject of full and complete education for the Negro; and

(2) the Negro himself found contentment in unknown loyalty to a state which neither recognized him nor considered his welfare or educational benefit.

The seventeen land-grant colleges for Negroes have, therefore, made a distinct contribution in that they have familiarized the Southern mind with the idea of advanced education for the Negro citizen, and have proved
that the state recognizes the solemn obligation of providing liberal education for its colored people. Negro land-grant colleges have also helped to shift opinion from the idea that Negro education, especially higher education, should be bestowed by philanthropic and missionary enterprises rather than furnished as an obligation upon the public's purse. This encouraging attitude of the South has been brought about mainly through the sales of educational services.

(8) The Negro land-grant colleges have also insisted upon a well-paid, well-housed, well-fed, well-clothed, money-making middle class for the economic backbone of the race. The tradesman, craftsman, artisan, mechanic, skilled and semi-skilled workers compose this group. Without this important middle class substantial progress is questionable if not impossible. Governor Hardman of Georgia voiced this opinion on November 1, 1927, when he said that "the desire has been created in them (Negro land-grant colleges) to place their race on an efficiency basis by practical, applied education, thus enabling them to serve better the country and themselves". President M. W. Dogan of Wiley College, Marshall, Texas, further reiterated this point when he said that the Negroes economic handicap will be offset by "pouring an increasing number of productive workers into the industrial stream of society".

No one who has regularly visited the Negro land-grant colleges over a period of years can fail to be impressed with the great changes that have been made in the character of the students, in their attitudes toward work and study, and their increasing sense of responsibility. This has been brought about in a large part by the improvement in teaching. Twenty years ago, much of the college work of these institutions was
formal and vague. It was out of "adjustment with real life". Before 1920 the humility of the students was obtained largely through social restraint both in and out of the college. Today there is a quietness and dignity in the student body of Negro land-grant colleges, which has been developed through a clearer knowledge of the laws of nature and of the historic forces which are advancing or retarding our civilization.

As the future points to an unlimited economic development in the South, it appears that the well-trained Negro youth can look forward to a greater participation in the different kinds of work which this development promises.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

As a result of the facts developed in this study a number of outstanding changes could and should be made in the government, administration, and educational programs of Negro land-grant colleges:

1. While the financial support of land-grant colleges for Negroes by State and Federal Government gives them a peculiarly favorable position in the educational activities of their state, ineffective administration, and inadequate state support have made it impossible for many of them to take advantage of their position. The Federal Government has suffered both from a lack of machinery to supervise its appropriations and also from a feeling that the management belongs primarily to the states. The large majority of the Southern states, however, lacks both machinery and interest and a number of them make but small appropriations to supplement the Federal funds. The result has been that the administration of most of the institutions has been left to colored presidents of the institutions and boards of white or mostly white trustees whose educational interest in the Negro has
been uncertain. Increased interest, supervision, and appropriations of the states, and a representative number of Negroes on each of the boards of trustees would make possible a greater development of Negro land-grant colleges.

(2) Having become conscious of their responsibilities as colleges, the program of these institutions must be one of diversification, not on the basis of opinions or traditional views, but rather on the basis of scientific knowledge of the needs of both the Negro and white populations in each state.

(3) Since these institutions are designed to give both technical and general training and since nearly two-thirds of all the students in Negro colleges are taught in privately endowed colleges and universities which emphasize cultural and religious training, it is incumbent upon the Negro land-grant college to give the proper stress to technical objectives and in no case allow these objectives to be lost.

(4) The problem of the Negro land-grant colleges in term of the law that gave them birth and in terms of the needs of the people is to universalize self-support and individual development for the rising generation of Negro youth not on the single level of effort, which was formerly emphasized, but on higher educational planes that are now open and that are gradually opening to those who are adequately prepared. Emphasis should, therefore, be placed on the importance of cooperative effort in the realm of business endeavor.

(5) With the cooperation of their States, Negro land-grant colleges should prepare leaders and teachers who will be devoted to the complete rehabilitation of the economic, social, political, and spiritual activities of the Negro race.

(6) The authorities of the Negro land-grant colleges should develop
a more adequate program of publicity which will make clear to Negro parents and youth the advantage of the types of training that are offered in these institutions.

(7) Particular attention should be given in the future to the selection of officials of Negro land-grant colleges who are not only in sympathy with the technical programs of these institutions, but who have been thoroughly trained in the agricultural, mechanic-arts, home economics, and educational fields.

(8) The Negro land-grant colleges should unite more closely with the white land-grant colleges in establishing their programs of agricultural training. Surveys should be made in the industrial fields which will disclose new openings for those with training in the mechanic arts or in the trades, and at the same time expand and develop opportunities already open.

(9) The executives and heads of major divisions should be required to visit and make more suitable contacts with white land-grant colleges and to make reports of such visits.

(10) Increased opportunities should be given the deans, registrars, and treasurers of Negro land-grant colleges to associate themselves actively with the national societies promoting such work.

(11) Accounting systems of Negro land-grant colleges should be made uniform as far as possible in order to facilitate appraisals of income and expenditure.

(12) The colleges should send periodicals regarding students who show inadequate high-school preparation or deficient entrance requirements to the principals of high-schools concerned and to the proper county, city, or
State educational officials.

(13) The president of Negro land-grant colleges should be relieved as far as possible of minor details of handling business and office work and should be provided with adequate assistants for the performance of such duties.

(14) A careful revision of salaries now paid administrative officers and staff members should be made in the light of the demands which are now being made on Negro professors to meet the same educational standards as white professors. There is an immediate need for an increase in the salaries for the different professional ranks of professors in Negro land-grant colleges. With the same training and experience, there is no reason why administrators and staff members of Negro land-grant colleges should not receive the same salaries as those of white land-grant colleges.

(15) The work in the Negro land-grant colleges and the white land-grant colleges could be more closely integrated if Negro land-grant colleges were given membership in the National Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, with the privilege of sending their representatives to its annual meetings.

(16) All Negro land-grant colleges should bring their faculties up to a minimum of ten full-time college professors.

(17) If the Negro land-grant colleges are to fulfill their destiny, if they are to become the prime instruments of the Negro race, and if they are to achieve a joint contribution with white land-grant colleges and universities in the development of an intelligent and prosperous citizenship, the leaders of both races must have a greater understanding of the functions of the Negro land-grant colleges. When these leaders have come to appreciate the significance of these seventeen, still-developing institutions, fifteen
of which have been in existence less than half a century, the general public can then be taught that the State has provided and will continue to provide an education and training which will give to every ambitious Negro youth an opportunity to attain his fullest development at a minimum cost of money.
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APPENDICES A., B., C., D., AND E.
APPENDIX A

Alabama. By an act approved February 13, 1991, the legislature accepted the terms of the Morrill Act of 1890 and provided that: (section 2).

"The division of the funds to be received under said act approved August 30, 1890, between one college for white students and one institution for colored students shall be based from year to year upon the ratio of the number of each race of legal school age to the population of school in the State of Alabama, as shown by the State School census next preceding the annual payment of said fund by the United States Treasury, said ratio being for the fiscal year (1888-89), white (56.6) fifty-six and six-tenths per cent, colored (43.4) forty-three and four tenths per cent; it being provided that the division may be at any time modified by the written consent of the Secretary of the Interior of the United States and Governor of Alabama."

Arkansas. On April 9, 1991 the legislature accepted the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890 and provided: (Section 4058).

"By an act of the general assembly of April 9, 1891, the State of Arkansas accepted the grant and assented to the provisions of an act of Congress of August 30, 1890, for the more complete endowment and support of the colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanic arts, established under the act of Congress of July 2, 1862. One of the conditions of said grant was that in States where the white and Negro races were separately educated and there was a college for the education of the Negro race, that the State should equitably divide said appropriation. Pursuant thereto the State of Arkansas divided the same as follows: Eight-elevenths for the Industrial University (now University of Arkansas) at Fayetteville, and three-elevetns for the Branch Normal College (now known as the Arkansas State College) thereof, at Pine Bluff."

Delaware. By a joint resolution of the legislature of Delaware, approved February 12, 1891, Delaware accepted the provisions of the 1890 Morrill Act and provided that:

"The State Treasurer is hereby directed and required to pay annually to the treasurer of the State College for Colored Students' 20 per cent, one fifth of the sum of money which he, the said State Treasurer, has already received and hereafter shall receive annually by virtue of an act of Congress approved August 30, 1890."

Florida. By a joint resolution of the State legislature approved
June 8, 1891, the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890 were accepted. (Section 269) The resolution declared:

"A normal school for colored teachers (Known now as The Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College) is established at Tallahassee, Leon County, similar in all respects as prescribed for the establishment of the normal school for white teachers, and subject to the direction and control of the State Board of Education."

Georgia. By an act of the legislature December 12, 1866, it was enacted that his Excellency, the Governor of this State, be hereby authorized and requested in such manner as he may deem best, to apply for, receive and sell the lands and land scrip to which the State of Georgia is entitled, under an act of Congress entitled:

"An act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, approved 2nd July, 1862, by virtue of an acceptance thereof as signified in an act of this State approved 10th March, 1866 to invest in like manner as he may deem best, the proceeds of said sale or sales in the bonds of this State, and disburse the interest of said investment for the support and maintenance of a college such as contemplated by said act of Congress."

On the 30th of March, 1872, His Excellency, James M. Smith, Governor of Georgia, transferred the fund (land-grant, thus obtained to the trustees of the University of Georgia) and on the 1st day of May, 1872, the trustees opened and established the "Georgia State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts."

The Negro land-grant college was established in accordance with General Laws, 1890-91: Section 1 declared:

"There shall be established in connection with the State University and forming one of the departments thereof, a school for the education and training of colored students."

Section 4: "The sum of eight thousand dollars ($8,000) is hereby annually appropriated to the board of trustees and of the university to be drawn upon executive warrant in their favor for said purposes."
APPENDIX A

Section 15: "The appropriation herein provided for shall be in lieu of any claim of the colored population of this State upon the proceeds of the Agriculture land scrip donated by the Congress of the United States by said act of Congress approved July 2, 1862."

By a joint resolution November 26, 1890, the State of Georgia accepted the terms of the Morrill Act of 1890 and provided that:

"One third of said fund shall be for the colored students and two-thirds for the whites, provided that this division may be at any time modified by the written consent of the Secretary of the Interior of the U. S. and the Governor of Georgia for the time being, so as to make the same a just and equitable division of the funds arising under said act of Congress of August 30, 1862, between the white and colored people of the State for the purpose of said education."

Kentucky. The terms of the 1862 land-grant act were accepted by Kentucky in 1863. The University of Kentucky (formerly the A. & M. College) was established by an act approved February 6, 1880, and the Kentucky Industrial School at Frankfort was taken over by the State and its name was changed to the Kentucky State Industrial College by an act of the general assembly May 18, 1886. Both institutions participate in the 1862 land-grant fund. Section 4591 A, General Statutes of 1922 declared:

That the commissioners of the sinking fund be, and they are hereby authorized and directed to issue to themselves as trustees for the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Kentucky and the State Normal School for Colored Persons of Kentucky, in the proportion hereinafter mentioned, the bond of the commonwealth bearing the date of July 1, 1897, for one hundred and sixty-five thousand dollars ($165,000), bearing interest at the rate of six per cent (6%), payable semi-annually, and said bond shall be a perpetual obligation of the commonwealth and interest thereon shall be a perpetual charge upon the treasury: and it shall be the duty of the auditor to regularly draw his warrant upon the treasurer in favor of each of said colleges on the first day of July of each and every year, for the sum of four thousand nine hundred and fifty dollars ($4,950.00) to pay said interest, in the following proportions, to-wit: Six hundred and twenty-seven and seventy-five one hundredths dollars ($627.75) to the treasurer of the State Normal School for Colored Persons, and four thousand three hundred
and twenty-two and twenty-five one hundredths dollars ($4,322.25)
to the treasurer of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of
Kentucky (now University of Kentucky). Act of May 21, 1897,
Section 2.

The terms of the Morrill Act of 1890 were accepted by legislature on
January 13, 1893, and on May 22, 1893, it was enacted that the Kentucky
Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons:

"shall be entitled to receive an equitable division of monies
appropriated to the State of Kentucky by an act of Congress
approved August 30, 1890."

By agreement with the Department the fund was to be divided on a basis
of the ratio which the school census of colored children taken in the State
bears to the schools census in both races. (Since 1893 the ratio has been
85.5 per cent to University of Kentucky and 14.5 per cent to Kentucky State
Industrial College for Negroes).

Louisiana. The State legislature accepted the provision of the 1890
Morrill Act on January 23, 1893, but no division of funds was mentioned.
Although the first payments were on a 50-50 basis, subsequent payments
were made by an agreement between the State legislature and its department
of education on a basis of the State census of educable children.

Maryland. On March 15, 1892, the Maryland legislature accepted the
provisions of the 1890 Morrill Act. "The Maryland Agricultural College
(now University of Maryland) to which the benefits of said act of Congress
apply in this State, is hereby authorized and directed to make suitable
provisions for complying with all requirements of the said act."

Mississippi. Although the State of Mississippi first accepted the
Morrill land-grant on October 30, 1866, it was not until May 13, 1871,
that the reconstructed State Legislature under Governor Alcorn again
accepted the grant and conferred two-fifths on an institution for Negroes
established by the same act and called Alcorn University. In 1878 the
legislature incorporated the Agricultural and Mechanical College to which
it transferred one-half of the entire fund; $15,000 was used to purchase
a college farm near Starkville, and the new college annually received the
interest on $98,575. The Negro land-grant college was given the other half
of the land-grant fund amounting to $113,575.

The provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890 were accepted by legislature
on March 30, 1892:

"and the funds received under the aforesaid act shall be divided
between aforesaid agricultural colleges for white and colored in
the proportion that the whole number of educable children in the
State of each race bears to the whole number of educable children
of both races."

Missouri. The provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890 were accepted
on March 13, 1891 and the appropriations were divided so that (Section
10532);

"All sums collected under the provisions of an act of Congress
approved August 30, 1890, commonly known as the 'Morrill Bill',
shall be paid as follows: One sixteenth (1/16) thereof for the
benefit of the Lincoln Institute (now Lincoln University), and
one-fourth of the remainder to the treasurer of the School of
Mines at Rolla, Missouri, and the remainder shall be paid to the
treasurer of the State University for the benefit of the Agricultural
college."

North Carolina. By implication the provisions of the Morrill Act of
1890 were accepted and approved by the legislature March 6 and 9, 1891.

"The appropriation made by act of Congress of the date of August
30, 1890, for the benefit of colleges of agriculture and mechanic
arts shall be divided into the exact ratio in this state of the
white population to the colored, this provision to apply to the
current and all succeeding appropriations."
Oklahoma. The legislature approved of the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890 by an act of March 10, 1899. (Section 4) which declared:

"The Agricultural and Mechanical College at Stillwater shall hereafter receive, annually, nine-tenths (9/10's) of the money granted to the Territory of Oklahoma (now state of Oklahoma) for the more complete endowment and support of its colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanical arts, as provided in an act of Congress approved August 30, 1890 and the university located at Langston (Colored Agricultural and Normal University) shall receive the residue of said money granted, to be received and paid out as provided by this act."

South Carolina. On December 24, 1890, the legislature accepted the Federal provisions of 1890 and provided (Section 1298) one-half of the fund known as the land-scrip fund:

"to-wit, $95,000, shall be for the benefit of the Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical College of South Carolina (now the State Agricultural, and Mechanical College), shall be a perpetual fund, which shall forever remain undiminished, and the board of trustees are authorized to use the income thereon for the use and maintenance of said college."

Section 1299 declared:

"All sums which shall be received by the State from the United States Government under the provision of the act of Congress approved August 30, 1890, shall be equally divided between the Colored, Normal, Industrial, Agricultural, and Mechanical College (now State Agricultural and Mechanical College) and the Clemson Agricultural College, to be applied to the purposes specified in said act."

Tennessee. The provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890 were accepted on February 25, 1891. This resolution declared:

"The State of Tennessee assents to the purpose of the act of the United States Congress approved August 30, 1890, and empowers the treasurer of the University of Tennessee, and to give his official receipt for the same."

Texas. On March 14, 1891, the provisions of the Morrill Act were accepted. Section 1 declared:

"All monies apportioned to the State of Texas under an act
of August 30, 1890, of the Fifty-First Congress of the United States, shall be apportioned between the Agricultural and Mechanical College, and the Prairie View State Normal School on the following basis, to-wit: three-fourths to the Agricultural and Mechanical college, and one-fourth to the Prairie View State Normal School."

Virginia. The general assembly (code of Virginia, 1887, and supplement, 1898. (Section 1586) accepted the donation of lands proffered to Virginia by the act of Congress of July 2, 1862, and the annual interest was apportioned as follows:

"one-third thereof to the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute (then the Negro land-grant college, but since 1920 the Virginia State College for Negroes at Ettricks has been so designated) and two-thirds thereof to the board of visitors of the Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College and Polytechnic Institute."

Laws, 1893-94, Chapter 347, Section 2 declared:

"The State of Virginia hereby assents to the grants of money made under and in accordance with the act of Congress aforesaid, approved August 30, 1890, and accepts the same; and the legislature of Virginia proposes and reports to the honorable Secretary of the Interior of the United States that hereafter the funds to be paid to this State, under said act, be apportioned between the said institutions in the following ratio, viz: One-third thereof to the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute (since transferred to Virginia State College for Negroes at Ettricks), and two-thirds to the Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College."

West Virginia. By an act of the legislature March 17, 1891, the State of West Virginia hereby assents to accept from the Government of the United States the terms and provisions of the said act of Congress of the United States approved August 30, 1890, for the objects and purposes mentioned and declared therein, and designates the 'West Virginia Colored Institute' (name since changed to West Virginia State College) for the beneficiary of said appropriation for instruction of colored students; to be paid to each in the proportion mentioned in the preamble to this act. For the West Virginia Colored Institute (now West Virginia State College) $3,000 per annum for five years, and after that time $5,000 as long as the appropriation continues."

In 1908 the amount was increased by $1,000 each year for five years.

Beginning with 1912 this Negro land-grant college has received $10,000
annually from the Corrill-Nelson appropriations.
SAMPLE CASES OF CORRELATION BETWEEN TRADE AND ACADEMIC PRACTICES

Case I. Broom Making - "The Head and Hand" theory could be demonstrated by the use of English Composition on Broom making. Such compositions appear in the text, Working With The Hands by Booker T. Washington.

Case II. Carpentry - Spelling, Mathematics, Grammar and English Compositions could be brought in.

Their (the students') contracts are read and criticized. They find flaws in certain technicalities in English, they point out arithmetical errors. The students learn that the academic subjects are as important as their skill with tools in the shop.

Case III. Chemistry and Physics - Chemical reactions in the shops and on the farm will be studied - the artisan, with such knowledge, "grows and thinks and is not automatic." Soap polishes, lacquers, and chemical cleaners are made. Questions with reference to the purity of flour, bran, or baking powder; grade of fertilizer, disinfecting the sick room, destroying the garbage, devouring worm are answered.

Case IV. Social Science. The industrial shops of the college should always be opened to academic teachers and students. When the students take up the subject of lumber, for example, they should be able to go to the shops, to understand the various stages through which the rough uncut log must pass in order to make suitable building material. Then, too, the school grounds should be put to excellent use. Various kinds of plant life should be studied; hills, valleys, small water courses, examples of erosion, different kinds of soil, are seen on every hand. In connection with Nature Study and Geography, the pupils should be urged to be on the alert to detect something new, something which they have seen often, but.
can afterward view in a new light because of the information obtained.

Case V. **Mathematics** - The pupils should be required to deal in things associated with figures rather than figures alone, for example, the carpenter must get the greatest common length of board from several different lengths without any waste; the dressmaker must find and use the smallest number of yards of cloth that suffice for making dresses of different sizes. Mathematics is shown to be an instrument of economy. In fractions, estimates should be made of the cost of bales of cotton at prevailing prices. The student should be required to weigh out in each case the amounts of various articles which can be purchased for given amounts of money. In compound quantities and in various measurements, the student does the measuring. Yards, rods, tons of coal, and tons of hay are measured. In carpentering, he should be required to witness the work in active operation. In percentage, problems which must be solved in the daily work, the student is able to get from the industrial departments.

Case VI. **Biology** - Knowledge of things near at hand should be acquired first, and later of things more distant; a clear and definite acquaintance with home surroundings (plants, animals, mineral, natural phenomena, and the human body) will be made the basis of the teaching as a foundation for more advanced study, the special needs of special classes are kept in mind, the work being determined by the students' power of observation and interpretation. Subjects for study should be selected largely according to the seasons. This work is conducted with reference to its correlation with geography, language, and other subjects. Field excursions, collecting, and preserving specimens, and gardening of various
kinds are prominent features of the courses in Nature Study.
APPENDIX C

SAMPLE TEACHING UNITS FOR THE TRAINING OF NEGRO RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

(A) - Aim: To enable prospective teachers of rural schools to obtain knowledge of the rural community background - Large unit - one semester.

Sub-units:
(a) Developing an understanding of, and a constructive attitude toward, the rural situation.
(b) Getting started right at the beginning of school.
(c) Equipment and supplies.
(d) Records and reports.
(e) Improving attendance.
(f) Providing for discipline.
(g) Providing for teacher improvement.
(h) Planning the daily schedule to make routine yield its largest returns and to provide for pupils progress and promotion.
(i) Teacher-community relationships.
(j) Planning the schools' activities in the rural community.

(B) - Aim: To enable prospective teachers of rural schools to obtain knowledge of the adaptation of teaching to the rural situation - Large unit - one semester.

Sub-units:
(a) Providing adequate teacher-made instructional material.
(b) Developing a guidance program for student teachers.
(c) Meeting health needs through rural schools.
(d) Planning for the extended use of reading material.
(e) Providing for specific reading deficiencies.
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(f) Preparing to meet language needs of pupils in rural schools.

(g) Preparing to meet arithmetic needs of pupils in rural schools.

(h) Improving homes in the rural community.

(i) Making gardens provide vegetables and fruits for the entire year.

Sub-units (a) and (g) of large unit A, and sub-units (a) and (d) and (h) of large unit B will be further broken down at this point in order to illustrate the ways which might be used to teach the various sub-units to prospective teachers of Negro rural schools, and thereby enable them to become more efficient teachers in these schools.

Sub-unit (ai) Developing an Understanding of, and a Constructive Attitude toward, the Rural Situation.

Problems:

1. To make a survey in order to discover the important needs of the community.

2. To make a study of the special aids offered by special community agencies.

3. To formulate a tentative program of community improvement.

4. To secure the cooperation of parents and other community members.

Objectives:

1. To help the student-teacher appreciate the size, nature, and importance of the rural field.

2. To create understanding of and attitudes toward the rural school that are conducive to conscious efforts.

3. To give the student-teacher a knowledge of the essentials of good
APPENDIX C

4. To suggest ways and means of helping teachers of rural schools to attack their community problems.

Suggested Procedures:

1. To make maps to show: (a) those areas of the United States having a rural population of fifty per cent and above; (b) those areas in which the Negro rural population is fifty per cent and above; (c) those areas which have a majority of one and two-teacher schools.

2. To make similar maps for the State.

3. To list the advantages and disadvantages of life in a rural community.

4. To list any distinguishing characteristics that rural people of the open country may have.

5. To visit homes of patrons, school officials, and community leaders.

6. To be in the community at least a few days before the schools open, if possible.

7. To devise some means of winning the affection and loyalty of the parents and children.

8. To start some simple project such as "clean school grounds and buildings," "build walks," "white wash houses," "plant shrubbery," "provide play equipment which can be made cheaply," and "organize an orchestra or harmonica band."

9. To begin to think about studying the community to see: (a) what are its educational needs; what books and how many are in
home, how much training do the people seem to have; how do they
feel about education?

(b) What churches are in the community; how interested are the
people in their churches?

(c) What is the economic status; what kind of work affords them
a means of livelihood; what per cent are working; whether they
are share-cropper, or independent farmers; relationships between
employees and employers?

(d) In what social activities of the church, school, or community
do the people engage?

(e) What are the health conditions of the community?

(f) How interested are the people in civic affairs, and in what phases?

References.

2. School Efficiency, Chapter I, by Bennett.

Sub-unit (g1) - Providing for Teacher Improvement.

Objective:
To keep the teacher fit - physically, socially, and professionally.

Suggested Procedures:
1. Outline and discuss the factors that contribute to the teacher's
physical fitness.
2. Make a study of the "social" problems that confront the rural teacher. Make plans for her recreation and amusement.

3. Make a diagram showing the rural teacher's place in the school organization of the state.

4. Study the school laws which refer to the following: (a) Certification; (b) the work of the school; (c) pensions; (d) substitutes; (e) any other important matters not listed here.

5. Discuss the teacher's rights and duties in regard to the following: (a) Contract and tenure; (b) endorsement by school officials or friends; (c) punishment of children (in loco parentis); (d) methods of teaching; (e) co-operation of co-workers, school officials, parents; (f) personal conduct.

6. Evaluate various teachers' organizations as a means of professional development, namely: (a) County or district associations; (b) State associations; (c) National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools; (d) other organizations of value.

7. Plan a teacher's reading list: (a) For professional development; (b) for personal pleasure.

8. Plan a series of teacher meetings which provide: (a) Current events in education; (b) demonstration teaching; (c) helpful exhibits, etc.

**Teaching Suggestions**

1. List some of the experiences of the rural child.

2. Job analysis of the activities of the rural teacher.

3. Collections of catalogues of school supply houses, book companies, places where exhibits, and material may be obtained, and evaluation
of some of the contents of such catalogues.

4. Readings with individuals and committee reports.

5. Discussion

6. Problems, the class being divided into committees for intensive investigation and reports of the several committees being directed toward different units within the whole.

7. Adoption by each student of one rural school; visiting this school corresponding with the teacher; preparing materials for use of the teacher and children in the adopted school – at their request; solving problems submitted by teacher of the adopted school; bring to the class for case study suitable problems obtained from this school.

8. Observation-planned and prepared for, and afterward discussed.

9. Plans based upon actual situations as observed in practice schools and in schools observed.

10. Visit and score school buildings of different types and also score equipment. (Visit and score both good and poor buildings).


12. Secure speakers from the State Department of Health, Education.

13. Order a traveling library for the training class or for some rural department or school and classify books in a rural school.


15. Plan program and activities for the first day of school.

16. Plan an activities calendar for one term in a one-teacher school.
APPENDIX C

References:


National Child Labor Committee, 215 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

National Education Association, Department of Rural Education, Bulletin, February, 1933.

Sub-unit (a_2) - Providing Adequate Teacher-Made Instructional Material for the Teacher in the Small Rural School.
Objectives:

1. To work out such teacher made and supplementary materials as will enrich the teaching program.
2. To make use of such educative environmental materials as the community affords.
3. To secure such commercial materials as is essential for teaching success.

Suggested Procedures:

1. Collect all environmental materials that may be of use in the classroom. (The following list is adapted from "Uses and Values of Waste Material" compiled by Miss Bessie Emanuel, Phenix School, Hampton Institute).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waste Materials</th>
<th>Use of Waste Materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cylindrical oat meal boxes</td>
<td>Drums, cradles, chairs, blocks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spools</td>
<td>Legs for furniture, curtain pulls, tree stands, flower holder, toy see-saw, balance decorations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardboard</td>
<td>Hot dish pads, animals, toys, scenery, foundations for scenes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardboard boxes</td>
<td>Wagons, furniture, doll houses, buildings in community construction, foundations for toys, furniture, trains, blocks, (small boxes), doll carriage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures from old magazines, discarded seed catalogues, fashion catalogs, newspapers, and used postcards</td>
<td>Booklets, mounted pictures, seatwork, pictures to teach reading phrases or sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste Materials</td>
<td>Uses of Waste Materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scrape cloth</td>
<td>Dolls clothing, curtains, cover boxes, bed spreads.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigar Boxes</td>
<td>Sewing boxes, tambourines, pencil boxes, wagons, beds, all can be papered or painted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burlap bags</td>
<td>Indian suits, bulletin board, foundation for scenery, shopping bags, play suits, wigwams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheese boxes</td>
<td>Drums, sewing boxes, first aid tray.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inside colored paper on envelopes</td>
<td>Seat work purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face cream jars</td>
<td>To hold paste.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strawberry baskets</td>
<td>Wagon, sewing baskets, if broken into small pieces for paste sticks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used greeting cars</td>
<td>Calendars, pictures to frame, Christmas booklets, decorate blotter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass jars</td>
<td>Vases, candy jars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coffee cans</td>
<td>Drums, or other food containers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange crates</td>
<td>Large chairs, tables, rabbit house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pieces of wood</td>
<td>Boats, airplanes, furniture toys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tablet backs</td>
<td>Mounting pictures, booklets, cardboard animals seat work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excelsior</td>
<td>Stuffing for toys, Easter egg baskets, grass.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner tubes</td>
<td>Rubber animals, drum heads, table mats.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

Waste Materials.............................................. Uses of Waste Materials
Stockings .................................................. Stuffed toys
Beads and buttons .............................. Eyes for animal toys, decorations
Cellophane ............................................. Windows in toy houses.

2. Other environmental material includes the following: Acorns, cans, stars and key, scraps of oil cloth, baskets, egg shells, clay and starch, twigs from trees, old calendars, beans and peas, fashion sheets, wooden boxes, small barrels.

3. Special equipment:
   1. Hectograph: Made by teacher or purchased. Beckley Cardy Company, Chicago, sells a good two surface Hectograph for $2.70.

   To make a hectograph - Two ounces sheet gelatin, one pint glycerine. Put into double boiler and boil slowly two hours.

   Four in pan and prick bubbles with pin.

   2. Charts: Reading and phrase card charts may be made by teacher of stiff brown paper, or oak tag. Use plain sheet for foundation. Cut as many strips as desired. Stick strips on foundation. Bind edges with cloth. The chart is used for building stories or sentence and phrase cards. A Plymouth chart may be purchased from School Supply House.


   4. Bulletin board: May be constructed of burlap on plain or
APPENDIX C

corrugated cardboard. More expensive materials include heavy linoleum, cork and beaver board. Bulletin boards may be used for news items, class items, notes on special events, collections of pictures and clippings based on unit of work, displaying pupils' work.

5. School museum: Construct a series of boxes or shelves. Display materials. May include such things as Indian arrow heads, bow and arrow, peace pipe, rocks and stones, shells, specimens cotton, silk, cocoon, grain, foods, kinds of lumber, etc. All exhibits should be neatly labeled.

Planning educative, teacher made seatwork for practice exercises, drill and lesson checks.

Primary and First Grade:

A. Sentence strips:

Write or print sentences from primer and first reader on cardboard strips. Keep the strips in envelopes. Put the page on the back of each strip and on the envelopes. Each envelop should contain a page of reading material from the book. Make only one copy for each page. Let the pupils build up the story on their desk with the strips. Let them open their books and see if the story is right.

B. Phrase strips:

Make another set of sentences strip and cut them into phrases. The pupils will build up the story on their desk with the phrase strips. Let them open their books to see if they are right. Make only one copy
for each page. Each child may use a different set.

C. Word cards (large)

Consult the list of words in primer and first reader, put the new words for each lesson strip of cardboard large enough to use around the ledge of the board. Review with these word cards. Drill especially on such words as "is", "whose", "any", "what."

Small Cards:

Make small cards of the list of words in primer and first reader. Take a set for each child. Do not wait until a child has read through the book before working with words but start the seatwork and drill for the very first lessons.

1. Have pupils arrange words according to beginning letters. Example: Bread, bring.

2. Have pupils build a story on their desk with the words. The story is right if it makes good sense and the child can read it. Encourage by praise any good story that the child can make and build on his desk. This is an excellent language exercise as well as drill in reading and word reorganizing and recognition.

3. Have pupils arrange words according to ending letters. Example; Sister, corner, mother.

4. Have pupils find words and their opposites: Example, out, in; little, big.

5. Have pupils put in a row all the cards that are names of animals. Example: Dog, cow, sheep.
6. Have pupils put in a row all the cards that are names of people. Example: Jack, man, postman, Nell.

7. Have pupils put in rows all the cards that are names of something to eat or drink. Example: Apple bread, eggs, milk, corn.

8. Have pupils find words that are names of something to ride on. Example: Airplane, boat, car, train.

9. Have pupils find words that are names of colors. Example: Green, Yellow.

References.


APPENDIX C

Porter, Martha P.: The Teacher in the School. Sub-unit (d.2) - Meeting Health Needs Through Small Rural Schools

Objectives:

1. To make pupils feel the need for hygienic living.
2. To guide pupil's learning as to provide the necessary health habits and information.

Problems:

1. How may the following schools service be provided:
   a. Daily and annual physical inspection.
   b. Clinics for remedying defects.
   c. Vaccinations immunizations against communicable diseases.
   d. Supervised lunch.
   e. Sanitary school plant and surroundings.
   f. Safety first aid equipment.
   g. Hygiene of instruction.
   h. Healthy teachers.
   i. Medical examination.
   j. Provision for individual and group needs.

2. How may health instruction be provided to include:
   a. Home nursing and child care.
   b. Safety education, including first aid.
   c. Proper attitudes toward social relationship.
   d. Nutrition.
   e. Sanitation.
   f. Harmful effects of certain drugs and narcotics.
   g. Personal, school and community hygiene.
APPENDIX C

3. How can physical education be provided.
   a. To correct poor posture and other defects.
   b. To develop organic vigor.
   c. To provide for worthy use of leisure time.

**Suggested Procedures:**

**Problems.**

1. Height, weight and growth

2. Nutrition needs

3. Care of the teeth

4. Tonsils and adenoids

5. Protecting eyesight

**Activities**

1. Children weigh and measure height. Make chart for each pupil to record monthly gains. Read bulletins; discuss standards. Raise money for scales, if necessary.

2. Pupils keep record and report on what they eat at home for week. Read about and discuss balanced diet for growing children. Plan to make up deficiencies in their diet by making gardens and other ways. Make charts of balanced diets. Plan supervised hot lunches. Read and discuss proper care of digestive system, elimination of waste.

3. Read and discuss development and care of the teeth. Demonstrate and drill in proper cleaning of teeth and oral cavity.

4. Study proper steps to take when adenoids become enlarged and infected. Emphasize causes, symptoms and ill effects.

5. Give eye tests using Snellen Eye Charts. Record and recommend to school authorities pupils who need oculist's service. Plan proper lighting at school and home. Read
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Posture that helps our bodies</td>
<td>6. Read State Department of Health bulletins. Study posture charts. Take posture tests and plan corrective exercises for each child. Demonstrate and check on proper walking, standing, sitting and reclining postures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Pupils report individually, in writing on their sleep and rest habits. Read and discuss importance of sleep and rest. Discuss plans for proper sleep and rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Read and discuss cause, symptoms, and ill effects of the venereal infections. Discuss plans for avoidance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Protection against contagious diseases</td>
<td>10. Read and discuss benefits of clean thinking, proper study habits, and attitudes that make life happy and healthy. Read materials from National Committee for Mental Hygiene.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems</td>
<td>Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Accidents and first aid.</td>
<td>13. Read and discuss accidents which often occur in rural communities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Invite physician or nurse to demonstrate first aid for cuts, burns,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bruises, etc. Secure first aid equipment for school. Pupils give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>demonstrations at Parent-teacher meetings, and at National Negro Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Week Program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The use of physicians,</td>
<td>14. Read and determine when expert services are demanded. Discuss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oculists and nurses.</td>
<td>preparation for physician at home or in his office. Dramatize proper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>preparation for consultation with physician.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Sex problems.</td>
<td>15. Read and discuss sex attitudes and relations that lead to healthy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>happy living. Study materials from American Social Hygiene Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>suitable to the children. Invite physician to talk to boys - nurse to talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to girls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>buildings and on grounds, including air, moisture, heat, cleanliness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Exercise for good posture</td>
<td>17. Read and discuss proper exercises that correct defects and promote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and high vitality</td>
<td>vigorous living. Emphasize amounts, proper conditions, individual needs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and abilities. Boys make simple play equipment, chinning bars, bats,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>goal posts, etc. Girls make play balls stuffed with cotton, etc. Organize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pupils for supervised play of Volley ball and other games involving total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems</td>
<td>Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>body action adaptable to rural school student groups. Compare recreation today with earlier times. See American Recreation Association bulletins.</td>
<td>18. Hospital care for serious illness. Read and discuss advantages of hospital care - including facilities for diagnosing, operating, treating, etc. Show how lives are saved from appendicitis. Visit hospitals, if possible.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test:
Teacher-made test should be made to check achievements of children

References:
*---*. *Dramatics and Health Teaching*, Washington: 1933.


Sub-unit (h²) - Improving Homes in the Rural Community.

Objectives:

1. To have children become conscious of home and community needs.

2. To create a desire for more comfortable and beautiful surroundings.

3. To help children improve their homes whenever possible.

Problem:

How to improve Negro homes in rural communities.

Suggested Procedures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outside appearance</td>
<td>Children survey and report on</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

Problems

1. Need of repairs, whitewash, 1. Plan repairs that are absolutely necessary
and paint. to the good appearance of a home (broken window panes, doors, or hinges,
and naint. etc.) Secure paint color charts. Decide
upon color scheme. Discuss and study
the composition of paints and their
preserving qualities. Make simple
repairs at school and home.

2. Sanitary toilets

2. Secure from the State Board of Health
literature and pictures showing the
result of open toilets upon the health
of the family and community and the
possibility of building a sanitary one.
Discuss the proper location and seclu­
sion of it. Parent League Work for
sanitary toilet.

3. Flowers, shrubs, trees.

3. Find pictures of homes and yards with­
out flowers, shrubbery, or trees, and
compare with homes that are beautiful.
Study the possible effect of grouping
and arranging shrubbery or trees, the
value of trees in the yard or around
the houses and the disadvantages of being
too close. Plant trees and shrubbery
at school and home.

4. Water supply

4. Have children bring reports of sources
of their water supply. Find out if
it is properly located according to
drainage. Trace the story of the
typhoid germ from the open well into
the body of a sick child (two possible
ways).

5. Farm houses (poultry,
pigs, etc.)

5. Discuss the type, size (this may
carry over into agriculture), how
to be most economically arranged and
cared for. Read "Polder Farmers of
the Netherlands."

6. Fences and yards

6. Study the different types of fences;
declining which would be preferred.
Observe best where needed. Study the
care of hedge fences, if that type is
selected.
APPENDIX C

Inside comforts and conveniences

1. Screening, cleaning
   Read the story of the fly and illustrate
   its trip from the pile of barnyard
   manure by way of the open toilet to the
   table of food. Find out where the dish
   water and waste water are thrown. Lake
   traps and screens.

2. Painting and papering
   Study wall paper patterns. Discuss the
   effect colors and designs have upon
   the nerves of individuals. Work out
   color schemes for the home. Find how
   much it will cost to paper a home from
   the actual measurements of the children's
   homes. Do the same for the painting.
   Discuss the points in favor of each
   type of decoration.

3. Curtains and shades
   Find concrete illustrations, if
   possible, where either or both are
   needed. Have pupils compare whole
   sections of a community to note the
   difference in appearance. Discuss the
   cleaning of windows, the laundering
   of shades. Make curtains for class-
   room and home.

4. Proper heating and
   lighting
   Study the different ways of heating
   and lighting a home. Compare the methods
   now with those in Colonial and
   Pioneer days. Study the results of
   poor lighting when studying or working.
   Decide which ways are best for heat
   and light in the terms of health.

5. Music
   Have pupils tell their favorite radio
   artist, victrola records, songs, or
   any other form of music they like best.
   If convenient, study the history of
   some of the most familiar classical
   compositions and composers. If possible,
   secure victrola and records and have
   music hour for appreciation.

6. Books, magazines,
   newspapers
   Have pupils name the papers and magazines
   with which they are most familiar.
Classify them as to county, race, state. Bring copies of each kind to school. Read and compare to find out the points of each. Read a farmers' journal and decide why a farmer should subscribe to one. Compare the method of distribution news in the early days of our country and now. Teachers plan for newspapers for themselves.

7. Use homes in community for demonstration whenever possible. Make and furnish a house in classroom. Use boxes, paste, ends of wall paper, paint, flour, sacks, and stencils.

8. Pupils will write a letter to a friend telling how he has beautified or improved his home.

References:


__________________________· *The Screening and Mosquito Proofing of Houses*. Montgomery, Alabama. 1933.


Department of Public Health, Georgia. *The Sanitary Privy*. Atlanta, Georgia. 1936.


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APPENDIX C


APPENDIX D

SOME FACTS ON AMERICAN NEGRO LIFE *

1. Of the 122,755,046 people in the United States in 1930 about 12,000,000 or 10 per cent were Negroes.

2. Eighty-one per cent of the Negro population of the nation is in the Southern states and 60 per cent is rural. The colored farm-dwelling population is now 4,680,500 or 39 per cent. One-third of all population in the South is Negro.

3. No people in the world have ever made such rapid progress from primitive life to modern culture as have American Negroes. Today Negroes in the United States own $2,600,000,000 of property, are 85 per cent literate, and have a trained professional leadership including many artists, writers, and musicians of over 135,000 individuals.

4. The three chief occupations of the mass of Negroes, however, are agriculture in which 36 per cent are engaged; domestic and personal service, 29 per cent; and mechanical industries, 18 per cent. Only 20 per cent of Negro farmers are owners, 50 per cent being tenants and sharecroppers.

5. Because of the low economic status of agricultural Negroes child labor is prevalent in this group. Of the 667,118 children 10 to 15 years of age gainfully employed in the United States in 1930 about 36 per cent or 240,000 were Negro children. Over 98 per cent of these were in the South, chiefly in agriculture and cotton-raising.

6. In 1930 there were 4,128,998 Negro children and youth 5 to 20 years of age in the United States. Of this number 78 per cent were enrolled in school leaving 22 per cent entirely out of school.

7. The expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in the South for 1933-34 was $49.36 for white children and only $15.14 for colored children. An important factor in this situation, however, is the relative economic status of the South where the wealth per capita is only $1,785 as compared with $3,600 in non-South areas of the United States. Only federal aid can fundamentally relieve this injustice though money now available should be more equitably distributed between the races.

8. A chief injustice of Negro education is the common practice of paying Negro teachers of equal qualifications and training much less salary than white teachers of the same rank. In 1929-30 for example, white rural teachers of the United States received an average salary of $800 annually while Negro rural teachers were paid only $314 a year.

* Compiled by Professor Mabel Carney of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: Bureau of Publications, 1938.
9. In spite of handicaps all education for Negroes is today making tremendous strides and expanding much more rapidly than education for whites, especially on the secondary and collegiate levels. Negro education has also made several distinctive contributions to education in general, including vocational education as first developed at Hampton Institute, and Jeanes supervision now widely imitated in Africa and other lands.

10. There were 8,000,000 people engaged in the raising of cotton in the United States in 1936. Of this number 5,000,000 were white and 3,000,000 were colored.

11. There were 3,000,000 Negro children of school age (5-17) in the United States in 1930.

12. There were 56,000 Negro teachers in United States in 1930.

13. Fifty-seven per cent of all Negroes in the United States live on farm or in small villages of less than 2,500 population and 43% live in cities of over 2,5000 population

CHILD LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES (1930)*

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF CHILD WORKERS
(10 to 15 years of age, inclusive)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>469,497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>68,266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>49,615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic and Personal Service</td>
<td>46,145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Occupations</td>
<td>16,803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and Communications</td>
<td>8,717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>8,075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>667,118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 667,118 children 10 to 15 years of age gainfully employed in the U. S. in 1930 about 36 per cent or 240,000 were Negro children. Over 98 per cent of these 240,000 Negro child laborers were in the South, chiefly in agriculture and cotton-raising.

* Compiled from data found in the report on Child Labor by the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, 1932.
APPENDIX D

NATIONALITY AND RACE OF CHILDREN GAINFULLY EMPLOYED IN AGRICULTURE (1920)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native white, native parentage</td>
<td>241,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native white, foreign or mixed parentage</td>
<td>26,959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born white</td>
<td>6,681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>270,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian, Chinese, Japanese, others</td>
<td>2,054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>647,309</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CO:PARISON OF WHITE AND NEGRO SCHOOLS IN EIGHTEEN SOUTHERN STATES (1933-34)


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Negro</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population of South (1930)</td>
<td>27,673,679</td>
<td>9,361,577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population (5-17 years of age)</td>
<td>9,262,600</td>
<td>2,904,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of School Population</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrollment in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools</td>
<td>7,646,815</td>
<td>2,430,698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrollment per Teacher</td>
<td>30 pupils</td>
<td>43 pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of School Term</td>
<td>164 days</td>
<td>142 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average days attended by each pupil enrolled</td>
<td>134 days</td>
<td>111 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of pupils attending daily</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrollment by Grades:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Grade</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Grade</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Grade</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Grade</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth Grade</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Enrollment by Grades: (continued)
Sixth Grade 8.8 7.0
Seventh Grade 8.2 5.2
Eight Grade 4.2 1.9

Per cent of Children in First Four Grades
Sixth Grade 49.4.
Seventh Grade 70.2

High-School Enrollment
First Year 6.3 2.7
Second Year 5.0 1.8
Third Year 4.1 1.2
Fourth Year 3.3 .9

Teachers Employed in South 230,327 56,143


Expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in South (1931-32) $49.30 $15.14.

For ALL Children in U. S. the expenditure per pupil based on current expenses in 1931-32 was $81.36.

ILLITERACY IN THE UNITED STATES (1930)
(Data from Census Report)

Rate of Illiteracy for the Total Population .......... 4.3 per cent

Total Population: Urban rate 3.2 per cent
Village rate 4.8 per cent
Farm rate 6.9 per cent

WHITE POPULATION

Illiteracy in all white population ................. 2.7 per cent
Rate among native white population ............... 1.5 per cent
Rate among foreign-born white population ......... 9.9 per cent
Native white with mixed or foreign parentage .... 0.6 per cent
Urban-white rate of illiteracy ................... 2.5 per cent
Village - white rate of illiteracy ............... 2.9 per cent
Farm - white rate of illiteracy ................. 3.4 per cent
APPENDIX D

NEGRO POPULATION

Illiteracy in the total Negro population ............ 16.3 per cent
Rate among urban Negroes .......................... 9.2 per cent
Rate among village Negroes ....................... 20.5 per cent
Rate among farm Negroes ......................... 23.2 per cent

Other Population

Illiteracy among other races in the U. S.
(Indians and Orientals) .................. 25.0 per cent
Mexican illiteracy rate ......................... 27.5 per cent
Dear Sir:

I am writing a Doctoral dissertation on the Negro land-grant colleges. In order that I might have complete data in regard to such institutions, kindly fill out this questionnaire in full and mail it in the attached, stamped, self-addressed envelope at your earliest convenience. Please give the requested data as of the school year, 1938-39.

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation, I am,

Sincerely yours,

Oscar J. Chapman
Graduate Student at
The Ohio State University

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. No. years college work offered. ( )

2. No. Full Time College Teachers. ( )
   No. Part Time College Teachers. ( )
   No. Full Time High-School Teachers. ( )
   No. years elementary School work offered ( )

3. No. Full Time Elementary Teachers. ( )

4. No. years High-School work offered ( )

2. Total College Enrollment. ( )
   Total High-School Enrollment. ( )
   Total elementary School Enrollment. ( )
   Total Extension Enrollment. ( )

Total Summer School Enrollment. ( )
3. Check (✓) types of curricula now offered: (1) Four-year teacher-training (✓); (2) Four-year Liberal Arts (✓); (3) Agriculture (✓); (4) Home Economics (✓); (5) Mechanical Arts (✓); (6) Commercial (✓); (7) Two-year Teacher-Training (✓); (8) Graduate Work (✓); and (9) Others:

4. Check (✓) degrees now offered: (1) B.A. (✓); (2) B.S. (✓); (3) Ph.B. (✓); (4) M.A. or M.S. (✓); (5) Others:

5. Present value of entire physical plant (In round numbers): $

6. What is the title of your chief executive officer? ___________. Who is in charge of the administration of internal affairs? ______

7. No. of men on Trustee Board _____; No. of women ___. How are they chosen? ___________. What is the length of their terms? ___________.

8. List your revenues for the past fiscal year in the following manner:

   (1) Federal funds:

   (a) Land-grant and Morrill Nelson $__________.
   (b) Smithes Hughes $__________.
   (c) ___________________________

   (2) State funds:

   (a) Operation and maintenance $__________.
   (b) Salaries $__________.
   (c) Permanent improvements $__________.
   (d) (e)

   (3) Private gifts:

   (a)
   (b)
   (c)
(4) Institutional funds from:

(a) Tuition
(b) Boarding and lodging
(c) Departmental earning
(d) Miscellaneous
(e) Other sources

9. No. of the following earned degrees held by members of your faculty:

B. A. ______; B.S. ______; M.A. ______; M.S. ______; Ph. D. ______; Ed. D ______;
Sc. D. ______; M.D. ______;

10. Average salary of the following:

Professors $_______, Associate Professors $_______, Assistant Professors $_______,
Instructors $_______.

11. Salary of the following: President $_______, Vice President $_______, Registrar $_______,
Business Manager or Treasurer $_______, Dean of Men $_______, Dean of Women $_______,
Director of the College or Instruction $_______, and average salary of heads of the various departments $_______.

12. No. of male college students ______________________;
No. of female college students ______________________;

13. Size of the last graduating class ______________________;
Size of present senior class ______________________.

14. List types of short courses offered by your college ______________________;
What is the usual length of these courses? ______________________.
How long are they usually offered, in weeks or months? ______________________.

15. What is the amount of your present state appropriation (1938-39)?
________________. What was it in 1937-38? ______________________ and in 1928-29?
________________.
APPENDIX E

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

16. Do you have a separate library building? _____  How many volumes do you have? ________.

17. Does your college operate a summer session? ____  If so, how many terms? ______  What is the length, in terms of days per week and number of weeks, of each term? ______  What is the highest number of credits in quarter hours a student earn during any one term? ______.

18. No. Students enrolled in the last summer school (both sessions)? ______  How many graduated at the last summer school convocation? ______  Do you usually exchange teachers for summer school? ______.

19. How many white people do you have on your staff? ______  What is the nature of their work? ________.

20. How many Negroes do you have on your Board of Trustees? ______  If none, have you ever had any? ______.

21. How many graduates or former students do you have on your Trustee Board? ______  If none, have you ever had any? ______.

22. Is your college accredited? If so, by what agency or agencies? ________ ________ ________ ________.

23. What is the average (in terms of years) of the teaching experience of your faculty? ________.

24. What is the length of tenure of your president? ________.

25. Does your college operate on a quarterly or semester basis? ______  What is the average length (in weeks) of your quarters or semesters?

26. List your method of grading students. ______ ________ ________ ________  Which grade represents average attainment? ______.
26. (continued) What is the average grade required for graduation?

27. No. of quarter, semester, or year hours required for graduation?

28. Does your college have a system of "grade points?" If so, what are they and their equivalents? __________ = ________, ________ = ________, ________ = ________, ________ = ________ and ________ = ________. How many grade points are required for graduation? __________.

29. Are your students required to take written examinations over the material covered at the end of: (1) the quarter or semester? ______; (2) the end of the entire academic school year? ______; (3) the end of the sophomore year? ______; and (4) the end of the senior year? ______.

30. List in order of importance the most urgent needs of your college: (1) ________, (2) ________, (3) ________, (4) ________, (5) ________.

31. List the numbers of students now enrolled in each of the divisions of your college by sex (1) men ______, women ______, (2) men ______, women ______, (3) men ______, women ______, (4) men ______, women ______, (5) men ______, women ______, (6) men ______, women ______.
I, Oscar James Chapman, was born in Stockton, Worcester County, Maryland, September 30, 1907. I received my elementary education in the Stockton Elementary School, and my secondary education at Hampton Institute, Hampton, Virginia. At Lincoln University, Chester County Pennsylvania, I received the degree of Bachelor of Arts in 1932, and at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, I received the degree of Master of Arts in 1936. I completed three semesters of graduate work above my Master's degree at Teachers College, Columbia University in 1936-37 and the intersession and summer session of 1937. Until 1935 I was teacher of English at the Lockerman High School, Denton, Maryland. I joined the faculty of the A. M. & N. College, Pine Bluff, Arkansas in the fall of 1937, remaining there until 1938 as Director of the Division of Education. I obtained a leave of absence in January, 1939 to continue my graduate study in Education at Ohio State University. In the fall of 1939, I accepted the position of Director of Teacher Education at the State College for Negroes, Elizabeth City, North Carolina. Meanwhile I completed the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.