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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Althia Norene Fain Canty entitled "A Descriptive Analysis of Black College and University Development with Regard to Selected Federal Funding Policies: 1954-1980." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.

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A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF BLACK COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY DEVELOPMENT WITH REGARD TO SELECTED FEDERAL FUNDING POLICIES: 1954-1980

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Education

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Althia Norene Fain Canty

March 1982

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DEDICATION

To My Daughter, 'Rena

and

My Parents, Mr. and Mrs. Robert H. Fain, Jr.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to analyze the patterns of federal funding in fifteen of the black land-grant colleges and universities (BL-GCU's) in the United States. Particular attention was directed toward federal funding participation to these institutions in four Congressional acts: the National Defense Education Act of 1958, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Higher Education Act of 1965, and the Education Amendments of 1980. Specifically, the study was designed to test six hypotheses which examined the establishment of the BL-GCU's, the value of the early years of the BL-GCU's, homogeneity among the BL-GCU's, total amounts of federal funds to the BL-GCU's and a comparison to white land-grant colleges and universities, the role of external special interest groups, and the impact of the four previously-mentioned acts on the BL-GCU's.

Fifteen of the original seventeen BL-GCU's were selected because they all are predominantly black. One of the original seventeen BL-GCU's, West Virginia State College, was excluded because it lost its land-grant status in the late 1950's. Another of the original seventeen BL-GCU's, Lincoln University of Missouri, was excluded because its student population is no longer predominantly black, as the fifteen remaining institutions are.

A historical approach was used to identify key Congressional acts which affected higher education. Likewise, the historical approach was used to trace the development of the BL-GCU's from their inception, with the Morrill Act of 1890, to 1980. The information which resulted

from these searches was used to analyze the BL-GCU's and federal funding participation to these institutions.

Conclusions drawn from this study were that, in the early years, the BL-GCU's served a vital function in educating black youth, despite the fact that the curricula were primarily secondary rather than collegiate in nature and scope. It was also concluded that, when viewed as a subset, the BL-GCU's revealed a large number of similarities which made them a very homogeneous group. Another conclusion reached from this study was that establishment of BL-GCU's was more the result of state attempts to secure additional federal funds than to manifest interest in higher education for black citizens. Also, the BL-GCU's, collectively, received less amounts of federal funds than the white institutions received individually. Additionally, the conclusion is reached that special interest groups have played active roles in the expansion of BL-GCU's.

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CHAPTER I

FORMULATION AND DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The black land-grant colleges and universities (BL-GCU's) are an integral part of American higher education. Yet, many of these fifteen institutions which remain predominantly black are in serious trouble! Threatened by decreased student enrollments, inadequate state and federal financial support, and increasing staff attrition--among other problems--many of the BL-GCU's are struggling for their very existence.

That these circumstances exist is puzzling because America has profited from the existence of the BL-GCU's. These fifteen institutions have served the nation by providing many well-qualified graduates to enter the labor force. The BL-GCU's also have helped their respective states to receive much-needed federal funds. The overall economic condition of the nation has appreciably risen when a comparison is made of the possible conditions that could exist if a larger segment of the national black population were left uneducated. Why, then, does such a dismal existence and outlook for the BL-GCU's currently exist?

Six of the BL-GCU's have marked their centennials at this writing. Others are slated to celebrate their hundredth year of existence within the ensuing decade. Yet, many of these institutions continually exist under the threat of impending doom, faced with the threat of mergers with larger, predominantly white "sister" institutions or simply to close their doors. Nevertheless, thus far, they manage to remain in existence

as separate educational entities, working both separately and collectively toward building a black intelligentsia.

Their very existence speaks well of the institutions. Their merits also extend to other areas. Many BL-GCU graduates acquire terminal degrees, numerous and increasingly-responsible positions in business and education, and national offices, to name a few. Similar to a boat in the middle of a large body of water, the BL-GCU's have often fought to "make ripples in the water" of American higher education. Nevertheless, they have managed to remain afloat for worthwhile reasons.

But what of the future for BL-GCU's? Can they, if confronted more turbulent waters, continue to survive? To whom can they look for assistance to increase student enrollments, secure adequate state and federal financial support, and avert staff attrition, among other challenges? Indeed, many of the BL-GCU's are presently struggling for their very existence.

Purpose of the Study

This study focused primarily on a twenty-six year period--1954 to 1980--in the total existence of the subject institutions. The first part of the study deals with background information of the federal role in education, the establishment, early struggles, objectives--both early and more recent--of the BL-GCU's, and an overview of federal policies related to these institutions. These data are provided to lay a foundation for the reader's understanding of subsequent years' activities and events.

The study was also designed to test the following hypotheses:

HO_1: Establishment of BL-GCU's was more the result of state

attempts to secure additional federal funds than to manifest interest in higher education for black citizens.

HO_2: In the early years, the BL-GCU's served a vital function despite the fact that the curricula were primarily secondary rather than collegiate in nature and scope.

HO_3: Despite the varying locations, philosophies, administrative leadership, and funding appropriations, there was and is a great deal of homogeneity among the existing BL-GCU's.

HO_4: When averages of receipts of BL-GCU's and white land-grant colleges and universities (WL-GCU's) are compared, there is a difference between total federal funds received by BL-GCU's and WL-GCU's.

HO_5: The BL-GCU's could not have continued to advance as they have without the aid of external special interest groups (SIG's).

HO_6: The BL-GCU's were affected differently by pieces of federal legislation enacted in 1958, 1964, 1965, and 1980 which are responsible for large sums of money appropriated to higher education.

Research in these areas suggest other worthwhile goals for this study: (1) to raise social consciousness on this aspect of American higher education, (2) to add to the scant body of historical knowledge, (3) to provide data to bring the results of an earlier study (Truehart, 1979) into full exposition, and (4) to furnish information suitable for future planning operations for similar higher educational institutions.

Finally, the study sought to show the common plight the BL-GCU's have shared despite their varying locations, student populations, philosophies, and federal funding receipts within the context of historical federal funding events. The rationale may be summarized this way:

> In general, little attention has been paid to the history of education in the South. In the case of black colleges and universities, whatever work has been produced focuses on individual institutions and overlooks many of the relationships among the colleges, their local communities, and the larger society. Furthermore, the characteristic adjustments the colleges made to outside and internal social forces have been ignored. (Browning and Williams, 1978)

Methodology

This is a descriptive study. The primary aim is to explain developmental conditions of the BL-GCU's with special emphasis on federal funding policies.

The present study relied on both primary and secondary sources. Data were gathered from such sources as interinstitutional correspondence, newsletters, interviews with persons associated with the various institutions for lengthy periods of time, agency reports, government documents, both general and specialized books on the subject, periodical articles, college catalogs, and proceedings of meetings, among other sources.

A matter of concern was how to weigh the qualitative data uncovered in the literature review. With the exception of quantitative data, two basic forms of criticism guided this study: external criticism and internal criticism. External criticism is concerned with authenticity, or genuineness, of a document. Internal criticism is concerned with credibility (Good, 1963), or freedom of distortion of facts (Borg and Gall, 1971) once authenticity has been established. Yet, internal criticism goes a step further. Internal criticism must determine accuracy and relevance during an examination of "motives, biases, and limitations of the author which might cause him to exaggerate, distort, or overlook

information." (Isaac, 1971) For this reason, it was especially important to carefully evaluate all qualitative data uncovered in the literature search.

The study was conducted on the assumption that quantitative data recorded in the literature were valid. In the case of conflicting quantitative data, a more extensive search of the literature was necessitated. Consensus reached by a majority served as the primary determinant of inclusion or exclusion of various facts.

Another determinant was the date of resource material which was consulted. More recent dates often indicate that revisions have been made of earlier information. As a result, quantitative data reported in this study were taken from the most current sources available to this researcher.

Standard indicators were established by this researcher to assess more uniformly the impact of federal funding policies on the fifteen subject institutions: (1) the statement of purposes in the respective laws; (2) act history, ancillary laws, and directives; (3) enrollment figures; (4) establishment and maintenance of exemplary and atypical curricular programs at the BL-GCU's; and (5) general institutional stability as evidenced by annual reports, top administrative statements, and (6) other miscellaneous indicators.

Vital elements for the policy studies were found in the form of government policy regulations. Four documents provided valuable information in this area: the United States Statutes at Large, the United States Code, the Federal Register, and the Code of Federal Regulations.

All four documents provided the bases for determining impact because they stated the original intent of the policies under investigation. Also, total funding levels are cited as well as purposes of each law.

Organizational areas often serve as impact indicators. One organizational area which served as an indicator of impact is that federal programs tended to bring stronger organization in educational programs supported by federal monies. (Babbidge and Rosenzweig, 1962) As another researcher explained it,

> The major criterion for evaluation of those federal educational activities which concern the regularly constituted schools of the country must be in terms of the effect on education in the states. If these federal activities have strengthened initiative and the responsibility for education in the states they are good. If they have tended to diminish initiative and responsibility of states they are undesirable and should be modified. (Allen, 1950)

Significance of the Study

American history is replete with information on a large number of institutions in its society. There is an abundance in some areas and a paucity in others. Those areas which offer scarce amounts of recorded history and analysis often reflect the values and priorities of society. Accordingly, as values change, attempts are made to compensate for the deficiencies in the newly-valued areas. This researcher's shift in values from relative indifference to a keener awareness of the dangers BL-GCU's face is one of the most important underlying motives for the present study.

"Federal educational policy is the result of complex interactions between a variety of individuals and social forces in and out of

government and education." (Spring, 1976) Federal government funding policies have, in effect, encouraged fragmented conditions already existent in the academic setting. (Babbidge and Rosenzweig, 1962) "The current structure of Federal education programs is not the result of a unified vision of the role in education but rather is a 'patchwork quilt' of laws that differ in structure, their intent, and their effects." (Birman, 1981)

While it was difficult, if not impossible, to assess completely the impact of federal funding policies on discrete institutions of American society, it was possible to determine some of those areas of an organization which had been positively or negatively impacted by federal funding policies--one of the purposes of this study. "Each policy must be appraised, first by itself, then in its relations, and finally by its consequence." (National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931)

Very little historical research had been conducted on black institutions of higher education in general and BL-GCU's in particular. For the most part, the bulk of the historical records cover only the past fifty years. In many instances, no consistency of record keeping has occurred during this period of time.

This study examined all fifteen of America's remaining predominantly black land-grant institutions. It will, therefore, contribute to existing literature on this subject. Additionally, the study will promote interest in an important facet of American society that is in danger of elimination as a result of its presence on a figurative "endangered species" listing for higher education. In short, this study will strive to assist in the survival of BL-GCU's as a result of extensive

research analysis and exposition of conditions under which they have existed for the past twenty-six years since the Brown decision.

Definition of Terms

Several terms are used throughout this study which should be both explained and defined at this point.

1. As used in this study, the term "black land-grant colleges and universities" (BL-GCU's) refers to fifteen of the existing predominantly/historically black land-grant institutions which were established under the provisions of the 1890 Morrill Act. Both the term and abbreviation are used interchangeably with the term "black land-grant institutions (BL-GI's).

2. As used, passim, the term "historically black institutions" (BL-GI's) is used interchangeably with the term "historically black colleges and universities" (HBCU's) to refer to both public and private institutions of higher education which were established specifically for black people during the period of desegregation in this nation's history.

3. The term "historically white institutions" (HWI's) is used interchangeably with the term "historically white colleges and universities" (HWCU's) to refer to both public and private institutions of higher education which were established specifically for white people during the period of segregation in this nation's history.

4. As used in the study, the term "white land-grant colleges and universities" (WL-GCU's) refers to those institutions which were established under the 1862 Morrill Act provisions. Both the term WL-GCU's and WL-GI's are used interchangeably.

5. "Total student enrollment" refers to opening Fall enrollment full-time equivalents (FTE's) at the respective institutions.

6. The term "amount received from federal funds" includes all monies of a federal origin.

7. The term "land-grant institution" (L-GI) is used to refer to both historically black and white institutions which were established by the provisions of the 1890 and 1862 Morrill Acts, respectively.

CHAPTER II

EXAMINATION OF FEDERAL FUNDS TO EDUCATION

Introduction

The federal government plays a vital role in supplementing the funding of higher education, as noted by the following statement:

> Since fiscal year (FY) 1970, through its departments and specialized agencies it has awarded some $56 billion dollars to the Nation's colleges and universities in the form of student assistance, grants, and contracts for research and development, funds for facilities and equipment, and other institutional assistance. (National Advisory Committee for Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, hereinafter referred to as NACBHEBCU, 1980)

As the following chapter reveals, federal funding has lacked parity insofar as black land-grant institutions (BL-GI's) and their white counterparts sharing the same states have been concerned. It would be erroneous, however, to indicate either implicitly or explicitly that BL-GI's have not shared in some benefits that have been provided under various federal government programs during the courses of their existence. Contrarily, the federal government has contributed to BL-GI's in a number of ways.

This chapter examines various aspects of federal funding to the nation's existing predominantly black land-grant institutions (L-GI's). One vital subject is the role of the federal government in the total funding of higher education as a whole and the BL-GI's as discrete parts of the broad system of higher education. In addition, important dates in the chronology of federal funding to higher education, as a result of federal enactments, are delineated in order to provide a complete basis

for understanding of the federal funding atmosphere in which the BL-GI's have existed. Finally, this chapter provides a perspective for issues that have been of concern to those persons interested in and involved with federal funding to higher education.

Federal funding to BL-GI's cannot be examined in isolation. That is, in order to understand fully the relationship between the BL-GI's and the federal government (hereinafter referred to as the federal government-BL-GI relationship), it is a requisite to examine the relationship between the federal government and higher education (hereinafter referred to as the federal government-higher education relationship), as well. To satisfy this requirement, information relative to the federal government-higher education relationship aspect is also provided in this chapter. It should be unnecessary to specify considerations of color in this research report; however, citing this variable is unavoidable in focusing attention on the universe of the BL-GI's as they were impacted by federal funding policies to higher education.

To state that BL-GI's or other historically black colleges and universities (HBCU's) have lacked parity in federal funding participation is to state an obvious fact at this point in history. Several documents generated from government research reports, educational research journal articles, and other dissertational research have exposed this fact in past years. References to these research bodies are cited throughout the present chapter. What is not so obvious is the <u>degree</u> of the lack of parity, an important finding reported in this chapter, within an historical framework. Interestingly, even today, in 1981, few BL-GI

administrators are so naive as to expect--or even privately hope--that the funding pattern for the 1981-82 academic year (AY) indicates any variance from past funding trends.

Adding to this bleak condition is the generally dismal future that all of higher education will face in the present decade. For, in the midst of dwindling funds from numerous sources, both public and private, it will prove enough of a task for higher educational institutions to receive funding on a level comparable to previous years. Historically black institutions have been forced to postpone any hopes of increased fundings until the present financial crisis has abated. Seemingly, AY 1981-82 is not the time for them to attempt to gain increased funding amounts; survival and simple maintenance of existing programs are more urgently needed.

Historical Development of Federal Funding to Higher Education

Federal support of education began in the late 1700's with the endowment of public land for schools. Initially, federal support designated land for "elementary and secondary schools and later for land-grant colleges" (Achilles, 1971) through the Northwest Ordinance.

Funds from federal sources established a lengthy record from that time for higher education; however, more than 150 years would pass before the black citizens would benefit from any federal assistance for higher education. "Before the Civil War only a few token efforts were made to provide a higher education for the Negro, and these were confined to free states." (Curti and Nash, 1965) If one looks beyond the Civil War approximately 100 years to 1965 for a moment, s/he will find that

evidence reveals that federal funds to black institutions of higher education still failed to indicate significant assistance. In fact, prior to the enactment of the Higher Education Act of 1965, most black colleges and universities were totally excluded from federal funds distributed to postsecondary institutions. (NACBHEBCU, 1980)

Initially, no definite pattern of funding was established to direct the disbursement of federal funds to higher education. "Before the Education Amendments of 1972 were enacted, federal aid to higher education was eclectic. For each problem that arose in the late 1950's, throughout 1960's, a federal program responded." (Hartman, 1978) It was an enviable position for some higher education institutions to be in. "Inevitably there was keen and often bitter rivalry between institutions and regions for what was expected be very substantial endowments" (Ross, 1962) for programs at various institutions.

Educators who research the federal government role in higher education generally agree on three purposes of the federal government in relation to higher education: (1) To promote equality in opportunity in postsecondary education, (2) To promote scholarship and the advancement of knowledge through support of graduate education and research, and (3) To attain a nationwide balance of opportunities to benefit from postsecondary education and from the advancement of knowledge. (Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1975)

The federal government-higher education relationship operates on several levels. On one level, the federal government pays monies to colleges and universities. In another instance, the federal government makes direct awards to students involved in higher education. At other

times, states and "other intermediate bodies" are given federal funds for distribution to institutions of higher education. Tax provisions for individuals attending higher education institutions or for the institutions themselves constitute a fourth level. Finally, activities of regulatory natures comprise a fifth level. (Breneman and Finn, 1978)

The federal government has "played an increasing role" in educational institution policies and conduct since 1945. (Spring, 1976) As many reasons for this occurrence can be found from as many sources as are consulted. Many of the most noteworthy reasons are cited in Joel Spring's book, The Sorting Machine. According to Spring, two of the main reasons for this initial and continued involvement were the "Cold War" with Russia which prompted the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and the Civil Rights Movement which led to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Both the National Defense Education Act and the Civil Rights Act are important pieces of legislation with interesting impacts on the BL-GI's. Each of these acts will be analyzed in a subsequent chapter. As a result of the "Cold War" and Civil Rights Movement, Spring contends, federal government involvement has dealt with the definition of American educational policies and regulation of American schools. The main focus of government attention, according to Spring, has been directed toward attaining national foreign policy goals and development in social and economic areas. (Spring, 1976)

Higher education, in general, faced a serious financial period as a result of inflation following World War II. As a result, there was increasing concern about federal program establishment and maintenance

in higher education systems across the nation. Concurrently, as public demands were made for equal access to higher education for lower income groups, proposals were offered for the establishment of more colleges. (Axt, 1952)

Historically, the majority of federal funds to higher education was in the form of grants to states which, in turn, were allocated only to the existing public institutions. Toward the beginning of the 1950's, however, private institutions began to receive federal funds for support of their programs. (Axt, 1952) In late 1956 and early 1957, Congress and the presidential administration began to note the possible need for an increase in federal support for higher education in response to the prospective tidal wave of enrollment. But action was slow to develop. (The Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980)

The expected tidal wave of increased student enrollments occurred. With the enrollment of more students, higher education administrators were faced with a situation in which they were able to hold advantageous positions. Because the federal government, in most cases, had "bought" services from higher education to promote various federal programs, according to Richard G. Axt, in The Federal Government and Financing Higher Education (1952), the federal government-higher education relationship operated in a "seller's market," so to speak (education was the "seller").

As a result, the federal government-funded programs reflected a new direction of educational programs, with a few changes. One of the most noticeable changes occurred in the types of students who were sought by institutions, and who, in turn, were assisted by federal funds. Students with less than adequate financial capabilities began to enroll.

Within another decade, another shift in the student population was experienced. One author explains the set of circumstances this way:

> In the late 1950's and the early 1960's emphasis in federal legislation so far as aid to individuals was concerned was on getting the most talented students (by the usual indices) into college by use of federal grant and loan programs. As the decade of the 1960's progressed. . .emphasis began to shift toward the goal of making higher education accessible to all who wanted it and could benefit from it. (Thackery, 1977)

for all students in education, it was at this point that black students could hope to receive funds from federal sources to continue their educations. After all, this was a rather hopeful period for federal funding for the higher education system. Amounts of federal funds had increased rapidly in the mid-1950 to 1968 period. Even so, they had to move quickly to secure federal funds.

Around 1968, the federal funds began to stabilize with the acceleration of the inflation rate. (The Carnegie Council of Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1980) Historically black colleges and universities also began to receive federal funds by 1968, but an impending financial crisis threatened their newly-gained resources.

Higher education experienced a financial crisis in the late 1960 to early 1970 period. Numerous, often interrelated, reasons are given for the crisis. Some of these are the war in Vietnam, "national rearrangement of priorities," increasing numbers of students, rising expenses, decline of the American economic system, and "the credibility gap" in higher education. (Hartnett, 1971) As a result of the weakened condition of the economy, the federal funding system reflected changes.

One such change occurred with federal funding program guidelines.

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In the 1970's, guidelines for federal funding programs encouraged areas allowing education to assist in alleviating the uncomfortable economic situation. Encouragement for "program planning, management techniques, and evaluation" was a focus of the new guidelines. (Achilles, 1979) Federal government funding activity has undergone a number of changes during its evolution in education.

Chronology of Federal Activity with Higher Education with Special Emphasis on the BL-GI's

An examination of the evolution of federal funding activity should provide valuable, basic information to understand fully the changes mentioned earlier. This evolution is cited in the following table, Table 1. As shown in Table 1, evidence that the federal government has been both interested and involved in funding higher education is shown through land grants, grants of money, and the establishment and maintenance of the Office of Education. (Allen, 1950) Many of these types of assistance to higher education remain in existence today as a result of early federal assistance.

The original type of federal aid to higher education was in the form of land grants. In extending this type of federal assistance, Congress made no attempts to assess components of curricular programs or to formulate institutional operations procedures. (Hales, 1954) In fact, the earliest federal land grants for higher education were awarded as a result of Congress' aim to dispense of public holdings of lands. Congress also intended to eliminate populations in the East by using legal action. Their intentions resulted from the landmark 1785 Survey

TABLE 1

EVOLUTION OF FEDERAL FUNDING ACTIVITIES TO HIGHER EDUCATION: HISTORICAL HIGHLIGHTS

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1785		The Survey Ordinance	To reserve land for the establishment of public institutions	Strenghtened state legislature control of school lands
1787	1 Stat. 51	Northwest Territory Ordinance	To encourage townships to maintain public schools	Superseded 1785 Survey Ordinance
1862	12 Stat. 503	Morrill Act	To promote agricultural and mechanical curriculum	Had little significance for the black residents of the country who wanted to pursue higher education
1867		Establishment of the Department of Education		After 1929, the name was changed to the United States Office of Education
1887	24 Stat. 440	Hatch Act	To establish agricultural research stations at land-grant institutions	Agriculture was integrated into the curriculum as a result of this act
1890	26 Stat. 417	Morrill Act	To eliminate discriminatory language in 1862 act, allowing for the establishment of BL-GI's	States moved to accept terms of this act in order to qualify for federal funds

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1914	38 Stat. 372	Smith-Lever Act	To support the agricultural extension service	The federal government specified details of amount of time to be spent on each subject
1917	39 Stat. 929	Smith-Hughes Act	To provide funds for agricultural education, manual arts training, establishment of continuation schools for young people working in industry	Promoted development of secondary school; initially was designed to prepare students for higher education; required a matching of federal funds
1918	40 Stat. 617	Vocational Rehabilitation Act	To assist World War I veterans through grants for rehabilitation using training grants	
1920		Smith-Bankhead Act	To establish vocational rehabilitation programs in the states	Extension programs were founded; initially, funding was applicable only to states in the Union; terms were changed to include Hawaii, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1920	41 Stat. 776	National Defense Education Act	To provide military training in civil institutions	Enable military education to be influenced by education
1925	43 Stat. 970	Purnell Act	To expand experiment stations and to develop and improve rural homes and rural life	Provided federal money for investigations in sociology and economics; administrative responsibilities were assigned to the Secretary of Agriculture; agricultural studies were authorized, liberalizing investigations in this area
1928	45 Stat. 711	Capper-Ketcham Act	To expand agricultural extension programs	Required a matching of federal funds: was designed to offer additional funds to those provided under the Smith-Lever Act, the parent act
1935	49 Stat. 439	Bankhead-Jones Act	To develop agricultural experiment stations	

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1937	50 Stat. 559	National Cancer Institute Act	To establish the Public Health Service Program in education	Proved to be a landmark act in serving as a model for other agencies to authorize fellowships
1940	54 Stat. 1125	Lanham Act	To provide federal funds for construction, operation, and maintenance of schools	Forerunner of "Emergency School Aid" programs
1941	55 Stat. 147	Amendment to Lanham Act of 1940	To provide financial assistance for "construction, maintenance, and operation of institutions"	Assistance initiated by this act was continued by subsequent legislation, P.L. 815 and P.L. 874 in 1950
1943	57 Stat. 374	Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendment	To assist disabled veterans	Superseded and amended the Smith-Bankhead Act
1944	58 Stat. 284	Servicemen's Readjustment Act	To provide assistance for veteran education	Also called "G.I. Bill of Rights"
1945	49 Stat. 439	Bankhead-Jones Act	To authorize appropriations for additional experiment stations	

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1945	59 Stat. 231	Bankhead-Flannagan Act	To increase amounts for agricultural extension work	
1946	60 Stat. 775	George-Barden Act	To supplement the Smith-Hughes Act by expanding vocational education federal support	Superseded the George-Deen Act
1950	64 Stat. 48	Housing Act	To provide loan services for building college housing facilities	
1952	66 Stat. 64	G.I. Bill of Rights	To provide financial assistance to eligible veterans	Funds were to be used for attending college; amended Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944
1958 ✓	72 Stat. 1580	National Defense Education Act	To strengthen instruction in mathematics, science, foreign languages, and "other critical areas"	For the most part, this act was a reaction to technical advancements made by the Soviet Union

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1963	77 Stat. 403	Vocational Education Act	To support residential vocational programs, vocational research, work-study, training, and vocation-education demonstration projects	Funding of vocational programs increased
1963	77 Stat. 363	Higher Education Facilities Act	To improve areas in higher education	Emphasized granting funds and awarding loans for classroom instruction and equipment, library facilities, and two-year college laboratories
1964	78 Stat. 241	Civil Rights Act	To provide institutes and other measures to deal with incidences that may arise as a result of desegregation	
1965	79 Stat. 44	Cooperative Research Act	To establish cooperative arrangements for research between universities, colleges, and other state agencies	

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1965 ✓	79 Stat. 1219	Higher Education Act	To strengthen higher education institutions	Continuation of similar programs authorized by 1963 Higher Education Facilities Act
1966	80 Stat. 1216	Adult Education Act	To encourage institutions to expand basis education programs for adults to enable them to become more useful citizens	This need was previously addressed by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964
1967	81 Stat. 82	Education Professions Development Act	To improve the quality of the field of teaching, meet shortages of often critical proportion of well-trained staff, and to improve the operations of vocation programs	Amended the Higher Education Act of 1965
1968	82 Stat. 1064	Vocational Education Amendments	To improve the operations of vocation programs	Disadvantaged people became the new target group
1968	82 Stat. 1014	✓ Higher Education Amendments of 1968	To assist low-income students attending colleges	

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1972	86 Stat. 235	Education Amendments of 1972	To provide general assistance to institutions of higher education	Funds were federally matched for incentive grants to students; prohibitions were made toward discrimination on the basis of sex in vocational, professional, and graduate level schools and public schools and universities
1974	88 Stat. 484	Education Amendments of 1974	To improve the general nature of education	Established the National Center for Education Statistics; consolidated certain programs
1976	90 Stat. 2081	Education Amendments of 1976	To revise and strengthen higher education programs, vocational programs, and others	Federal payments were made for administering student assistance programs; higher education information centers were established; data collection projects were monitored and coordinated for the Office of Civil Rights and the Office of Education

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Date	Authority	Popular Name	Purpose	Comments
1980	94 Stat. 2583	Arts and Humanities Act of 1980	To promote art activities in state and local level institutions	
1980	94 Stat. 2593	Department of Education Reorganization Act	To reorganize the Department of Education	
1980	94 Stat. 1367	Education Amendments of 1980	To revise the terms for federal student loan programs	Revised and amended the Higher Education Act of 1965; added new titles to the parent act
1980		Higher Education Reauthorization Act	To extend and revise higher education programs through academic year 1985-86	Raised interest rates and limits available to students for educational loans; parents received an educational loan program supported by the federal government

Sources: Achilles, 1971; Allen, 1950; Cartensen, 1962; Chronicle of Higher Education, 1980; Grant and and Lind, 1979; Hales, 1954; Hill, 1934; National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931; and United States Code, 1976.

Ordinance provisions for elementary and secondary schools. (Bender, 1977) The language of the 1785 Ordinance and the subsequent 1787 Northwest Ordinance is explicit:

> (1785 Ordinance)-There shall be reserved the lot number sixteen of every township for the maintenance of public schools within said township.
> (1787 Ordinance)-Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools, and means of education shall forever be encouraged. (Allen, 1950)

Thus, the federal government initially went on record in support of education as early as 1785. Since 1785, the federal government has provided assistance to education in varying forms to the vast majority of educational institutions at one time or another. To be sure, the majority of existing state school systems that have been developed are the result of federal programs. (Allen, 1950)

Federal funds have been distributed through federal agencies to the various BL-GI's to the extent that a listing of these agencies with a record of assistance to BL-GCU's can be established. These agencies have been responsible for monitoring the activities operating under federal allocations at the recipient institutions for the designated funding periods.

A 1979 study reveals a number of federal agencies with obligations to funding programs at HBCU's. The listing follows: ACTION; Agency for International Development Community Services Administration; Department of Agriculture; Department of Commerce; Department of Defense; Department of Energy; Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Department of Housing and Urban Development; Department of Interior; Department of Justice; Department of Labor; Department of Transportation; Environmental

Protection Agency; International Communication Agency; National Aeronautics and Space Administration; the National Science Foundation; Office of Personnel Management; Tennessee Valley Authority, and Veteran's Administration. (Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1979)

At this point, it should be obvious that higher education and the federal government have worked together in a number of instances. As a national problem has emerged, education has attempted to solve it through research. In turn, as education has attempted to relieve the nation of some of its problems, the federal government has provided funds for implementation of the projects.

Overall, the BL-GI's received only small amounts of funds, especially when compared to the WL-GI receipts, as shown in Table 2. As noted in Table 2, there has been a difference in the amounts of federal funds that the BL-GI's and WL-GI's have received for a number of years. In many instances, the WL-GI's individually received far greater amounts of federal funds than the BL-GI's did collectively.

In the early years after the Brown decision, BL-GI receipts of federal funds declined, Table 2 also reveals. For example, 17 BL-GI's received a total of $1,257,098 in 1954. That amount decreased to $654,040 for 1955. In 1956, there was still another decrease when BL-GI receipts dropped to $625,508 (4% less). Black land-grant institutions, as a whole, did not reach the million dollar mark in federal receipts until 1961 when they received, collectively, $1,006,130; an average of $62,883 per BL-GI.

In comparison, the WL-GI's experienced a different set of circumstances. In 1954, for example, the WL-GI's received $194,576,310 of

TABLE 2

COMPARATIVE DATA ON FEDERAL FUNDS RECEIVED BY L-GI'S

Year	Total to L-GI's	Total to BL-GI's*	BL-GI Mean	Total to WL-GI's**	WL-GI Mean
1954	$195,833,408	$1,257,098	$ 73,947	$194,576,310	$ 3,741,852
1955	$213,292,286	$ 654,040	$ 38,473	$212,638,246	$ 4,089,197
1956	$248,666,440	$ 625,508	$ 36,795	$248,040,932	$ 4,770,018
1957	$300,606,166	$ 626,320	$ 36,842	$299,979,846	$ 5,768,843
1958	$352,100,121	$ 702,716#	$ 43,920	$351,397,405	$ 6,757,642
1959	$406,429,759	$ 651,841#	$ 40,740	$405,777,918	$ 7,803,422
1960	$467,748,311	$ 854,683#	$ 53,418	$466,893,628	$ 8,978,724
1961	$542,964,133	$1,006,130#	$ 62,883	$541,958,003	$10,422,269
1962	$678,354,992	$1,504,332#	$ 94,021	$676,850,660	$13,016,359
1963	$802,477,978	$2,047,576#	$127,974	$800,430,402	$15,392,892

*N=17 **N=52 #N=16 (after West Virginia was deleted as a BL-GI; includes Lincoln University of Missouri)

Sources: Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, 1954-1963.

the total $195,833,408 appropriated to all L-GI's. White land-grant institution receipts of federal funds steadily increased during the same period that BL-GI meager funding decreased. In 1956, when the BL-GI receipts dropped by almost $30,000, WL-GI receipts climbed to $248,040,932. In 1959, WL-GI receipts topped the $400,000,000 mark while the BL-GI's received only slightly over $600,000. In 1963, the WL-GI receipts were close to the billion dollar mark. The BL-GI's were hardly in the game with slightly over $2,000,000. These figures represent a blatant lack of parity between BL-GI and WL-GI federal receipts.

When consideration is taken of the meager amounts of federal funds allocated to BL-GI's, it is apparent that finances have had to be sought from other sources. Even so, the problem of inadequate resources is not the only problem with which they must contend, as shown by the following:

> The black land-grant institutions still suffer from a long period of invisibility and financial deprivation. State appropriations received by the colleges are not large enough to enable the institutions to "make the leap" necessary to strengthen various programs to a position of excellence or even distinction. (Beale, n.d.)

The BL-GI's and other HBCU's continued to receive only a very small share of all of the federal funds allocated to higher education, especially for research and development (R & D). As recently as FY 1979, only 1.3% of R & D funds were awarded to HBCU's. (NACBHEBCU, 1980)

The overwhelming reason for the lack of equitable, proportionate funding has been cited as institutionalized racism of the United States' majority race toward the race of people (black) which these institutions serve. Dr. Faustine Jones, Senior Fellow at the Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, offered a rationale for the inequitable funding to the BL-GI's and other HBCU's. In a research report she prepared for the

NACBHEBCU, Dr. Jones contended that institutionalized racism is largely responsible. Although controversy has brewed regarding an acceptable definition of "racism," Dr. Jones unequivocally blamed this factor for many problems the HBCU's experience and pointed to the retarded growth most of the institutions have experienced as support for her contention. Accordingly, Dr. Jones noted that institutionalized racism is still the most powerful barrier to participation of black people on educational, political, and economic levels. She further held that the federal government must act to "end the vicious cycle of racism." (NACBHEBCU, 1980)

Another possible reason for the condition of few R & D funds to HBCU's is pointed out in research conclusions reached by Ellyson and Krueger (1980). Their research results state that a strong correlation exists between "the size of doctoral programs and the amount of federal research funds." (Ellyson and Krueger, 1980) Yet, few of the HBCU's or BL-GI's have large doctoral programs which will enable them to receive the vital funds.

The condition is reminiscent of Catch-22. This is especially true when Ellyson and Krueger continue to report additional findings. Their findings also reveal a "moderately strong positive correlation between the amounts of internal research funds and federal research funding at both public and private ones (institutions)." (Ellyson and Krueger, 1980)

If BL-GCU's are to receive increased R & D funds, a feasible method of accomplishing this objective is to "increase the level of internal research funds" (Ellyson and Kreuger, 1980); however, in returning to Catch 22, the low level of federal funding receipts hampers the BL-GCU

progress. In essence, the BL-GI's have only a slight chance of advancement under the conditions described in the Ellyson and Krueger report.

The Role of the Federal Government in Education

As indicated, the federal government plays a vital role in the existence of many institutions of higher education. Traditionally black colleges and universities tend to rely heavily on the federal government for financial support. Usually, the traditionally black institutions look to the federal government for aid more often than non-black higher education institutions. Yet, these institutions have continually received small appropriations, proportionately, of all R & D funds, which is the highest-funded area. For example, only 1.3% of R & D funds were awarded to HBCU's in FY 1979. (NACBHEBCU, 1980)

There are a number of ways in which the federal government contributes to higher education. The primary role of the federal government in educational activities is appropriately summarized in the following statement:

> The federal government is not responsible for the daily operations of public higher education and does not dictate development of higher education programs. It does, however, influence the development of programs in the national interest. States and programs in their higher education institutions are subsidized in the interest of realizing the national priorities. (Berrian, 1981)

The federal government acts as an ever-present embodiment of American ideals and values toward education. In other words, education and the federal government are continually related to each. The degree of involvement varies from quarter to quarter, year to year, and presidential administration to administration.

Two Major Issues

The emergence of often-heatedly-debated issues about federal funding of education projects should not be considered a prodigious occurrence. Disagreement in all phases of life is a commonality--and often is even expected--in such an area that enjoins the latitude evident in a discussion of the federal government-higher education relationship. Several issues have been discussed for a long time. These discussions have drawn divergent points of view to polemic arbitrations for a number of years on the general topic of federal funding to education. Many of the issues remain unresolved even today.

Numerous issues have emerged and have been debated, researched, and abandoned for lack of a rejoinder. Other issues have undergone a similar process. Yet, they have continually re-emerged at varying points during history, necessitating confrontations between opposing parties. These issues have led to federal funding policies throughout the course of educational history, as shown by the following statement:

> The present educational policies of the Federal Government--and no doubt those for the future as well--are the product of changing circumstances knitted to old habits of mind and action. They are developed in the context of a political, social, and economic system that determines in large measure the shape of a political, social, and economic system that determines in large measure the shape of those policies. They are tempered, too, by attitudes toward education and toward the proper uses of some other nation's educational system. . . . In a very real sense, an issue in public affairs is whatever people think is an issue. Regardless of how inappropriate or irrelevant a given factor may seem to be, if it is sufficiently important to a large enough number of people to influence their behavior, then it must be dealt with. (Babbidge and Rosenzweig, 1962)

In acknowledgement that numerous issues exist, this section will discuss two of the most important issues: (1) Does the federal government

have an obligation to provide education for United States citizens? and (2) If the federal government provides federal funds to education, is it possible for the recipients of such funds to operate freely and without excessive federal controls?

Issue: Does the federal government have an obligation to provide education for the United States citizens?

A review of the literature reveals that educators generally favor a federal role in education. The majority of the educators abstain from adamant upholdings that the federal government is required, per se, to provide education for the citizens; however, there is opposition to this issue within the field of education. These opponents state emphatically that education is a definite responsibility of the federal government and that the federal government, therefore, must fund educational activities.

Other opponents speak out on this same issue. These opponents contend that education is a function of the state--not the federal government--and the language in the Constitution is usually the basis of their arguments. Invariably, references are made to the Constitution. Therefore, discussion of this issue will begin at this point.

Perusal of the United States Constitution reveals that the word "education" does not exist. This silence on the part of the Constitution has been offered by opponents of federal activity in education as sufficient proof that education is to be governed, supported, and subsequently controlled by the states rather than by the federal government.

Two educational organizations have issued statements addressing this issue. Their statements are of assistance in attempting to develop a foundation for studying the obligation of the federal government toward

education of its citizens. The National Education Association (NEA) of the United States and the Educational Policies Commission (EPC) have repeatedly indicated the stance of their respective organizations throughout the years in various reports. Admittedly, other educational organizations have also gone on record stating their viewpoints on this issue. These two organizations represent the general sentiment of such organizations.

The NEA stated that in spite of the omission of the word "education" from the Constitution, numerous statements in this document have been the source of warrants for promoting and expanding federal relations to the field of education. As a result, the federal government has served as the founder of the numerous public school systems in a majority of the states. The influence of the federal government on the development of education "has been both positive and widespread." (Educational Policies Commission, 1945) A similar viewpoint was expressed in a statement by the Educational Policies Commission.

The Educational Policies Commission indicated that interpretation of the intent of the Constitution should go beyond the literal one. According to the EPC, although no provisions for education were expressed, "leaders among the men who framed that document certainly believed that the power to perform this national service (education) was positively implied" in the language of the Constitution. (Educational Policies Commission, 1945) Speaking as strict constructionists, the organization is on record as having approved of Congress' appropriating public holdings of land for the purpose of education. Decisions reached by the United States Supreme Court in the early 1940's indicate that anything that

could be "justified as pertaining to the general welfare" was eligible for consideration as a "function of the federal government if the citizens so desire it." (Educational Policies Commission, 1945)

An organization opposing a federal obligation, the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, issued a state, also. This Committee opposed the notion of a federal obligation on the grounds that the nature of such a stance is in advancement of public concerns, which is not sufficient cause for federal support. Said the Committee:

> We do not subscribe to the doctrine that because our public schools and educational facilities are a vital element in our national welfare, that they thereby become the proper concern and implied responsibility of the National Government. (Educational Policies Commission, 1945)

The basis of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor argument was in the purported interest of freedom of centralization of controls. In short, the Committee agreed with the often-expressed thought that federal assistance inevitably is followed by federal controls.

Discussion of the issue at hand has taken place for a long time. Even today, the same matter is at question in the education world. In an interview with several BL-GI presidents, this researcher was told that a federal presence in education is vital. President Jesse N. Stone, Jr., of the Southern University System seemed to express the sentiment of the group this way: "A federal presence in education is a must ad infinitum." The presidents agreed that BL-GI's, or the "1890 institutions," will be in financial turmoil without federal subsidization of higher education programs in view of the meager amounts of state funding their institutions have received in the past.

The federal government itself has been unable to settle the debates that have surfaced about the role of the federal government in education. (Birman, 1981) Past and present trends indicate that the federal government-higher education relationship will continue on rather tenuous terms. Definitive responses from power bases may be forthcoming which will assist in solidifying the matter.

Issue: Is it possible for educational institutions to receive federal funds without, subsequently, becoming controlled by the federal government?

The issue of federal control of education as a result of funding to educational institutions is based on adages such as "Control follows the dollar" and "He who pays the piper calls the tune," according to the EPC. (Educational Policies Commission, 1945) The two sides of this issue argue that it is possible to receive federal funding support without excessive controls and the opposite, that is, it is not possible to receive federal funding support without excessive controls. Educators seem to be mainly interested in obtaining federal funds, while denying the federal government the power to legislate policies which will impact upon their educational institutions, according to a 1954 report. This same report indicates that educators opposing federal control indicate a "liberal increase" in federal funds without an increase in controls is the most effective remedy for inequalities in education. (Hales,1954)

Perhaps an examination of one of the earliest sources of federal funds to education is exemplary. Initially, the federal government gave "land endowments and other financial aid for education in the states."

(Educational Policies Commission, 1954) Later, categorical aid emerged without a great deal of federal intervention. Toward 1930, however, matching of federal funds was required, contractual agreements were reached before award of federal money, and general federal control was more evident. (Educational Policies Commission, 1954)

Many educators have been eager to receive federal funds for their institutions. As a result, they have failed to acknowledge "very real dangers" of receiving federal funds, Harold Orlans indicates in The Effects of Federal Programs of Higher Education (1962):

> (1) That academic values will be surrendered to those of a business enterprise or the more important goals of the nation, and
> (2) That some form of political control will, indeed, follow federal aid. (Orlans, 1962)

Orlans continues that sometimes it is necessary for an institution striving to maintain independence to refuse to participate in federal programs which are undesirable to them instead of merely going on record as opposing the program guidelines. (Orlans, 1962) This denial is often difficult in the face of pressing financial needs of many institutions, however.

The majority of educators favor an increase in subsidizations by the federal government; however, they are against federal control extensions. (Hales, 1954) As a result, many institution administrators face a dilemma. One factor affecting the dilemma is that members of academia favor a federal assistance increase. Despite the fear of impending control with any federal aid given academic institutions, the fears have not been of any significance insofar as declining to accept

various assistance packages. In fact, few institutions have refused assistance. (Orlans, 1962)

Educators fear federal intervention "because they feel that democratic control of a powerful federal government may be impossible." (Hales, 1954) Some federal financial policy authorities indicate that it is unrealistic to expect aid from the federal government without control. (Hales, 1954) In spite of the lack of existence of undue federal controls, many opponents of federal involvement in education continually remain fearful of such involvement.

In attempts to promote their cause, proponents of federal participation have called attention to the matter for many years. These proponents argue that federal funds were allocated without controls "during the early years of the nation's history." For at least 100 years unconditional grants were awarded to public education. (Hales, 1954) As a method of explaining this fact of history, opponents state:

> Early aid was rendered by an unusually abstemious federal government which had not yet been forced into numerous positive actions to protect the general welfare. . . . Many of the trends and forces that earlier were congenial to an extension of control by the states are now operating on the national level. Educators who oppose an extension of federal control failed because they neglect(ed) to take cognizance of this fact. (Hales, 1954)

In considering the effect on the nation's L-GI's, there is a prevailing judgement which should be noted. The entire educational population does not agree, but an examination of the statement is necessary. The prevailing judgement states:

> Studies by staff of the Commission of Financing Higher Education indicate that "political" threats to the land-grant institutions have come at the state and local level rather than from the Federal Government. . .partisan political pressures of the kind most often warned against in connection with federal aid to education have

> almost without exception occurred at the state and local level; federal grants have helped the colleges and state extension services to resist these pressures. (Axt,1952)

Federal control, within limits, is considered by many educators to be desirable. One reason is that programs, they feel, will be improved. Accordingly, it is necessary to have federal control, they contend, because of the unlikelihood of "desired coordination of programs" and equal opportunities in education by the vast number of educational systems in the country without it. (Hales, 1954)

An opposing contention states that an increase in federal control will produce a "huge bureaucratic machine" that will move to maneuver the entire system of education in the nation. If this were to occur, totalitarianism might not result; however education might lose a democratic quality, autonomy, and "freedom essential to the educational undertaking." (Hales, 1954) A counterargument has indicated that "centralized or authoritarian federal control of education is antagonistic" to the American system of democracy. (Allen, 1950) Consequently, this fear of overwhelming dominance is not likely to befall the educational environment, as shown in the following statement:

> There are weighty reasons for believing that federal financing of higher education need not be followed by federal control. Fifteen years of financing of research with no federal control suggests that general aid could be provided without deadening uniformity, control of curricula, or federal selection of faculty. (Kidd, 1959)

As early as 1945, the EPC concurred. The EPC indicated that experience has not shown that control consistently follows financial assistance. (Educational Policies Commission, 1945)

Perhaps Harold Orlans captures the entire issue of the existence of federal aid without concomitant controls in his statement:

> The danger of federal control is like the danger of the dragon waking. Many academicians believe it will never wake (it has slept so long); (parenthetical expression not added) many, that it is not asleep but awake and quite tame; others that there is no dragon at all. (Orlans, 1962)

Summary

Higher education has been financially supplemented by the federal government for a number of hundreds of years. Some institutions, such as the WL-GI's, have reaped greater financial rewards from the federal government than others have, such as the BL-GI's.

The federal government plays an essential role in higher educational activities. It established a record of funding to educational activities as long ago as 1785 to some educators' joy and other educators' sorrow. As a result, discussion has centered around the existence of the federal government in education for a number of years. All indicators suggest that the controversy will remain active for many years to come on this very topic.

Two major forces behind federal involvement can be positively identified: the "Cold War" with Russia and the Civil Rights Movement. During these two periods of time, the federal government stepped up its involvement in funding educational activities. The BL-GI's, however, did not experience significant gains in federal receipts at either time; however, the Civil Rights Movement was closer to the period when the BL-GI's received increased federal funds than the "Cold War" was. BL-GI receipts continued to remain significantly lower than WL-GI receipts through this entire span of time in the late 1950's through the mid 1960's.

Increasing federal activities and changes in federal policies were promising for the BL-GI's. Perhaps these institutions were destined to break from the less-than-desirable circumstances under which they had been established.

CHAPTER III

ESTABLISHMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE BL-GI'S

Introduction

As noted in the preceding chapter, the federal government established an extensive pattern of funding educational institutional projects before the founding of the BL-GI's. In fact, federal activity is responsible for the very establishment of the BL-GI's, as a result of the provisions of the Morrill Act of 1890.

The newly-established BL-GI's were created in seventeen states from as far west as Texas to as far east as Maryland. (See Figure 1) As with their traditionally white counterparts, the BL-GI's were agricultural, industrial, and/or mechanical in nature. To date, only fifteen of the original BL-GI's have predominantly black student populations. West Virginia's loss of land-grant status subtracted one institution from the total, and Lincoln University of Missouri, which became predominantly white as a result of the mid-1950 desegregation policy in public education, subtracted a second institution from the total.

The purpose of this chapter is to explain to the reader some of the historical highlights of the BL-GI existence. Included in this section is a review of the first forms of federal funding activities which had significant impact on the BL-GI's, the 1862 and 1890 Morrill Acts. Also, this chapter discusses early struggles which the BL-GI's experienced during their formative years. Characteristics of the BL-GI's are discussed in this chapter as well as important dates in the history of the BL-GI's.

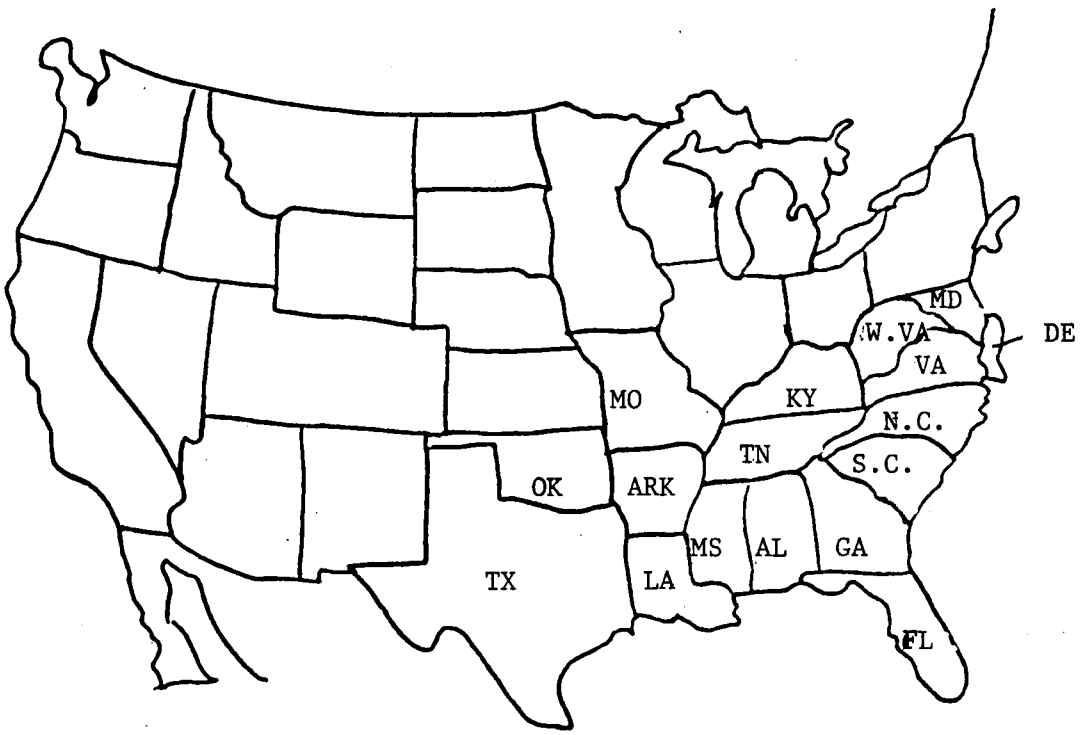

Figure 1. States which established 1890 (black) land-grant institutions.

Review of the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890

In order to appreciate fully the circumstances under which the BL-GI's emerged, attention must be focused on the sources of their origin. Accordingly, attention must be focused on the efforts for establishment of historically black institutions (HBI's) around the start of the Civil War (1861) with the Morrill Act of 1862 and the second Morrill Act of 1890.

Of the Morrill Acts, commonly called "land-grant bills," which are credited for the establishment of land-grant institutions, the second act in 1890 must be directly attributed to the establishment of BL-GI's. The prior act in 1862 had little effect on black people because of slavery.

With the 1862 act, sex, race, numbers, and prerequisite requirements were left at the discretion of the individual states. (Ross, 1962) As with most instances in a given society, the power group received the greatest benefits as a result of enactment of the 1862 Morrill Act. To the dismay of many black people interested in higher education, black people were not in the power group. Therefore, the 1862 act was insignificant in educating black youths.

When first established, the Morrill Act of 1862 indicated that support was to be provided by the federal government. Under the terms of this act, each state was apportioned 30,000 acres of federal land for each member of Congress. Income derived from the sale of the land served as an endowment fund for maintaining support of the institutions. (Eddy, 1961)

One of the main requirements provided in the 1862 act was that all of the states should maintain their own endowed capital funds intact to finance the newly-established institutions themselves. This provision was the antecedent for state support of public institutions. (United States Office of Education Survey, hereinafter referred to as USOE Survey, Vol. I, 1930)

Despite the negligence in establishing an educational system for black citizens of America, the Morrill Act of 1862 was an advancement in higher education. This act had, at least, three outstanding features:

1. It provided for the creation of a permanent endowment through public land grants for organization and support of public educational units,

2. The act designated the type of college to be established, and

3. The bill placed an obligation upon all of the states to maintain endowed capital funds intact in order to maintain the colleges. (USOE Survey, Vol. I, 1930) These features were useful in formulating the terms of the second Morrill Act in 1890.

Drawing upon deficiencies recognized in the first Morrill Act of 1862, the Morrill Act of 1890 was more specific on items that had emerged as a result of misinterpretation or omission of items in the antecedent act. Misinterpretations were not limited to race alone; they extended to curricula, also. As a means of explaining the subsequent misinterpretation, Edward G. Holley wrote, in The Land-Grant Movement and the Development of Academic Libraries (1977), the following statement:

> Morrill did not intend that his act be narrowly construed . . . though he certainly did intend it to encourage a scientific spirit as opposed to the classical spirit and to promote specifically "branches of learning . . . related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." Subsequently, Morrill noted that he wished his bill to be broad enough to enable each state to respond to local needs, but he wanted colleges where science, not classics, would be the leading idea. (Holley, 1977)

With the second Morrill Act, the federal government specifically provided for the establishment of BL-GI's in the Southern states "so that the Negro population would receive the same benefit" as the white population. As a result, the act included a provision to ensure that this wish be carried out that stated that no money would be paid to any state or territory that made a distinction in race or color toward admission. (USOE Survey, Vol. II, 1930) The provision in the 1890 act stated:

> No money shall be paid under this act to any state or territory for the support and maintenance of a college where a distinction of race or color is made in the admission of students, but the establishment and maintenance of such colleges separately for white and colored students shall be held to be a compliance with the provision of this act if the funds received in such State or Territory be equally divided. . . . (26 Stat. 417)

The preceding provision was the result of many Southern states' failure to establish L-GI's to which black people could have access under the 1862 Morrill Act.

The enactment of the 1890 Morrill Act gave a very real incentive to the states to establish land-grant colleges for black students. Six states immediately proceeded to establish new BL-GI's under state control: Georgia, Delaware, North Carolina, West Virginia, Texas, and Oklahoma. All of the states had accepted the terms of the act within ten years.

By 1900, each state affected by the 1890 Morrill Act had either established a BL-GI or designated an existing black institution as its L-GI for black people. (Hall, 1973)

The few BL-GI's that were established during the period between the Civil War and 1890 are indicated in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, four states accepted the terms of the original Morrill Act of 1862 and established BL-GI's for potential black students upon their emancipation and prior to the 1890 Morrill Act: Mississippi, 1871; Kentucky, 1886; South Carolina, 1872, when Claflin University was designated as the state's BL-GI until 1896 when Colored, Normal, Industrial, and Mechanical College (later re-named South Carolina State College) was established; and Virginia, 1882, when the state gave Hampton Institute land-grant status, but later designated Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute (later re-named Virginia State College) as its BL-GI in 1920. In 1909, Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College (later re-named Tennessee State University) emerged, making it the last BL-GI to be established. (Hall, 1973)

Table 3 also summarizes all seventeen of the original BL-GI's, their original names, dates of establishment, and their locations. To date, only one institution has lost its status as a BL-GI. As indicated earlier, West Virginia State College lost its land-grant status at the request of the state. Consequently, there are currently sixty-eight rather than sixty-nine L-GI's in the United States, sixteen of which are historically black colleges and universities.

TABLE 3

NAMES, DATES OF ESTABLISHMENT, AND LOCATIONS OF THE ORIGINAL BLACK LAND-GRANT INSTITUTIONS

Current Name	Date of Establishment	Original Name	Location
Alabama A & M University	1875	Huntsville Normal and Industrial School	Normal, Alabama
Alcorn State University	1871	Oakland College++	Lorman, Mississippi
Delaware State College	1891	State College for Colored Students	Dover, Delaware
Florida A & M University	1887	State Normal and Industrial College for Colored Students	Tallahassee, Florida
Fort Valley State College	1895	Georgia State Industrial College	Fort Valley, Georgia
Kentucky State University	1886	State Normal School	Frankfort, Kentucky
Langston University	1897	Colored Agricultural and Normal University	Langston, Oklahoma
Lincoln University of Missouri	1866	Lincoln Institute	Jefferson City, Missouri
North Carolina A & T State University	1891	Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race	Greensboro, North Carolina

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Current Name	Date of Establishment	Original Name	Location
Prairie View A & M University	1876	Alta Vista Agricultural College	Prairie View, Texas
Southern University and A & M College	1880	Louisiana Southern University	Three campuses: New Orleans, Baton Rouge, and Shreveport, Louisiana
South Carolina State College	1896+	Colored Normal, Industrial, A & M College of South Carolina	Orangeburg, South Carolina
Tennessee State University	1909	Tennessee A & I State Normal School for Negroes	Nashville, Tennessee
University of Arkansas-Pine Bluff	1875	Branch Normal College	Pine Bluff, Arkansas
University of Maryland-Eastern Shore	1886	Delaware Conference Academy	Princess Anne, Maryland
Virginia State University	1882	Virginia Normal and Collegiate Institute	Petersburg, Virginia

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Current Name	Date of Establishment	Original Name	Location
West Virginia State University*, **	1891	West Virginia Colored Institute	Morgantown, West Virginia

* Is now predominantly white institution **No longer holds land-grant status ++In 1830, Alcorn began operation as a part of Oakland College. The name was later changed to Alcorn University once Oakland closed due to lack of students +South Carolina originally designated Claflin University as a BL-GI in 1872. The state later established the institution now known as South Carolina State College in 1896

Sources: Delaware State College Catalog, 1978-79; Department of Interior, 1917; Eddy, 1961; NACBHEBCU, June, 1980; USOE Survey, Vols. I and II, 1930.

Early Struggles

The newly-established institutions experienced a number of problems with which they had to struggle in their formative years. The sources of their struggles involved areas which included staffing, financing, and others which arose because of the nature of change itself. "Educational changes are not easy to bring about in any society or institution." (Harris, Figgures, and Carter, 1975) Seemingly, this was particularly true during 1890 when the BL-GI's were first authorized to be established. As the land-grant colleges and universities evolved in later years, they continued to struggle for their survival.

Early L-GI's faced struggles because they represented a revolution in college education. The classical mode, which was the basis of education up to this time, was suddenly accompanied by a totally new type of curriculum which the land-grant ideal represented. Struggles due to this condition were assuaged as time passed and acceptance of the nature of L-GI's grew. This acceptance, however, did not totally ease the turbulent period of struggles the institutions would face.

The plan to extend scientific, technical, and practical education was encumbered by the lack of an organized body of knowledge in these disciplines. (USOE Survey, Vol. I, 1930) In fact, securing successful teachers was one of the greatest difficulties. (Mumford, 1940) As the new L-GI's emerged, they faced rough conflict with the crude ideas of men who thought that university instruction could immediately be extracted from the manual toil of farm and workshop. (Nevins, 1962) Quite the contrary was true. In fact, it was first necessary to establish a

scientific knowledge in order to increase the ability of the disciplines to make any kind of impact.

One of the first struggles BL-GI administrators and organizers were forced to face was in dealing with the attitudes of the people for whom the BL-GI's were established. Despite Booker T. Washington's movement that attempted to dignify labor, many black people were opposed to a curriculum stressing the areas of agricultural, mechanical, and/or industrial work. Having been freed from slavery for only a short period of time, many of the black citizens equated agricultural, mechanical, and/or industrial work to drudgery. To them, education could not dignify these types of work and relieve black people of duties in the fields. One author explains the situation this way:

> During slavery, labor became a curse and when Emancipation came, freedom from labor was one of the first freedoms sought. In the Negro's mind, education meant leisure, luxury, freedom from the drudgery of work. This attitude led him to seek schools which supported his manner of thinking, and in many instances helped to mold the aims and purposes of many of the colleges which wanted his continued support. (Atwood, 1962)

Many of the historically black private colleges and universities in existence at that time were willing to and, in fact, did offer curricula other than those stressed by BL-GI's. They provided course offerings which appealed to those black people who did not want agricultural, mechanical, or technical instruction. As a result, BL-GI's were often shunned for the colleges and universities which emphasized curricula the newly-freed black people preferred in theoretical and cultural curricula.

There were other sources of conflict. In fact, a number of

aspects were criticized. For example, universities were charged with not complying with the law which required "specifically that the teaching of agriculture and mechanical arts should be the leading object." (Mumford, 1940) Publicly-supported institutions had to live under the stigma of accepting charity for their existence from their respective states. (Atwood, 1962) Opponents of a system of instruction nurtured by L-GI's continued to argue that too much money was being spent on salaries of professors of mathematics, science, and Latin. Additionally, agricultural students enrolled in technical curricula were viewed disparingly by their peers in other divisions of the university because the land-grant curricula were oriented toward a technical mode rather than a classical mode. (Mumford, 1940)

Some criticisms looked directly at the curricula and organizational structures of the institutions. There were sharp criticisms of the institutions that attempted to develop instruction in agricultural and mechanical arts. Seemingly, criticisms abounded:

> This did not stop with mere criticisms of policies . . . or the curriculum . . . the criticisms led to definite efforts to separate the college of agriculture from the university. (Mumford, 1940)

Additional conflict of this same aspect came primarily from those critics who objected to establishing the colleges as divisions of state universities because many agricultural and mechanical colleges had taken on the status of a second state university, in many areas. (Eddy, 1961)

Of the early conflicts that focused on curricula, there was continued concern regarding the actual curricular content. Many of the newly-established BL-GI administrators seemingly found the most

difficulty in granting college credit for anything less than what they felt was college work. In their views, the BL-GI practice of offering practical curricula, as opposed to the theoretical and cultural curricula, was not favorable. Shifts were made in curricula to attempt to attract students yet teach the courses for which the BL-GI's were responsible. During the early years of the BL-GI existence, the administrators were repeatedly forced to justify their curricula.

Still another problem which had to be solved was the establishment of requirements for admission to the BL-GI's. Establishment of admission requirements posed a difficult problem, however, as shown by one observer's statement:

> If they (the BL-GI's) required conventional entrance requirements, they would deny a college education to the very people they were organized to serve. If they admitted inadequately prepared students from the rural communities, they could not hope to give a college education leading to a baccalaureate degree comparable with the grade of college education offered by the best colleges and universities. (Mumford, 1940)

As a result, the BL-GI's compromised by admitting students with less than a four-year high school preparation to the college of agriculture. Concurrently, the BL-GCU's provided both elementary and secondary instruction. (USOE Survey, Vol. II, 1930) This provision of elementary and secondary instruction was necessary because the BL-GI's needed properly qualified entrants for their departments, but there was a shortage of such students. This practice was somewhat detrimental to BL-GI growth, and "Considerable misunderstanding of their true status resulted." (Atwood, 1962)

Tradition also caused another source of conflict in the BL-GI movement to expand. Prior to the emergence of L-GI's, liberal arts institutions had received financial aid from the states and, to a lesser degree, the federal government. The first attempts to establish L-GI's failed as a result of the past tradition of aiding liberal arts institutions. The attempt to establish industrial and agricultural curricula for black students failed also because black students preferred private liberal arts higher educations. As a result, BL-GI's postponed teaching industrial and agricultural subject matter in higher education in order to attract students. (USOE Survey, Vol. II, 1930) Their first priority, in effect, was to secure students so that their institutions could promote a black land-grant system of instruction in subsequent years.

Other conflict centered on the Morrill acts themselves. Debate persisted about Morrill's intentions and the meaning the the two acts. There was no clear interpretation of Morrill's intentions in drafting the bills; belligerent farmers contended that the primary goal was advanced instruction in agriculture. Quite the opposite was true, however. The goal of the acts was to help create centers of scientific study and research. (Nevins, 1962) This conflict was not easily resolved, and many L-GI's floundered during the period of debate.

The early struggles which the BL-GI's faced may well have toughened them for a lifetime. Since their infancy, they have continually faced the same types of problems which have been previously described. Nevertheless, they have a colorful heritage from which they seem to draw strength and face new problems that arise.

Characteristics of the Black Land-Grant Institutions

Black colleges--both public and private--were generally located in rural areas where isolation and local hostilities often encouraged the students and staff to restrict their activities to the physical campus. (Anderson, 1975) This confinement, in effect, discouraged black campuses not only from participating in activities of the broader white community, but it also assisted in the development of what Claud Anderson, in "Black Colleges: A Political Hub," calls a "mental set" which made it difficult for black colleges to identify with surrounding black communities. (Anderson, 1975) As a result of this confinement, roles of the institutions have been extremely limited and their political involvement prohibited.

Land-grant institutions were founded as a result of protest to limited opportunities in curricula and admissions in the traditional classical institution. (Eddy, 1961) Historically operating under the "separate but equal" doctrine, there were two L-GI's in each state, one serving black students and one serving whites. The black institutions are commonly referred to as the 1890 land-grant colleges and the white counterparts are commonly called the 1862 land-grant colleges.

Although their objectives were precisely the same (USOE Survey, Vol. II, 1930), the BL-GI's did not develop as rapidly as those for whites in the seventeen Southern states in which they are located. Curricular offerings developed far more rapidly at the WL-GI's than at the BL-GI's. Also, research projects developed and expanded more quickly at the WL-GI's. Physical facilities, also, did not develop at equal

rates; nor did the quality of student life on campus. In short, the BL-GI's were seriously retarded in their growth.

In his study, The Consequences of Federal and State Resource Allocation and Development Policies for Traditionally Black Land-Grant Institutions: 1862-1954, William Truehart revealed a definite lack of parity in BL-GI and WL-GI receipts of total federal funding appropriations which had been entrusted to the states for the support of public educational institutions. According to Truehart, the WL-GI's consistently received a far greater portion of the federal appropriations than the BL-GI's during the early years of the institutions' existence. (Truehart, 1979) Table 2, on page 29, shows the degree of inequity in detail.

In view of the disproportionate share the BL-GI's received as a result of state disbursement, the BL-GI's were often forced to operate on the bare minimum of financial assistance. In the South, there were a number of decades of great indifference to public education for black people. One author explains the situation this way:

> The planter class and the ruling class thought that formal education was not meant for black (people) because few black (people) were thought capable of learning subjects such as mathematics, Greek, Latin, and philosophy. They justified this neglect by arguing that too much education would ruin a good farm worker. (Moland, 1979)

Despite this indifference toward public education for black people, the BL-GI's continued to educate many students who, otherwise, would have received no education at all--secondary or postsecondary.

The missions of the BL-GI's are important in considering characteristics of the institutions. Often, the mission statements responded to changes in time and in student interests, and they grew to include

"agriculture, engineering, law, English, science, economics, military science, and graduate study. The original mission statements of the 1890 land-grant institutions emphasized practical education in industrial work and teacher training." (Moland, 1979) Nevertheless, the BL-GI's have a common characteristic in their aims and statements of purpose.

According to the USOE Survey of 1930, quoted passim, the primary purpose of the BL-GI's was

> To furnish theoretical and practical higher education, including agricultural, mechanical arts, home economics, English, mathematics, physical, natural and economic sciences, to Negro youth in order to train them to engage in pursuits of vocations of life. (USOE Survey, Vol. II, 1930)

One BL-GI president explained the various purposes of BL-GI's this way:

> The 1890 land-grant institutions have always imbued their students with a sense of moral purpose. Programs at the 1890 land-grant institutions that enhance intellectual and moral development have borne fruit. Knowledge without ethical development can create social misfits who impede social progress. (Stone, 1979)

This common characteristic of the BL-GI intent to strengthen its students is one of the major factors that makes the BL-GI's an extremely diverse yet homogeneous group of institutions. The purposes of selected institutions are cited in Table 4. As indicated in Table 4, some of the stated purposes reflect the land-grant ideal; yet, the purposes often go a step further. The purposes concentrate on elevating the status of their students in the total realm of society. Leadership development is a common theme, also. Additionally, the institutions indicate that BL-GI students should provide services to communities and American society, as a whole. "College after college sets its goal at effective living in an ever-changing world." (Kannerstein, 1978)

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF SELECTED BL-GI STATEMENTS OF PURPOSE

Institution	Purpose(s)
Alabama A & M University	To provide a college education within reach of all capable individuals who may be interested in developing general knowledge and technical and/or professional skills
Alcorn A & M University	To prepare young people to serve in the areas of general and applied knowledge of arts and sciences, education, and vocational education; To develop leadership in general and in areas peculiar to the various curricular offerings; To perform services and functions of a land-grant college including short-term adult programs
Kentucky State University	To provide for its students an adequate foundation for graduate and professional studies, preparation for elementary and secondary teaching for positions in vocational and technical home economics, and for clerical, secretarial, technical, and managerial positions in business and commerce; and vocational-technical preparation on a two-year level
Langston University	To help students: acquire a common core of information and knowledge to prepare them for responsibilities of citizenship in a "changing free society"

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Institution	Purpose(s)
Langston University (Continued)	Develop and strengthen ability to use English language in "qualitative and quantitative ways"; develop an appreciation for the higher ideals of moral and spiritual life and of the "finer expressions of the human mind"; be intellectually curious and eager for scholarly growth; maintain physical health and vigor and comprehend importance of "appropriate leisure time activities"
Southern University and A & M College	To provide: training opportunities for professions and vocations requiring college educations; opportunities for college age youth to learn how to perform responsibly and intelligently the duties of a citizen; informal educational services in the state for individual groups; and advancing knowledge through research and graduate study
South Carolina State College	To promote liberal education and practical education to aid students in making valuable use of their fields of study and wise choices in their life works; give service which will contribute to improving the living conditions and raising the cultural standards of the people of the state

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Institution	Purpose(s)
University of Arkansas-Pine Bluff	"To provide such environment of learning and to promote such activities as should develop students into healthy, well-balanced personalities, useful citizens, clear and accurate thinkers and effective leaders in the communities in which they may serve"
University of Maryland-Eastern Shore	To provide liberal vocational education "sufficient for good citizenship and the ability to live happily in a cultural society"; train students to serve the state of Maryland and surrounding areas as community leaders, teachers, supervisors, and skilled workers; assist students in being able to function in graduate and professional study; provide scientific information and other data to homemakers and workers in agriculture and industry

Source: Directory of Predominantly Negro Colleges and Universities in the United States of America, 1969.

Another important characteristic of the BL-GI's to be considered lies in their value to the states. Initially, they served no real value to the states; they were only supplements to instruction in the classics, letters, and scholastic subjects which were given in the old colleges and universities. As with the 1862 L-GI's in their formative years, the BL-GI's were usually inferior in quality. (USOE Survey, Vol.I, 1930) In an evaluation of the BL-GI's, conducted by the USOE, the following excerpt describes a characteristic of BL-GI's during their formative years:

> The collegiate programs of these institutions were nebulous or nonexistent. The general quality of education was inferior and the major concern of the State officials was the meeting of the legal requirement to divide the appropriation with a school for Negroes in order that the Federal funds might be received by the State. This legal function was a common role for the seventeen Negro institutions. (Daniel, 1951)

Subsequent evaluations indicate that collegiate programs, characteristically, were expanded at most of the institutions. Graduate programs were added at some institutions, which represents advancements in many of the institutions.

> The first institution to initiate a graduate program was Virginia State University in 1937 followed by North Carolina Agriculture and Technical in 1939. By 1950, six of the institutions had established graduate programs, and six more had established graduate programs by 1975. (Moland, 1979)

The BL-GI's were representations of Southern state attempts to meet responsibilities for educating black youth beyond the secondary level. As a result, BL-GI's, often, were "catchalls into which were dropped a variety of educational projects for which there was pressure and on which state legislatures looked with approval." They, therefore, lacked uniformity. (Alexander, 1951)

In assessing their usefulness in a report, an early United States Department of Interior report indicated that the sixteen agricultural and mechanical schools were "fairly well equipped" to teach trades effectively, and practically all subordinated the industrial training to the literary instruction. (Department of Interior Report, 1917) While this practice complied with the 1862 Morrill Act requirement that the new subjects should be taught without the exclusion of traditional disciplines, (Nevins, 1962) the practice was not in accord with the intent of providing agricultural, mechanical, and/or industrial instruction which would be useful to the students and states in the years following graduation.

Another characteristic is that many BL-GI's emphasized teacher training in their early years. Part of the emphasis on training students to be teachers was the result of deficiencies BL-GI's experienced in vital areas. One writer summarized the situation this way:

> Inevitably, from background training and preparation, equipment, teaching, and research have been substandard. The range of subjects have been narrow and, of necessity, much of the emphasis has been devoted to teacher training. (Ross, 1962)

In short, the BL-GI's had few, if any, alternatives during this period. Another reason for the emphasis on teacher training was that there was a great deal of pressure for teachers in tax-supported elementary and secondary schools. (Alexander, 1951) As a result, the BL-GI's were forced to try to help meet the demand for more teachers by training students who could emerge from colleges and universities as teachers. Such students would be able to enter the field of education on professional levels with proper backgrounds. All of these previously-cited

characteristics indicate an extensive record of historically significant events in BL-GI existence.

Important Dates in the Histories of the BL-GI's

The BL-GI's have undergone transitional periods since their origin. All of the institutions have experienced changes in their names. As indicated earlier, curricular programs have been expanded to meet the needs of a changing society, thereby attracting increased numbers of students to enroll in the various institutions. Additionally, the institutions have also experienced periods of financial instability which have threated their very existence at varying points of their lives. Selected, important dates cited in Table 5 highlight institutional events since the establishment of the first BL-GI, Alcorn A & M University.

Not intended to be exhaustive, Table 5 reveals a number of historically significant events. The primary purpose of this section is to present a bird's eye view of all of the various black land-grant institutions' growth. As far as this researcher has been able to discern, no such listing has ever been compiled. Dates of historical significance which are cited in the text of this study are not included in the table, for the most part.

Many of the dates cited in Table 5 were the result of chance circumstances. Other events were the result of extensive planning on a number of levels: institutional, local, and national. In most instances, the institutions were aided in their growth by involvement of persons who had special interests in the BL-GI's, both individually and

TABLE 5

SELECTED DATES OF HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE IN DEVELOPMENT OF BL-GI'S

Date	Institution	Event
1830	Alcorn A & M University (Alcorn)	Began operation as "Oakland College"
1861	Alcorn	Oakland College closed for lack of students; state of Mississippi purchased the institution for the establishment of an institution to educate black students
1862	Alcorn	Received 3/5 of Morrill funds--amount was considered excessive of institutional needs, so part of the appropriations was given to Oxford University, another black university in the state
1866	Lincoln University (Lincoln)	Founded
1871	Alcorn	Established as a BL-GI under the 1862 Morrill Act terms
1871	Alcorn	Began four-year curriculum program
1871	Alcorn	Re-named Alcorn University
1872	South Carolina State College (S.C. State)	Began operations as part of Claflin University
1875	University of Arkansas-Pine Bluff (Arkansas)	Established
1875	Alabama A & M University (Alabama)	Began first year of operations with two teachers and 60 students
1876	Prairie View A & M University (Prairie)	Founded
1878	Alcorn	College was re-organized
1878	Prairie	Opened on March 11 with $20,000 state appropriation

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1879	Prairie	Became state normal school in April
1880	Southern University (Southern)	Established by state of Louisiana on April 10
1882	Arkansas	School was moved to another site in city of Pine Bluff
1882	Virginia State University (Virginia)	Founded
1883	Southern	Re-organized and moved within city of New Orleans
1883	Virginia	Began operations
1886	Kentucky State University (Kentucky)	Established as a result of bill passed by the Kentucky General Assembly; city of Frankfort donated $1,500 under terms of 1862 Morrill Act
1886	University of Maryland-Eastern Shore (Maryland)	Opened as Delaware Conference Academy; became popularly known as Princess Anne Academy; remained under domination of the Methodist Episcopal Church
1887	Florida A & M University (Florida)	Founded; opened to receive fifty students
1887	Kentucky	Officially opened with three teachers and 55 students
1890	Southern	Re-organized
1890-93	North Carolina A & T State University (N.C. A & T)	Operated as an annex of Shaw University in Raleigh
1890	Southern	Expanded curriculum to include agriculture and mechanical arts

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1891	Alabama	Became a L-GI upon state's acceptance of 1890 Morrill Act terms
1891	Delaware State College (Delaware)	Established
1891	N.C. A & T	Established and began operation on March 9 before passage of law which created it
1892	Delaware	Opened to receive students
1892	Florida	Conducted first graduation class
1893	N.C. A & T	First building on campus completed
1895	Ft. Valley State College (Fort Valley)	Established
1896	S.C. State	Established with passage of act after state had withdrawn support from Claflin University
1897	Langston University (Langston)	Established and began four-year curriculum
1898	Alcorn	Erected buildings on 80-acre campus
1899	Prairie	Name changed to indicate a shift to teacher training
1901	Prairie	Began four-year curriculum
1902	Virginia	Name changed to Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute
1907	Langston	Main building destroyed by fire
1909	Florida	Began four-year curriculum
1909	Tennessee State University (Tennessee)	Established as a normal school
1912	Tennessee	Began instruction and replaced Knoxville College as state BL-GI

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1914	Southern	Name changed to Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College
1915	Southern	Forced to move by need for better environment for programs
1916	Langston	Funding level had reached $36,000, an increase from 1913 appropriation of $5,400
1919	Maryland	Proceeding was initiated by Morgan College to transfer control of of the university to the state
1920	Virginia	Established as state BL-GI, replacing Hampton Institute
1922	Southern	Began four-year curriculum
1922	Tennessee	Name changed to Agricultural and Industrial State Normal College; began four-year curriculum
1922	Arkansas	Became an agricultural, mechanical, and normal college
1923	Florida	Students went on strike against administrators; threatened closure of institution
1924	Florida	Three campus buildings destroyed by fire
1924	S.C. State	Began four-year curriculum
1924	Tennessee	Granted degree-granting privileges
1925	N.C. A & T	Began four-year curriculum
1925	Florida	Experienced financial problems
1926	Kentucky	Name changed in an attempt to create an industrial curriculum renaissance

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1927	N.C. A & T	Became recognized as a four-year standard college; physical plant was valued at $1,000,000; annual income was $175,140
1927	Tennessee	Became a state teacher's college
1928	Langston	Students staged a strike in defense of "student rights," causing school to be closed temporarily
1929	Arkansas	Began four-year curriculum
1929	Kentucky	Began four-year curriculum
1929	Maryland	Dropped secondary curriculum program
1930	Florida	Received criticism for quality of faculty
1933	Arkansas	Received regional accreditation
1933	Virginia	Received regional accreditation
1934	Delaware	Graduated first graduating class
1934	Florida	Quality of faculty was improved--eighteen had worked toward doctorate degrees
1935	Florida	Received regional Class A rating
1936	N.C. A & T	Received regional accreditation
1936	Maryland	Transfer of college was finalized from Morgan College to the state; began four-year curriculum
1937	Virginia	Began graduate program
1938	Kentucky	Name changed to indicate a shift from industrial to liberal arts
1938	Prairie	Established graduate program

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1939	N.C. A & T	Began graduate program
1939	Kentucky	Received regional accreditation
1939	Alabama	Began four-year curriculum
1941	Langston	Gained university status
1943	Virginia	Began four-year curriculum
1945	Prairie	Gained university status
1946	Tennessee	Received regional accreditation
1947	Delaware	Began four-year curriculum
1948	Langston	Received regional accreditation
1949	Florida	Received regional accreditation
1949	Delaware	Received $400,000 appropriation for erection of campus buildings
1949-53	Delaware	Lost accreditation; on the verge of closure
1950	N.C. A & T	Added technical institute to curriculum
1951-61	S.C. State	Legislative appropriation reached a 134% increase per student
1952	Delaware	Discontinued high school curriculum
1953	Florida	Gained university status
1953	Maryland	Received regional accreditation
1953	N.C. A & T	Established School of Nursing
1954	Langston	Student body was integrated
1954	S.C. State	Name changed to present name

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1954	Maryland	Desegregation policy threatened to close institution
1955	Tennessee	Received second largest share of state appropriation (14.5% of the total)
1957	Delaware	Received regional accreditation
1957	Florida	Admitted to Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as a full member
1957	N.C. A & T	General Assembly re-defined purpose to focus on training teachers supervisors, and administrators for professions or occupations
1957	Fort Valley State College	Received regional accreditation
1958	Prairie	Received regional accreditation
1960	S.C. State	Received regional accreditation
1960	Delaware	College was in better organizational and financial condition--expenditures had increased 22%; student enrollment had increased 133%
1961	Alcorn	Received regional accreditation
1961	Alabama	Was not approved for regional accreditation
1962	Alabama	Offered graduate programs, but work at graduate level led only to Master of Education degree
1962	Florida	Celebrated "Diamond Anniversary"
1962	Langston	Expanded curriculum to include electronics and technology courses

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Date	Institution	Event
1962	S.C. State	Received 72.6% of total budget from state appropriations
1963	Alabama	Received regional accreditation
1963	Kentucky	Discontinued instruction in agriculture
1966	Alcorn	Students went on strike calling for resignation of president
1971	S.C. State	Established a two-year nursing program
1972	S.C. State	Initiated cooperative research program with Clemson University
1975	Langston	Established Communications Department
1975	Alcorn	Began graduate program
1978	Maryland	Began graduate program
1981	Delaware	Began graduate program

Sources: Alexander, 1951; Atwood, 1962; Bond, 1962; Boykin, 1962; Brawley, 1946; Daniel, 1951; Davis, 1951; Department of Interior, 1917; Eells and Hollis, 1962; Eddy, 1961; Fleming, 1962; Frazier, 1957; Holmes, 1934; Holley, 1977; Jones, 1962, Jones and Weatherby, 1978; Harris, 1962; Katz, 1969; Lloyd, 1962; McDaniel, 1962; McGrath, 1965; Moland, 1979; Moon, 1962; Mumford, 1940; NACBHEBCU, 1979, 1980; Neyland, 1963; Patterson, 1979; Perry, 1962; Picott, 1962; Richter, 1962; Ross, 1962; Reeves, 1981; Russell, 1962; Stephan, 1962; Sullivan, 1969; USOE Survey, Vols. I and II; 1930.

collectively. This specialized role of such special interest groups will be discussed in the following chapter.

Summary

The BL-GI's, often euphemistically called the "1890 institutions," were created as a result of the Morrill Act of 1890. These institutions were established in seventeen states of the nation. Two of the original seventeen BL-GI's are no longer predominantly black in student population.

There were two Morrill Acts which established L-GI's, one in 1862 and another in 1890. The 1862 act had no significance for black people because they were still enslaved at that time. Upon their emancipation, the newly-freed black people were able to receive education as others after the federal government mandated the establishment of postsecondary institutions for black students. The federal government also attached financial benefits for states establishing agricultural, mechanical, or industrial schools to educate black youth.

Many of the states accepted the terms of the 1890 act so that they could qualify for the federal monies. As a result, they established schools to meet the requirements of the 1890 provisions, with one exception: the funds distributed to the states for maintenance of the L-GI's were not "equally divided" as specified in the 1890 act. Instead, the BL-GI's received grossly unequal shares of the federal funds.

Many of the BL-GI's struggled during their formative years. They were hampered by the fact that they represented a revolution in education. Additionally, they were unable to secure successful teachers. Moreover, the very people for whom the BL-GI's were established rejected the land-

grant system of instruction. They equated such a curriculum to drudgery and felt that education could not dignify labor. The institutions also struggled with their curricula. Continued concern was expressed about the curricular content. In short, a number of problems arose in the early years.

The institutions shared common characteristics of locale. Usually, the institutions were located in rural areas. They also shared the common characteristic of receipts of only the bare minimums of federal funds which had been entrusted to their respective states. As a result of meager funding, the BL-GI's shared the common characteristic of being poorly equipped to meet the needs of postsecondary education. Still another common characteristic is their purposes. For the most part, the BL-GI's strived to elevate the status of their students in the society in which they lived.

Despite the many odds they have faced, the BL-GI's have managed to grow. As a result, they represent a diverse system of education. Curricular programs have expanded at most of the institutions. Graduate programs came on the scene for BL-GI's beginning in 1937. As recently as 1981, another BL-GI, Delaware State College, added a graduate program.

A number of the institutions, working individually to meet their respective goals, work collectively to contribute to a diverse system of education at historically black institutions. They, therefore, have come a long way from their early days of being merely teacher education factories. They promise to expand to provide even more services to their students.

CHAPTER IV

SPECIALIZED ROLE OF SPECIAL INTEREST GROUPS

Introduction

The condition of higher education for black people has attracted national attention for a number of years. During this period of time, black institutions have been the impetus for the development of special interest groups (SIG's) across the nation. In fact, during the late 1950's to the latter part of the 1970's, several special interest groups emerged to assist BL-GI's and other HBCU's in receiving increased federal funding. Some of these SIG's will be examined in the present chapter.

Much of the work performed by these SIG's has been funded by federal monies. Other SIG's have taken the brunt of funding upon themselves when external funding was either non-existent or not awarded.

At times, the federally-funded SIG's raison d'être was to determine the compliance--or lack thereof--of the respective institutions with federal funding policies. Usually, the focus of such SIG's was to evaluate the existing programs which had been established with federal funds at the various institutions. On the other hand, data may have been needed for governmental bodies to determine the overall status of the nation's historically black colleges and universities. At other times, SIG's were sometimes formed at the reticent insistence of people involved with or interested in higher education for black Americans. In this instance, the SIG's wanted to call national attention to the problems,

improving conditions of the HBCU's by influencing federal funding policy-making in increased favor of the HBCU's.

The results of the SIG research have consistently indicated the same findings: opportunities provided by HBCU's to their students have not been equal, proportionately, to opportunities provided by HWCU's to their students. A major reason for this discrepancy has been cited, in past years, as a lack of sufficient federal funding to the HBCU's. For example, in 1960, a total of $829,880,000 was allocated to higher education. Of that amount, $854,683 went to seventeen BL-GI's while $466,893,628 were awarded to fifty-two WL-GI's. (United States Census, 1980) The figures represent an average of $50,275 per BL-GI, compared to $8,978,724 per WL-GI in 1960. In 1962, the average for BL-GI's was $88,490 and $13,016,359 for WL-GI's.

The findings also indicate that even in 1980, almost 100 years after the establishment of BL-GI's, HBCU's had not attained parity with their white counterparts. Nevertheless, various conditions at BL-GI's have changed as a result of SIG findings in the overall scheme of higher education for black Americans within the HBCU's. What change has occurred has been slow to develop, in many instances. These changes are discussed in the present chapter.

A major point this chapter reveals is that BL-GI's and other HBCU's have been aided to some extent, in view of the fact that various conditions in these institutions have changed. In fact, many BL-GI's have experienced increased funding as a result of activity provided by such SIG's as the National Institute of Education and the Office for the

Advancement of Public Negro Colleges. In other instances, the BL-GI's were aided by SIG activity which focused on logistical details of higher education administration, such as the United States Commission on Civil Rights. Regardless of the area of emphasis of the SIG's, the BL-GI's have often been aided to some degree by SIG's in their attempts to maintain operations and advance in the higher education system.

The following groups which are discussed in this chapter are diverse organizations of SIG's that have worked for a number of years to improve the overall operations of colleges and universities for those students enrolled in the nation's historically black colleges and universities.

Historical literature of some groups is more extensive than of others. Some SIG's are more renowned than others. For example, the United States Commission on Civil Rights is far more familiar to many educators than the Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges. Even so, the Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges has worked diligently to advance BL-GI's and other public HBCU's as the Commission has.

For the most part, very little literature is available on any of the SIG's other than that which has been published by the respective SIG's themselves. An exception is SIG's which were established by federal mandate. Some data are available in the form of law documents for such federally-mandated SIG's. Under the leadership of experienced educators serving as chairs, the SIG's have worked to sensitize the federal government and the entire American society, in some instances, on the conditions

of the HBCU's. As a result, more literature is becoming available to the public. Operations for many of these SIG's have not always been smooth. Changing presidential administrations have often threatened the existence of many of the groups. Nevertheless, incoming administrations have continued to authorize many of the committee activities which were authorized by previous appointments. At the time of this writing, some of the committees are uncertain of future extensions of charters which will authorize them to continue to research vital issues and report their findings to both federal decision makers and the entire body of higher education personnel. Education budget cuts by the Reagan administration are making many of the federally-mandated SIG's uncertain of continued operations in the future.

United States Commission on Civil Rights

One of the earliest SIG's founded three years after the Brown decision of 1954 was the United States Commission on Civil Rights. As a result of action taken by Congress, the Commission was established in 1957 as a "temporary, independent, bipartisan agency of the United States government." (United States Commission on Civil Rights, 1981) In the course of its existence, this agency has monitored numerous aspects of American societal life and its impact on the citizens. Education has consistently been a major concern of many of the Commission activities.

The Commission was extended with the passage of P. L. 88-352 on July 2, 1964 (H. R. 3496), commonly cited as the "Civil Rights Act of 1964."

Title V of this act, which extended the Commission, discusses many details about the function of the Commission in ensuring equal opportunities to all citizens. These specific duties of the Commission are outlined:

> Section 104(a) The Commission shall-- (1) investigate allegations in writing under oath or affirmation that certain citizens of the United States are being deprived of their right to vote and have that vote counted by reason of their color, race, religion, or national origin; such writing under oath . . . shall set forth the facts upon which such belief or beliefs are based;
> (2) study and collect information concerning legal developments constituting a denial of equal protection of the laws under the Constitution because of race, color, religion or national origin or in the administration of justice;
> (3) appraise the laws and policies of the Federal Government with respect to denials of equal protection of the laws under the Constitution because of race, color, religion or national origin or in the administration of justice;
> (4) serve as a national clearinghouse for information in respect to denials of equal protection of the laws because of race, color, religion, or national origin, including but not limited to the fields of voting, education, housing, employment, the use of public facilities, and transportation, or in the administration of justice;
> (5) investigate allegations, made in writing and under oath or affirmation, that citizens of the United States are lawfully being accorded or denied the right to vote, or to have their votes properly counted, in any election of presidential electors, members of the United States Senate, or of the House of Representatives, as a result of any patterns of practice of fraud or discrimination in the conduct of such election. . . (78 Stat. 251)

As directed by the federal guidelines, the Commission has been responsible for investigating and facilitating a number of facets of American life. Discrimination against black Americans, consequently, has been a major area of concern and investigation. Legal developments have also been researched and evaluated in order for the Commission to assess the potential impact on "affected groups" of people.

Laws instituted at the federal level have been of interest to the Commission, as well. Furthermore, the Commission has acted as a

clearinghouse for the nation by distributing, upon request, materials which have reported research findings of this agency. In an attempt to gain high-level support, the Commission has submitted numerous reports to Congressional groups and the President. (United States Commission on Civil Rights, 1981) The latter activity is a result, also, of the Section 104(b) amendment which requires interim reports.

Public support of the Commission will serve as a strong force to ensure its existence and operations for many years to come. Future trends indicate that the Commission will continue to focus on those areas by which they were established and extended by the federal government in legislative actions.

This SIG has not been responsible for BL-GI attainment of federal funds, per se. For the most part, this SIG has provided a legal environment which has allowed BL-GI graduates to be guaranteed "equal access" which may have been denied them. In other words, the United States Commission on Civil Rights can be more indirectly attributed to BL-GI growth than directly responsible. In short, because of the very nature of the work performed by this SIG, BL-GI's have stood in a position to benefit from work conducted by Commission activities.

The Commission statement on discrimination bears attention, at this point, in light of BL-GI's and this study itself. According to a statement made by the Commission:

> As numerous publications by this Commission have documented, today's inequalities and underrepresentation in employment are not accidental or simply the result of individual choice or prejudice. Rather, they reflect the existence of overt and covert present discrimination and the effects of past discrimination, not only in employment but also in housing, education, and other areas of public and private American life. Discrimination based on race, sex, and national origin cannot

> be isolated in any single area; and discrimination in one area has an impact on other areas. (United States Commission of Civil Rights, 1981)

This statement seems to capusilize the intent of the Commission as well as its role and scope for BL-GI's and other HBCU's. In this regard, this SIG has helped to promote federal legislation to end discrimination against the HBCU's.

The formation of this SIG signals an especially significant period for BL-GI's and other HBCU's in light of federal involvement with traditionally black institutions of higher education in the mid-1960's. The period of legal developments in equal opportunities for all United States citizens, the primary responsibility of the Commission, will be discussed in greater detail in a subsequent chapter of this study. Suffice it to say at this point, the United States Commission on Civil Rights is an especially significant special interest group for BL-GI's. This SIG was accompanied, in later years, by other groups interested in promoting the expansion of HBCU's. One such group was the Federal Interagency Committee on Education.

Federal Interagency Committee on Education

A result of Executive Order, the Federal Interagency Committee on Education (FICE) began to investigate special interests of black groups in 1969. The FICE "is the arm of the Executive Branch of the U. S. Government responsible for the continual appraisal of Federal educational activities." (Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1971)

"As part of a larger policy effort to improve Federal relations" with HBCU's, the FICE was given the responsibility of examining federal

funding support of historically black institutions. (United States Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1979) As a result of this delegation of duties, the FICE undertook the activities of researching and publishing "annual survey reports" in 1969. (Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1973) In many instances, results of FICE studies served as the basis of BL-GI attempts to gain increased federal funding. FICE studies, in effect, were often beneficial.

The real impetus behind this function of the FICE was a body of twenty presidents of historically black colleges. These presidents convened in a meeting sponsored by the United States Office of Education in Mobile, Alabama in July, 1979. At this meeting, the presidents expressed their sentiment that the federal government was insensitive to the needs of their institutions. In describing the events which led to the origination, the FICE gives the following account of the events:

> These twenty college presidents drew up a resolution expressing outrage at the Federal Government's lack of understanding of the problems of black colleges and the exclusion of black colleges from participation in Federal programs. They stated their concern that, although black colleges have an historical commitment to educating disadvantaged students, the Federal government continually bypassed them when allocating funds for this purpose. (Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1973)

Consequently, in October of that same year, the FICE was requested to "ascertain the precise level of Federal support to all institutions of higher learning and to contrast the support awarded the traditionally white colleges with those granted traditionally black colleges." (Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1971) This information was submitted, and a number of reports were published in ensuing years which sought to provide similar information. Repeatedly, the reports pointed out the low

amounts of federal funds to HBCU's. Statistics reported by the FICE apprear throughout this study.

Committee membership represented a diverse group of federal government agency representatives. Invitations were extended, at one time, to representatives from a number of federal government agencies who were not named to the actual committee to participate in FICE activities. Obviously, the purpose of such a diverse membership was to sensitize the federal agencies to the federal funding situation so that increased allocations would be made to the HBCU's. According to figures cited in Table 2, page 29, the FICE had a tremendous record to correct of inequitable funding to BL-GI's. BL-GI receipts of federal monies show an appreciable increase in the years immediately following FICE activity, as shown in the Appendix. By 1972, BL-GI receipts of federal monies ranged from $1,412,300 to $7,247,500. (Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1973)

The most valuable service this SIG contributed was that it revealed exact amounts appropriated by federal agencies to HBCU's. As a result of the FICE and similar SIG research findings, the Carter administration ordered an increase in federal agency contract awards of monies to the BL-GI's and other HBCU's.

> Under Mr. Carter's 'black college initiative,' government agencies were ordered last Fall to establish annual goals for increasing the share of federal contracts going to those (black) institutions. An office was set up on the Office of Education to monitor the progress of the program. ("Guidelines Issued for Aid to Black Colleges," 1981)

The action to increase federal contract awards to HBCU's under the Carter administration was also added as an educational policy under the Reagan administration.

> The Reagan action revived (the) initiative begun in the Carter administration to achieve similar goals. The Carter program never got off the ground but the Reagan order includes requirements for reports and rules for coordination by the Council on Human Resources, a Cabinet-level body. (Reeves, 1981)

The FICE is no longer in existence. Nevertheless, several key statistics are now available today as a result of reports which this SIG generated under the heading, "Federal Interagency Documents."

The Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges (OAPNC)

The OAPNC operates as a branch of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) in cooperation with the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU). The OAPNC was founded in 1969 with financial assistance from the Ford Foundation, the Kellogg Foundation, the NASULGC, and the AASCU.

The primary function of the OAPNC has been to aid public HBCU's by increasing their "national visibility." Another function has been to gain increased amounts of private support for the thirty-five institutions the OAPNC serves. (Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges, 1980)

The OAPNC has a serious mission. As the OAPNC explains this mission, the responsibility is stated this way:

> Specifically OAPNC seeks to provide the much needed advocacy for historically black public colleges through (1) the enhancement of public awareness of their contributions and strengths within American society; (2)interpreting these institutions to state, federal, and private agencies; and (3) interpreting these institutions to foundations, corporations, and other organizations interested in the program activities and leadership roles of these institutions. (Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges, 1980)

Besides serving as liaison for the institutions it serves, the

OAPNC focuses on other areas. One area of emphasis is to enable the public HBCU's to serve their "special student clientele" more effectively. Another area is to assist the public HBCU's forming linkages with other educational bodies in the country. Still another area of OAPNC emphasis is to help the public HBCU's establish international linkages with developing countries. (Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges, 1980)

The OAPNC conducts a number of conferences at HBCU's annually. The aim of these conferences is to provide a perspective on vital issues in HBCU operations and maintenance. Topics include federal support of HBCU's, improving the function of Development Officers at their subject institutions, and private support of public HBCU's. Comments made by public HBCU attendents at these conferences have indicated widespread acceptance of the OAPNC sessions as well as of the office itself.

As a part of carrying out its duties, the OAPNC monitors the activities of a large number of the groups that are likely to impact public HBCU's. Members of the OAPNC staff have been instrumental in providing data to other agencies also interested in promoting public HBCU's, such as the NACBHEBCU, the NASULGC, and the general public.

The OAPNC has proven to be of invaluable service to the BL-GI's and other public HBCU's. Current indicators point to additional OAPNC support of all public HBCU's in the future.

National Institute of Education

The National Institute of Education (NIE) was established by legislative action in Section 405(a) of P.L. 92-318, as a result of the

United States policy "to provide every person equal opportunity to receive an education of high quality regardless of his race, color, religion, sex, national origin, or social class." (86 Stat. 328)

The NIE was established in 1972 to guide America's education systems toward meeting other national educational policies, as well. Their duties include: (1) assisting in solving or alleviating the problems in the American education system while promoting "the reform and renewal of American education"; (2) extending education to be considered as an exact practice rather than one which is subject to individual interpretation; (3) strengthening the "scientific and technological foundations of education"; and (4) establishing educational research within the educational system. (86 Stat. 329)

A primary unit within the NIE consists of a National Council on Educational Research (NCER), a presidentially-appointed body. This unit is an important part of the NIE because it is the policy making body for the NIE. According to the mandate, fifteen members serve on the NCER in addition to "such other ex officio members who are officers of the United States as the President may designate." (86 Stat. 329) The NCER members, consequently, are responsible for general control of the NIE and many NIE activities.

The NIE has often been one of the most important federal funding agencies to HBCU's. The NIE has shown major progress for helping HBCU's to improve their research areas. As a part of its policy commitment to increase research capabilities for minority members and women, the NCER has established the following policy:

> It shall be the policy of the National Institute (of Education) to increase the participation of minority persons and women in the research and development efforts of the nation through ensuring that qualified minority firms and individuals and qualified women are given informed opportunity to participate in NIE programs, and through efforts to increase the numbers, qualifications and performance of minority firms and individuals and women engaged in R & D (research and development). (National Institute of Education, 1979)

Quantitative data, when examined for three periods, seem to indicate that the NIE has not been as helpful to BL-GI's and other HBCU's as other federal agencies. In a study conducted by Stephen J. Wright for the NACBHEBCU, "comparative obligations of selected federal agencies to black colleges" were tabled. Fiscal years 1976 and 1977 and the transition period between the two years were studied. The data compared three federal agency obligations to HBCU's, in addition to the NIE. The data are summarized in the following table, Table 6.

As indicated in Table 6, the NIE awarded $122,000 to all HBCU's in FY 1976. For unexplained reasons, despite the fact that some colleges received over $3 million during the transition quarter, HBCU's did not share in the awards for this period of time. In FY 1977, the total amount to HBCU's dropped to $94,000 for all HBCU's. These data do not seem indicative of sufficient levels of support from a group that has been mandated to help to advance HBCU's. On the other hand, these data fail to point out the assistance the NIE has provided in extending opportunities in a crucial area, research, for the HBCU's and BL-GI's.

The previously-cited policy of the NCER to increase opportunities for women and minorities indicated that more black people would soon gain much-needed experience in research. Data are not currently available to determine the actual implementation of policy; however, such data should

TABLE 6

SUMMARY OF COMPARATIVE DATA ON FOUR FEDERAL AGENCY OBLIGATIONS TO HBCU'S
(Thousands)

	Amount to Higher Education			Amount to HBCU's			Percent of Total to HBCU's		
Agency	1976	Transition	1977	1976	Transition	1977	1976	Transition	1977
National Endowment for the Humanities	35,853	9,526	40,735	407	111	796	1.1	1.2	1.9
National Institute of Education	11,111	3,378	12,866	122	-0-	94	1.1	-0-	.7
National Science Foundation	496,326	115,510	565,820	4,572	147	5,271	.9	.1	.9
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	118,886	37,586	120,955	2,194	473	3,031	1.8	1.7	2.5

Source: NACBHEBCU, 1979.

be available in NIE agency reports to be published and, subsequently, evaluated in the near future.

The NIE was extended through 1985 by the Education Amendments of 1980, P. L. 96-374. Under this act, several changes were made which will affect future operations of the NIE. In one instance, the authority of the NIE was extended, and appropriated amounts were raised. The 1980 act provided for the following appropriations: FY 1981--$120,000,000; FY 1982--$130,000,000; FY 1983--$145,000,000; FY 1984--$160,000,000; and FY 1985--$175,000,000. (94 Stat. 1498) In another instance, research and development were prioritized. Emphasis was changed to focus on nontraditional students, part-time students, and institutions which enrolled these students. Additionally, the new 1980 act encouraged the study of national and international languages and cultures.

With the extension of the NIE to 1985, the BL-GI's may be required to share this SIG with other institutions. The result of the new extension will be interesting to watch as the funding is decreased or eliminated in other governmental agencies. Most likely, the competition will increase for all federal funding to higher education. Only time will indicate the effect such competition for federal funds will have on the BL-GI's and other HBCU's.

National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities

In December, 1976, the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities (NACBHEBCU) was established by the Secretary of the recently-re-named Office of Health,

Education, and Welfare, Patricia Roberts Harris. The Committee is governed by the General Education Provisions Act, Part D (P. L. 90-247 as amended; 20 U. S. C. 1233 et. seq.) and the Federal Advisory Committee Act (P. L. 92-463; 5 U. S. C. Appendix 1). (NACBHEBCU, 1979)

There are fifteen members on the Committee. Membership on the Committee is dictated, by the charter, to be comprised of "members knowledgeable about the higher education of Blacks, the historically Black colleges and universities, and the economic, educational, societal, and political realities in which public policy is made." (NACBHEBCU, 1979) At least one member of the Committee is required to be from the business sector. College and university presidents, chancellors, vice presidents, and other administrators participate in the work of the Committee.

During their first term, the Committee provided advice to Secretary Harris on a number of matters. Topics included higher education access, diversity of institutions, education evaluation, federal policy, institutional policy, and research. Data generated for the reports to the Secretary were collated into an annual report. This annual report suggested the types of activities and tasks which were required for the Committee to accomplish in the ensuing year. It also recommended policies which needed to be developed by federal, state, and local governments and other educational bodies which were likely to impact black colleges and universities.

In the second term, 1978, the Committee addressed seven main issues: (1) extension of the life of the Committee to extend its charter for an additional two years, (2) the need for adequate staff and other resources, (3) middle-income family tuition tax credits, (4) the newly-

proposed Department of Education, (5) the closing date for receipt of applications and revised regulations for proposals for the Developing Institutions Program, (6) recognition and encouragement of those Adams states negotiating in good faith, and (7) Basic Educational Opportunities Grant regulations proposed for technical amendments. (NACBHEBCU, 1979)

A major accomplishment the Advisory Committee achieved for BL-GI's and other HBCU's was that it generated a number of status reports on the conditions of these institutions. These reports underscored the need for additional federal support of HBCU's. The reports also contained several Advisory Committee recommendations for improving the quality and productivity of the nation's HBCU's. Such recommendations included ways and means of stimulating and encouraging black researchers to actively study "policy questions relating to the educational needs" of black people. (Wright, 1979)

As with many of the other committees created by executive order or federal legislation, the future of the NACBHEBCU is uncertain. They have been extended in previous years; however, such extensions will, undoubtedly, terminate at some point in the future. At this point, it is not possible to suggest what the future of this SIG will be beyond the current period in which it is operating.

Summary

It is apparent that the BL-GI's could not have advanced in gaining increased federal favor without the aid of special interest groups working both with them and for them. As children need assistance in reaching maturity, so do educational institutions. A number of SIG's

can be credited with the growth and expansion of BL-GI's which were often ignored or shunned by their own state legislatures.

Special interest groups have focused on all aspects of life at the BL-GI's. Some have dealt with logistical details, as the United States Commission on Civil Rights has. Others have studied federal policies and practices as the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities. Still others have served as liaisons for the institutions as the Office for the Advancement of Public Negro Colleges has. Additionally, other SIG's have provided expanded opportunities in previously-untouched areas as the National Institute of Education has; or SIG's have exposed gross inequities in federal funding as the Federal Interagency Committee on Education has.

The vantage point has been different, in many instances, but the focus has been the same: the BL-GI's and other HBCU's. Likewise, the purpose has been the same: improvement of these institutions so that they can meet the mandates under which they were established. To an extent, the SIG activities have been succesful, despite the overall condition of the BL-GI's when compared to other non-black higher education institutions. Sometimes, success must be measured simply in terms of mere survival.

The very existence of BL-GI's such as Langston University, the University of Maryland-Eastern Shore, Tennessee State University, and Delaware State College, examples of institutions which have faced closure or merging with their larger HWCU "sister" institutions, must be partially attributed to efforts made by these and similar SIG's.

The BL-GI's cannot grow on their own; they must have the support they have had in past years--and more--if they are to continue to exist. One ingredient must be added: somehow, some SIG must find a way to actually bring parity in the educational system so that BL-GI's and other HBCU's will be less concerned about mere survival and can begin to operate as their historiclly white counterparts have for many years past.

CHAPTER V

THE CONSEQUENCES OF SELECTED ACTS ON FEDERAL FUNDING

Introduction

Despite often precarious positions in the total higher education scheme, the BL-GI's have perpetuated their relatively new system of education. They have continually operated. Perhaps surprisingly, they have managed to add new curricular programs; expand service offerings; equip institutional areas, for example, classrooms and laboratories; and promote extracurricular programs, among other accomplishments. Their ability to survive for so many years in the face of obviously inadequate funding from both state and federal appropriations is owing, seemingly, to nothing short of a miracle, in view of their financial situations.

Funding indifference has been a fact of life for these institutions. Bills have been enacted for enforcement on higher education institutions; yet, the BL-GI's have been systematically excluded, in most instances. "Federal land-grant legislation, with the exception of the Nelson Amendment of 1907 and the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, virtually ignored the BL-G(I)'s," noted Truehart in his study. (Truehart, 1979) As noted earlier, and reiterated here to emphasize the plight of the BL-GI's,

> Prior to the enactment of the Higher Education Act of 1965, most Black colleges and universities were not included at all in Federal funds distributed to postsecondary institutions and there has been but little commitment to rectify past funding inequities. Despite their achievements, many of the HBC(U)'s continue to walk a fiscal tightrope. In August 1978, a delegation of Black college presidents met with President Carter and Vice President Mondale to discuss the survival of historically Black institutions and the need for greater Federal assistance to enhance the special qualities of these institutions. (NACBHEBCU, 1980)

Today, over three years after the meeting with former President Carter and former Vice-President Mondale, the record of federal appropriations to BL-GI's and other HBCU's does not indicate a significant positive impact, as shown in Table 7. As shown in Table 7, in FY 1979, federal funds obligated to HBCU's amounted to $393,444,000. This amount represents 4.4% of the total $8,949,440,000 obligated to all higher education institutions during 1979. (NACBHEBCU, 1980) The 4.4%, the portion appropriated to all HBCU's of the total allocations to higher education, is rather characteristic of the 1970-79 period, as shown in Table 7.

An examination and analysis of key legislative acts yields valuable information, in light of federal funding to BL-GI's and the total federal environment in which BL-GI's have existed. One of the first legislative acts to impact higher education in the subject period, the National Defense Education Act of 1958, is examined in this chapter. Some six years after enactment of the National Defense Education Act, another vital piece of legislation was passed in the form of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Passage of this act also had an interesting and perhaps surprising impact on the BL-GI's, as this chapter reveals. In 1965, the Higher Education Act of 1965 signalled an especially significant period for higher education, the BL-GI's, and other HBCU's. This chapter explains that subsequent amendments to this act were foreshadowed by the parent act of 1965. Consequently, they did not carry the same intensity as the 1965 act. The most recent amendment to the Higher Education Act of 1965 was made in the Education Amendments of 1980. Although not slated for implementation until the 1982-83 academic year, these amendments suggest some reason for hope for the BL-GI's and other HBCU's. This chapter

TABLE 7

FEDERAL FUNDS OBLIGATED TO ALL HBCU'S DURING FY'S 1970-79

(Thousands)

Fiscal Year	Amount to Higher Education	Federal Obligations to HBCU's	HBCU Obligation as a Per cent of total
1970	3,667,923	121,299	3.3
1971	3,888,306	159,366	4.1
1972	4,637,637	242,226	5.2
1974	4,852,814	266,896	5.5
1975	4,849,590	233,144	4.8
1976	5,380,022	264,754	4.9
1977	6,468,630	341,621	5.3
1978	8,826,700	361,297	4.1
1979	8,949,440	394,444	4.4

Sources: NACBHEBCU, 1980; United States Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1978.

provides an analysis of the amendments and explains a number of aspects of higher education which will both positively and negatively affect the BL-GI's and other HBCU's under the new Education Amendments of 1980.

In the Interest of National Security: The National Defense Education Act of 1958 (P. L. 85-864)

On September 2, 1958, Congress passed the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958 "To strengthen the national defense and to encourage and assist in the expansion and improvement of educational programs to meet critical national needs and for other purposes" (72 Stat. 1580) as a "four-year emergency measure." (Tiedt, 1966) The act consists of ten titles:

Title I--General Provisions;

Title II--Loans to Students in Institutions of Higher Education;

Title III--Financial Assistance for Strengthening Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Language Instruction;

Title IV--National Defense Fellowships;

Title V--Guidance, Counseling, and Testing--Identification and Encouragement of Able Students;

Title VI--Language Development;

Title VII--Research and Experimentation in More Effective Utilization of Television, Radio, Motion Pictures, and Related Media for Educational Purposes;

Title VIII--Area Vocational Education Programs;

Title IX--Science Information Service; and

Title X--Miscellaneous Provisions.

In the NDEA, federal funds were made available to institutions through various programs that were established to meet the aims of the various aforementioned entitlement programs. Under the National Defense Student Loan Program, established under Title II, provisions in the NDEA provided for the federal government to contribute money to institutional funds for needy students to acquire loans with low interests. Distribution of funds was based on the number of FTE students in higher education institutions among the states. At the state level, upon receipt of the federal monies, individual institutional requests served as the basis for distribution of NDEA monies. (Rivlin, 1961)

Hearings were held prior to passage of the act. During the series of hearings which were held, consensus on specific policies was difficult to attain. Dissension focused on, among other subjects, the number of scholarships to be awarded, the basis of scholarship awards, curricular programs to be highlighted with the funds, philosophical differences on the subject of scholarships, and the issue of federal aid to education. (Rivlin, 1961) The basis of policy which was finally established through the act was in the interest of promoting national security.

The policy which emerged represents three main features: (1) the American public reactions to Sputnik, (2) accord reached on specific issues heard in Congressional hearings, and (3) national priorities. The following policy which was established indicates the scope and nature of the NDEA. According to the NDEA "Declaration of Policy,"

> We must increase our efforts to identify and educate more of the talent of our Nation. This requires programs that will give assurance that no student of ability will be denied an opportunity for education because of financial need; will correct as rapidly as possible the

> existing imbalances in our educational programs which have led to an insufficient proportion of our population educated in science, mathematics, and foreign language and trained in technology.
>
> The Congress reaffirms the principle and declares that the States and local communities have and must retain control over primary responsibility for public education. The national interest requires, however, that the Federal Government give assistance to education for programs which are important to our defense. (72 Stat. 1581)

In brief, policy established through this act made education one of the prime entities responsible for the national security. Thus, the NDEA was influential in creating a national interest in education.

The NDEA authorized appropriations to educational institutions through the entitlement programs and projects, as indicated in Table 8. As shown in Table 8, funds made available through grants or contracts ranged from $3,000,000 to unspecified amounts as they were required to implement plans to conform to the policies stated in the various titles.

Both higher education, per se, and the federal government benefited from the NDEA. Initially, the act was a double-edged sword for the BL-GI's, however. On the one hand, increased federal funds were appropriated to higher education institutions. This made it possible for many black students to gain funds through Title II and, to a lesser extent, Title IV. Black students surely met the need requirements under the guidelines of Title II's purpose of providing low-interest loans to needy students. The same was true for many of the black students engaged in graduate studies. On the other hand, as noted earlier, few HBCU's received federal funds during the period of time when the NDEA was introduced. Consequently, the BL-GI's were initially excluded from a federal program that, ideally, would have eased many financial needs they and their students experienced.

This oversight cost the BL-GI's vast sums of money; however, the

TABLE 8

APPROPRIATIONS AUTHORIZED BY THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT OF 1958

Title	Purpose	Authorized Appropriation	
I--General Provisions			
II--Loans to Students in Institutions of Higher Education	To provide low-interest loans to students to enable them to attend higher educational institutions	1959	$47,500,000
		1960	$75,000,000
		1961	$83,500,000
		1962	$90,000,000
		1963 - 1966	As required by students obtaining loans before 1962 to enable these students to graduate
III--Financial Assistance for Strengthening Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Language Instruction	To provide for equipment acquisition and to make authorized loans for "expansion or improvement of supervisory or related services in public elementary or secondary schools" in NDEA emphasized areas	1959	$75,000,000
		1960	$75,000,000
		1961	$75,000,000
		1962	$75,000,000
IV--National Defense Fellowships	To provide assistance to students for graduate study	"Such sums as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this title to fund 1,000 fellowship awards beginning FY ending 1959 through FY ending 1962"	

TABLE 8 (Continued)

Title	Purpose	Authorized Appropriation	
V--Guidance, Counseling, and Testing and Encouragement of Able Students	To establish and maintain guidance, counseling, and testing programs for Part A, State Programs; to improve the counseling and guidance personnel qualifications for Part B, Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes	(Part A)	
		1959	$15,000,000
		1960	$15,000,000
		1961	$15,000,000
		1962	$15,000,000
		(Part B)	
		1959	$6,250,000
		1960	$7,250,000
		1961	$7,250,000
		1962	$7,250,000
VI--Language Development	To establish foreign language teaching centers for Part A, Centers and Research and Studies; to arrange for the operation of short-term and regular session institutes for personnel involved with or planning to be involved with modern foreign language instruction in elementary or secondary schools for Part B, Language Institutes	(Part A)	"Such sums as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this part, not to exceed $8,000,000 in any one fiscal year"
		(Part B)	
		1959	$7,250,000
		1960	$7,250,000
		1961	$7,250,000
		1962	$7,250,000
		A stipend was available for persons attending the institute	

TABLE 8 (Continued)

Title	Purpose		Authorized Appropriation
VII--Research and Experimentation in More Effective Utilization of Television, Radio, Motion Pictures, and Related Media for Educational Purposes	To enable the Commissioner and the Advisory Committee on New Educational Media to "conduct, assist, and foster research and experimentation in the development of projects involving . . . related media of communication (to those cited in the title) which may prove of value to . . . educational agencies" in their operations for Part A, Research and Experimentation; to distribute educational information regarding new forms of educational media for Part B, Dissemination of Information on New Educational Media; and to establish an Advisory Committee on New Educational Media for Part C, Edstablshment of the Advisory Committee	1959 1960 1961 1962	$3,000,000 $5,000,000 $5,000,000 $5,000,000

TABLE 8 (Continued)

Title	Purpose(s)	Authorized Appropriations	
VIII--Area Vocational Education Programs	To provide assistance to states with vocational education program establishment and to meet national defense requirements for people able to assist in vocational education program in areas impacted by developments in science and technology	1959 1960 1961 1962	$15,000,000 $15,000,000 $15,000,000 $15,000,000
IX--Science Information Service	To effectively disseminate scientific information and develop programs which would develop methods for making scientific information accessible	1959	"Such sums as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this title"
X--Miscellaneous Provisions			

Source: 72 Stat. 1581.

negligence to raise this question is not atypical for that period of time. This is simply because the BL-GI's did not have the reputations of contributing very much to American society during the late 1950's. While this reputation was not totally undeserved up to 1958, awards of NDEA funds would have helped the BL-GI's gain impetus in overcoming the negative reputations and minimal accomplishments they shared.

In 1964, the NDEA was amended and expanded to include subject areas other than mathematics, foreign language, and science. Newly-added courses were English, reading, history, and geography. Subsequently, after 1965, as NDEA funds were extended to include the BL-GI's and other HBCU's, another problem erupted which still exists today: the BL-GI's and other HBCU's continued to receive only meager amounts of federal monies.

Historically, there has been one federal funding category that has yielded the most money to HBCU's. The largest federal funding category has been in student financial aid. In fact, the Title II NDEA Student Loan Program is the basis of all government aid programs. (Wolk, 1968)

Less than one-half of the costs of student education expenses are covered by student assistance funds, however. As a result, the remaining amount of student accounts must be procured from supplemental sources. Still to be considered is the fact that student aid funds were not--and still are not--considered as direct assistance to institutions because of the students' freedom to use the funds at institutions of their choice. (NACBHEBCU, 1980) As a result, the BL-GI's and other HBCU's dependence on a financial source such as discretionary student aid funds makes them <u>continually</u> operate on tenuous terms of existence!

Title IV funds have a history of showing only a slight impact on the BL-GI's as a whole. This condition is still in effect today, as shown by the following statistics. Of the fifteen institutions, only five (33%) of the institutions have programs beyond the Master's degree level: Alabama A & M University, Prairie View A & M University, North Carolina A & T State University, Tennessee State University, and Southern University and A & M College. Of the remaining institutions, eight (53%) of the institutions offer Master's degrees, and two (13%) of the institutions offer only Bachelor's degrees. As a result, little significance can be noted for Title IV aid to the BL-GI's in view of the larger number of WL-GI's with post-Master's degree programs. In short, institutions with more extensive graduate degree programs were best served by Title IV funds and received larger appropriations under the program.

One must be reminded that since only 1,000 fellowship awards were made available to higher education institutions in the first place, potential impact on the BL-GI's was rather limited from the start. In other words, the BL-GI's were "playing against a stacked deck," so to speak, when the NDEA of 1958 was enacted.

Even so, the period of the NDEA of 1958 is an especially important span of time in viewing the federal environment of BL-GI's. Enactment and implementation of NDEA policy were the most important federal movements until the Civil Rights Act of 1964 emerged.

Public Education is Desegregated: The Civil Rights Act of 1964 (P. L. 88-352)

The federal government had already begun to emphasize certain subject areas in higher education with the passage of the NDEA of 1958.

Seemingly, there was a need for the federal government to increase its scope in educational activities. The federal government had a definite goal to be attained with the enactment of yet another piece of legislation, P. L. 88-352, as shown by the following statement of purpose:

> To enforce the constitutional right to vote, to confer jurisdiction upon the district courts of the United States to provide injunctive relief against discrimination in public accommodations, to authorize the Attorney General to institute suits to protect constitutional rights in public facilities and public education, to extend the Commission on Civil Rights, to end discrimination in federally assisted programs, to establish a Commission on Equal Employment Opportunity, and for other purposes. . . . (78 Stat. 241)

As a result, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed on July 2, 1964 as an amendment of the Civil Rights Act of 1957. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 consists of eleven titles, two of which deal specifically with education, Titles IV and VI. All of the other titles set forth federal guidelines which must be adhered to by any non-educational institution or agency receiving federal monies. A complete listing of the titles follows:

Title I--Voting Rights;

Title II--Injunctive Relief Against Discrimination in Places of Public Accommodation;

Title III--Desegregation of Public Facilities;

Title IV--Desegregation of Public Education;

Title V--Commission on Civil Rights;

Title VI--Nondiscrimination in Federally Assisted Programs;

Title VII--Equal Employment Opportunity;

Title VIII--Registration and Voting Statistics;

Title IX--Intervention and Procedure After Removal in Civil Rights Cases; and

Title X--Miscellaneous.

In the titles which deal specifically with education, Titles IV and VI, the federal government explicitly outlined the terms under which educational institutions must operate in order to receive federal funding assistance. Title IV of this act authorized the Commissioner of Education to carry out various duties. One writer explains the Title IV authorizations this way:

> Title IV authorized the Commissioner of Education to conduct a survey for the President and the Congress on the availability of equal opportunity in education because of race, color, religion, or national origin. The title gives the commissioner the means to help communities deal not only with the desegregation process itself, but with the educational challenge issuing from it. (Wiggins, 1966)

Title VI, as amended, had significant implications for education. This title had special emphasis on higher education, as indicated by the following explanation:

> In Title VI of the Civil Rights Act, Congress outlawed discrimination in federally assisted programs and imposed on each agency the responsibility to insure that such discrimination is ended-by voluntary compliance if possible, but if necessary by the prospect of the discontinuance of federal assistance. This title therefore touches every area of federal assistance in higher education. (Wiggins, 1966)

Neither Title IV nor Title VI carried designated funding levels in their respective provisions. Instead, institutions which were already utilizing federal funds or applying for federal assistance were required to file assurances of compliance with the Civil Rights Act in order to receive federal monies. As a result, desegregation of public facilities became the new federal game.

The early period of desegregation, which had been ushered in by the Civil Rights Act of 1964, was especially important to BL-GI's and other HBCU's in their relations to HWCU's. As one analyst explains,

> The Civil Rights Act of 1964 mandated changes which were destined to alter the relationship of the public black college to the higher education universe and the American society generally. Concomitant changes in the perception of whites by black (people) and the perception of black (people) by whites created a different social environment through which the two groups had to interact. (Cobb, n. d.)

The results of that early social enviroment would be felt for years. In fact, remnants of that period still exist today in numerous facets of American society.

Most people remember that there was a basic ambivalence or outright dislike, for the most part, between many black and white people during the middle 1960's. Having had to watch over their shoulders and second-guess the state educational administrators for so long, the HBCU administrators established survival of their institutions as their top priority amid the early desegregation era.

> By 1972 certain things were happening which seemed to indicate that the ranks of public black colleges would surely be thinned. For example, Bluefield State (not a BL-GI) was no longer listed as a public black college. Maryland State (now the University of Maryland-Eastern Shore) . . . in preparation and Arkansas A M & N (now the University of Arkansas-Pine Bluff) . . . was within the system of a majority white institution. These two techniques, absorption and white displacement, were seen as the major threats to the continued existence of public black institutions. (Cobb, n. d.)

With the expressed purpose of extending equal opportunities to the nation's citizens, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 had the <u>potential</u> of positively impacting the BL-GI's. Actually, the impact was both positive and negative in education for the nation's black citizens who enrolled in the BL-GI's. A major concern was: Will desegregation of

public institutions take black students from HBCU's and give them to HWCU's? Many educators contended that this condition would surely come to pass. In the literature on this subject, many educators contend that this is exactly what occurred.

Despite the often-held contention that desegregation took many black students away from the HBCU's in which they were enrolled, there is no evidence of decreased student enrollments at the BL-GI's in the years following enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In fact, quite the contrary is true, as shown in Tables 9 and 10.

As shown in both Table 9 and 10, enrollments at the BL-GI's increased from 1964 to 1966. In 1964, a total of 41,231 students were enrolled at fourteen of the BL-GI's in Fall, 1964. By Fall, 1966, that number had increased to 44,348 for the same BL-GI's. Enrollments continually increased in the years that followed up to 1978 when they dropped from 62,661 to 58,850 for the subject institutions.

This decrease in 1978 student enrollments was experienced in other HBCU's in almost all phases of HBCU attendance categories, such as control and highest academic offerings. Of the HBCU's which experienced decreases in their enrollments, the black public institutions were hardest hit. The four reasons which have been cited to explain the 1978 decrease in enrollments are: (1) "Factors related to Student Financial Aid, (2) reduction in the GI Bill benefits, (3) factors relating to family income; ability of parents' pay and sibling squeeze, and (4) taxes and inflation." (Cobb, n. d.)

An interesting factor to be considered, unfortunately, cannot be examined: the <u>quality</u> of the students enrolled in the BL-GI's both

TABLE 9

DETAILS OF STUDENT (FTE) ENROLLMENT DATA FOR FIFTEEN BL-GI'S, BY INSTITUTION: 1954-1978

Year	Ala. A&M	U. of Ark. (PB)	Del. State	Fla. A&M	Fort Valley	Ky. State	South-ern	U. of Mary. (ES)	Alcorn	N.C. A&T	Langston	S.C. State	Tn. State	Prairie View	Va. State
1954	967	1388	197	2414	688	458	3414		766	2724	615	1725	2260	2630	2423
1956	903	1407	249	3163	776	530	4314	398	755	3137	546	1483	3011	2703	2306
1960	1204	1829	345	2943	1006	591	5360		857	2293	659	2036	3438	2616	3373
1962	1104	2242	563	3149	1034	868	5703		1423	2940	736	2519	3362	3418	3884
1964	1465	2579	720	3322	1411	1226	9556		1412	3227	937	1720	4689	3586	5381
1966	1798	1712	898	3670	1654	1540	8738		2029	3595	1279	1809	5614	3708	6304
1968	2076	2032	909	4508	2102	1606	9978	717	2305	3844	1336	2081	4536	4030	2975
1970	2129	1814	1669	4543	2338	1754	9722	776	2520	3797	1109	2148	4404	4575	3178
1972	3490	2359	2021	5130	1835	2000	11,843	1041	2568	4751	1286	2906	4640	4573	4529
1974	4034	2241	2044	4871	1807	2389	12,269	1192	2391	4937	1151	2549	4943	4870	4848
1976	4564	3062	2167	5779	1870	2195	13,280	994	2603	5514	1128	3678	5480	5118	5229
1978	4425	2999	2153	5882	1872	2195	11,497	1084	2294	5188	916	3437	5360	5033	4515

Sources: Chandler, 1969; Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1979; Health, Education, and Welfare, 1967; Parker, 1975 and 1979; Pepin, 1978; Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities-Opening Fall Enrollment, 1954, 1957, 1960, 1962, and 1964; and letters from Langston University, Kentucky State University, Fort Valley State College, and North Carolina A & T State University.

TABLE 10

SUMMARY OF STUDENT ENROLLMENT DATA FOR FIFTEEN BL-GI'S

Year	BL-GI Total (FTE) Student Enrollment	Per Cent Increase
1954	22,669*	
1956	25,681	.12
1960	28,550*	.10
1962	32,945	.13
1966	41,231*	.20
1968	44,348*	.07
1970	45,035	.02
1972	46,476	.03
1974	54,972	.15
1976	56,536	.03
1978	62,661	.10
1980	58,850	.06

* Excludes University of Maryland-Eastern Shore for which data were not available.

Sources: Chandler, 1969; Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1979; Health, Education, and Welfare, 1967; Parker, 1975 and 1979; Pepin, 1978; Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities-Opening Fall Enrollment, 1954, 1957, 1960, and 1964; and letters from Langston University, Kentucky State University, Fort Valley State College, and North Carolina A & T State University.

before the 1964 act and in the years that followed. In viewing the conditions of HBCU's, many analysts have speculated on this very issue: Did desegregation of public educational institutions produce an exodus of the higher achievers in the HBCU's from their HBCU's to HWCU's, thus threatening the existence of the HBCU's?

In Wiggins' Higher Education in the South (1966), for example, a statement is made that typifies the sentiment of many educators who contend that the quality of HBCU's suffered. Wiggins states that the institutions have been "handicapped by the loss of some of their outstanding students to predominantly white institutions." (Wiggins, 1966) Other HBCU educators echoed this same sentiment; however, some educators felt that desegregation would not affect the HBCU's for two main reasons: (1) black high school graduates would not feel, they stated, comfortable or secure in white universities for some time to come, and (2) children were not, generally, encouraged by their parents to "engage in 'social engineering or pioneering' " with white people. (McDaniel, 1962)

A similar issue was raised regarding the loss of high-quality faculty and staff members. In order to qualify for funds under this act, public educational institutions were required to desegregate their faculty and staff bodies as well. As a result, many HWCU's secured personnel from HBCU's. Because the HWCU's, in many instances, paid higher salaries than the HBCU's could afford to pay, the HWCU's were able to recruit enough black faculty and staff members to indicate that the white institutions were, at least, making an effort to satisfy Civil Rights Act guidelines.

Interestingly, however, federal appropriations did not keep pace

with the BL-GI student enrollments, as shown in Table 10. As indicated in Table 10, total student enrollments increased after 1964; yet receipts from federal funds, as noted in Table 2 on page 29, decreased at individual institutions or increased only slightly. The exception for these decreases or slight increases occurred during varying periods.

Such appropriations to the BL-GI's for physical plant expansion or maintenance, however, cannot be considered as being of especially significant impact during the period immediately following the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This is because many of the BL-GI's had achieved little or no physical expansion in previous years, and their campuses were by far less adequately equipped than their historically white "sister" institutions.

In summary, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 had no negative impact on the total student enrollments at the BL-GI's. Federal funds did not increase, proportionately, as student enrollments climbed. During the immediate period following enactment of this law, the BL-GI's continued to grow; however, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, per se, cannot be held responsible for this growth. Seemingly, the BL-GI's grew in spite of the act which had become law partially in order for the nation's black students to gain access to historically white educational institutions.

Enabling Legislation: Higher Education Act of 1965 (P. L. 89-329)

On November 8, 1965, the Higher Education Act of 1965 was enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress. The primary motive behind this piece of legislation was strengthening the national educational resources. Consequently, the following purpose for the act

is stated in P. L. 89-329: "To strengthen the educational resources of our colleges and universities and to provide financial assistance for students in postsecondary and higher education." (79 Stat. 1219) To satisfy this purpose, eight titles were written into the Higher Education Act of 1965:

Title I--Community Service and Continuing Education Programs;

Title II--College Library Assistance and Library Training and Research;

Title III--Strengthening Developing Institutions;

Title IV--Student Assistance;

Title V--Teacher Programs;

Title VI--Financial Assistance for the Improvement of Undergraduate Instruction;

Title VII--Amendments to Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963; and

Title VIII--General Provisions.

This omnibus act is one of the most important pieces of federal legislation to impact the BL-GI's and other HBCU's. A great majority of higher educational institutions can attribute a portion of their growth to entitlement programs established in this act. An analysis of P. L. 89-329, the Higher Education Act of 1965, will reveal exactly what this piece of legislation was all about and the effect the implementation of policies established by this act had on the BL-GI's.

Under Title I, the Commissioner awarded grants of money to assist in the solution of various community problems. A wide range of community problems were cited, including transportation, housing, employment, and

recreation. This title designated improvement of community service programs as a priority, and money was appropriated to carry out the provisions: $25,000,000 for FY ending 1966 and $50,000,000 for FY's 1967 and 1968. No definite sums of money were authorized for two succeeding fiscal years. Instead, "only such sums as the Congress may hereafter authorize by law" were appropriated. (79 Stat. 1219)

States received allotments of $100,000 under Title I. Guam American Samoa, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands each received $25,000. Said funds were to be used to establish, expand, or improve state community service programs upon Commissioner approval of plans.

Under Section 109(a), the President appointed a National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education. This Council consisted of representatives from a number of government agencies: "Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Defense, Labor, Interior, State, and Housing and Urban Development, and the Office of Economic Opportunity, and of such other Federal agencies having extension education responsibilities as the President may designate. . . ." (79 Stat. 1223) Twelve other members were appointed by the President, according to the terms of the provisions in Title I.

Section 110 had special plans for L-GI's. This section stated explicitly that no vital pieces of legislation which had affected the L-GI's, for example, the Smith Hughes Vocational Education Act and the Smith-Lever Act, would change. So, the BL-GI's could expect to receive allocations from these sources in much the same way they had grown accustomed to in the past. Even so, there was still reason for hope for BL-GI's and other HBCU's.

Under Title II, libraries received a financial boost. Part A of this title authorized funds for college library resources. In this part, for FY's ending 1966, 1967, and 1968, $50,000,000 were authorized for each year for library acquisition of books, tapes, periodicals, and other such library materials. Undesignated amounts were authorized for FY's 1969 and 1970. Part B authorized lesser amounts for the purposes established in this section. Authorized appropriations for FY's ending 1966, 1967, and 1968 were $15,000,000 for each fiscal year. As with Part A, no definite amounts were authorized for 1969 or 1970. Part C authorized the least amount of money of the three parts. For FY ending 1966, $5,000,000 were authorized. The amount of $6,315,000 was authorized for FY ending 1967, and $7,770,700 were authorized for FY 1968.

Title II not only gave libraries a financial boost, but it also presented a number of opportunities for improvement of BL-GI libraries, in general. Such opportunities were sorely needed: however, they were not capitalized on by the BL-GI's. The overwhelming reason is because of their failure to receive sufficient funding for improving the quality of their libraries. In short, the BL-GI libraries, as with other sections of BL-GI life, were grossly inadequate to meet the requirements for post-secondary and graduate studies. The overwhelming majority of BL-GI's had inadequate holdings of books, periodicals, audio-visual equipment and other library materials, in spite of Title II funds. (Hill, 1976) This condition still exists today; BL-GI libraries are still in need of additional materials.

Title III appropriations were perhaps the most beneficial of all Higher Education Act of 1965 funds. Indeed, the very title, "Strengthening

Developing Institutions" indicated a reason for hope of increased federal funding to BL-GI's and other HBCU's.

Title III emphasized the "academic quality" of colleges which were struggling for survival because of financial problems or other reasons. (70 Stat. 1229) Who better than the BL-GI's and other HBCU's could attest to the fact that they were struggling; or, who needed additional financial resources, from any source, to improve their academic quality than HBCU's?

Qualification for Title III funds meant that BL-GI's would receive additional federal money. Appropriations authorized under Title III for FY ending 1966 were $55,000,000. Subsequent funding was mandated by Section 301(a)(2) and (3). According to Section 301(a)(2), (3):

> (2) of the sums appropriated pursuant to this section for any fiscal year, 78 per cent shall be available only for carrying out provisions of this title without respect to developing institutions which plan to award one or more bachelor's degrees during such year.
>
> (3) The remainder of the sums appropriated shall be available only for carrying out the provisions of this title without respect to developing institutions which do not plan to award such a degree during such year. (79 Stat. 1229)

Grants and fellowships were authorized as a part of Title III provisions. In particular, a grant was authorized for planning, developing, and carrying out cooperative arrangements at educational institutions. (72 Stat. 1231) Finally, this title authorized the establishment of an Advisory on Development Institutions whose primary functions were to identify developing institutions which could benefit from Title III funds and to establish priorities to be used in making awards under this title.

With Title IV, appropriations were authorized for student assistance programs. This was especially significant for BL-GI's because increasing

numbers of needy students would be able to enroll in the institutions; and, in fact, student enrollments did increase significantly within the initial funding period of implementation of the Higher Education Act of 1965. These data were reported earlier in Tables 9 and 10 on pages 111 and 112, respectively.

Under Title IV, Educational Opportunity Grants were authorized beginning FY ending 1966. For this year, $70,000,000 were authorized. Likewise, $70,000,000 were authorized for FY's ending 1967 and 1968. (79 Stat. 1232) Institutions were responsible for determining the amounts students would receive to pursue their courses of study.

Title IV also carried other important authorizations. Low interest, federally-insured loans were authorized; Title IV discussed all of the requirements for this aspect of student financial assistance. College work-study programs were extended and amended as well. Authority for such work-study programs was transferred from the Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity to the Commissioner of Education. Finally, in Title IV, the NDEA of 1958 was amended. Such amendments changed, for example, the definition of "institutions of higher education" from:

> . . . an educational institution in any State which (1) admits as regular students only persons having a certificate of graduation from a school providing secondary education, or the recognized equivalent of such certificate, (2) is legally authorized within such State to provide a program of education beyond secondary education, (3) provides an educational program for which it awards a bachelors degree or provides not less than a two-year program which is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree, (4) is a public or other nonprofit institution, and (5) is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association . . . (72 Stat. 1582)

to:

> . . . an educational institution in any State which (1) admits as regular students only persons having a certificate of graduation from a school providing secondary education, or the recognized

> equivalent of such certificate, (2) is legally authorized within such State to provide a program of education beyond secondary education, (3) provides an educational program for which it awards a bachelor's degree or provides not less than a two-year program which is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree, (4) is a public or other nonprofit institution, and (5) is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association approved by the Commissioner for this purpose. . . . (79 Stat. 1251)

No rationale was given for this change. As far as this researcher has been able to assess, the changes had no effect on the BL-GI's.

Other NDEA amendments found in Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 made other changes. Without going into excessive detail, analysis uncovered a few notable changes: (1) the conditions of agreements and administrative costs were altered; (2) technical amendments for part-time students were changed; (3) cancellation of loans for teachers were amended; and (4) Section 301 of Title III of the NDEA of 1958 was amended to authorize increased amounts from $90,000,000 to $100,000,000 each for FY's 1966, 1967, and 1968.

Finally, Titles V, VI, and VII were designed to impact other areas of higher education. Under Title V, teacher programs were to be strengthened. Title VI focused on improving undergraduate instruction. Appropriations under this title were authorized for educational institutions to acquire equipment for FY's 1966 through 1968. Amendments were made to the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 in Title VII. Such amendments included an "Expansion of Grant Purposes" and "Technical Amendments" for implementation. (79 Stat. 1266)

Many BL-GI's experienced growth as a result of increased funding to higher education. Still, the growth was not comparable to WL-GI's. Primarily, the BL-GI's experienced growth because the condition of the

institutions was below the par of the WL-GI's. Consequently, even minimal growth was welcomed because the BL-GI administrators had reason to hope that conditions would improve in the ensuing years.

A Cause for Optimism: The Education Amendments of 1980 (P. L. 96-374)

The Education Amendments of 1980 were passed on October 3, 1980 in order "To amend and extend the Higher Education Act of 1965, and for other purposes." (94 Stat. 1367) This act consisted of thirteen titles, most of which established new titles in the parent act, the Higher Education Act of 1965. A listing of the entitlement programs follows:

Title I--Continuing Postsecondary Education Program and Planning;

Title II--College and Research Library Assistance and Library Training and Research;

Title III--Institutional Aid;

Title IV--Student Assistance;

Title V--Strengthening Teacher Programs;

Title VI-- International Education Programs;

Title VII--Construction, Reconstruction and Renovation of Academic Facilities;

Title VIII--Cooperative Education;

Title IX--Graduate Programs;

Title X--Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education;

Title XI--Urban Grant University Program

Title XII--General Provisions; and

Title XIII--Miscellaneous Provisions.

A highlight of Title I is that it established the Commission on National Development in Postsecondary Education whose purpose is "to promote Federal responsibilities of the following: (94 Stat. 1374)

1. Promoting equal access to postsecondary education,

2. Providing freedom of choice to students in selecting educational institutions and curricular programs,

3. Assisting in promoting quality education, maintaining and extending academic freedom and responsibility, and "educational diversity,"

4. Advancing postsecondary education's efficient use of human, physical, and financial resources. (94 Stat. 1373, 1374)

Under Title I, $3,000,000 were authorized for appropriation by the federal government to carry out the function of the Commission from October 1, 1981 through March 1, 1984. Near the expiration of the Committee charter, legislative action will determine if an extension should be granted. To date, there are no indicators which predict the fate of this commission.

The newly-amended Title II continued to focus on library programs as the 1965 parent act's Title II did. Each title, through the Office of the Sceretary, was designed to: (1) assist in the acquisition of library holdings, (2) train persons working in libraries, (3) maintain and strengthen national libraries, and (4) establish a National Periodical System Corporation.

To carry out the terms of Title II(A), College Library Resources, the amount of $10,000,000 was appropriated for FY 1981; $30,000,000 for FY 1982 through 1984, individually; and $35,000,000 for FY 1985. Title II(C), Strengthening Research Library Resources, authorized lower amounts

of money: $10,000,000 were authorized for FY 1981; only $15,000,000 were authorized for FY 1982 and for each fiscal year immediately succeeding FY 1982 through 1985. Schools with religious affiliations were excluded from receiving monies under this entitlement program.

Title III was designed to assist institutions which were faced with (1) declining enrollments, (2) scarce resources, and (3) problems related to management, fiscal operations, long-range planning, recruitment, and development. To provide the necessary assistance to these institutions, this title contained four parts: Part A--"Strengthening Institutions," Part B--"Aid to Institutions with Special Needs," Part C--"Challenge Grants for Institutions Eligible for Assistance under Part A or Part B," and Part D--"General Provisions."

The funding levels of Parts A, B, and C of Title III were quite large amounts. To carry out Parts A and B, the following amounts were authorized: $175,000,000 were authorized for FY 1982; $185,000,000 for FY 1983; $200,000,000 for FY 1984; and $220,000,000 for FY 1985. Fifty per cent was designated for each part of the title. Part C authorized the following amounts: $25,000,000 for FY 1982; $35,000,000 for FY 1983; $45,000,000 for FY 1984; and $50,000,000 for FY 1985, all less than either Part A or B.

Section 347(a)(e) carried an important stipulation for the nation's HBCU's. Under this section, the act had significant potential for a positive impact on the HBCU's, as shown by the following excerpt from the law:

> (e) The Secretary shall assure that in each fiscal year the amount available under Part B for institutions with special needs that historically serve substantial numbers of black students will not be less than 50 per centum of the amount received by such institutions for FY 1979. (94 Stat. 1401)

Under Title IV, student assistance was given a boost. Grants to students were authorized; guaranteed and student loan programs were extended; appropriations were authorized for student work study programs; and general provisions were made for both student assistance and student assistance programs. Large amounts of money were authorized under this title, as might be expected. Without going into excessive detail, the following appropriation authorizations show the vast amounts of money which were earmarked for the purposes set out by Title IV. Under Part C, Work-Study Programs, $670,000,000 were authorized for FY 1981; $720,000,000 were authorized for FY 1982; $760,000,000 for FY 1983; $800,000,000 for FY 1984; and $830,000,000 for FY 1985. Such large sums of money seem promising for many institutions.

One point must be brought out about Title IV. Opportunities provided in the act were established to be especially favorable for students from "disadvantaged" backgrounds, many of whom are black. Special programs were authorized to service these students. Such programs include "Talent Search," "Upward Bound," and "Educational Opportunity Centers." If these programs enjoy a certain measure of success through 1985, the BL-GI's and other HBCU's can expect to attract a portion of those students when they are ready to enter postsecondary institutions.

Title V of the Education Amendments of 1980 amended and extended Title V programs of the parent act. A total of $305,000,000 was authorized for FY's 1981 through 1985 under Section 511(b). In Section 531 of this act, a total of $195,000,000 was authorized for appropriations. Such programs as the Teacher Corps, Teacher Centers, and Training for Higher Education Personnel were extended by this title.

Title VI focused on international education programs. The primary motive for this title was to strengthen the United States relations with other countries. Grants of money were authorized under this title to be awarded "in such manner as will achieve an equitable distribution of funds throughout the Nation." (94 Stat. 1467) Amounts ranged from $45,000,000 for FY 1981 to $80,000,000 for FY 1985 for international and foreign language studies. Business and international educational programs were slated to receive authorized amounts of "$7,500,000 for (FY) 1981 and for each of the succeeding fiscal years ending prior to October 1, 1985." (94 Stat. 1469)

Under Part N of Title VI, "International Understanding," two major moves occurred. Section 395(c)(1) repealed the NDEA of 1958. Under the subsequent section, 395(c)(2), Title I of the International Education Act of 1966 was repealed.

Title VII's focus was on "Construction, Reconstruction, and Renovation of Academic Facilities." Assistance was authorized for energy conservation, removal of architectural barriers, and removal of hazards created by asbestos. The amount of $100,000,000 was authorized for appropriations in 1981 "and for each succeeding FY prior to October 1, 1985" (94 Stat. 1472) for grants to construct, reconstruct and renovate undergraduate academic facilities. The amount of $80,000,000 was authorized for FY 1981 through 1985, each, for graduate facilities. The same amount, $80,000,000, was authorized for loans for academic facilities.

The Cooperative Education Program, established under the parent act, was extended through 1985 by the 1980 amendment in Title VIII. Levels of funding increased, also. For example, the $25,000,000 appropriated

for the previous funding period, scheduled to end in 1982, was raised to $30,000,000 for the cooperative program. Another example can be seen in the increase in Section 802(a) from $175,000 to $325,000 and a 100% increase of funds from $125,000 to $250,000 in the same section of the title.

A number of new titles were added to the 1980 amendment that were not present in the 1965 act. The Higher Education Act of 1965 consisted of eight titles, whereas the Education Amendments of 1980 contained five titles. The subjects of Titles IX through XIII were cited at the beginning of this section.

Under Title IX, fellowships for graduate and professional study were authorized. The basis of fellowship awards was indicated to be financial need. Grants of money were slated to be made to institutions other than those which were schools or departments of divinity, who, in turn, would award the fellowships to graduate students.

This title also held promise for the BL-GI's and other HBCU's which have graduate programs. However, the language of the provision could be taken to task by some observers. To wit:

> In making grants to institutions of higher education, the Secretary shall-- . . . (3) consider the need to prepare a larger number of individuals from minority groups, especially from among such groups which have been traditionally underrepresented (underline added) in colleges and universities, but nothing contained in this paragraph shall be interpreted to require any educational institution to grant preference or disparate treatment to members of one minority group on account of an imbalance which may exist with respect to the total number or percentage of individuals of such group participating in or receiving the benefits of the program authorized in this section, in comparison with the total number or percentage of individuals of such group in any community, state, section, or other area. (94 Stat. 1483)

The portion underlined could be the basis for question. If one were to maintain that the HBCU's have enrolled sufficient numbers of students as to disqualify them from consideration under this act, he might have a basis for his argument. In light of the remainder of the preceeding paragraph, which could bring attention, other minorities such as native Americans and Hispanics could move the black educational population out of position to receive monies under this program. However, because few students in either the native American or Hispanic group are ready for graduate school in proportions to rival black students, the situation is not of crisis proportion, yet.

By the end of the funding period, 1985, there could be a different set of circumstances. Statistics reveal that Hispanic enrollments in higher education are already increasing. In the 1976-1978 period, for example, the number of Hispanic students rose 13% while the number of black students rose only 2.1%. (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 25 August 1980) If this trend continues, many black students and HBCU's will, potentially, be unseated by the increased body of Hispanic students.

Congress appropriated $60,000,000 to carry out the provisions of Title IX for FY's 1981 and 1982. No definite amounts of money were established for FY's 1983, 1984, or 1985.

Three new programs were authorized under Title IX. The National Graduate Fellows Program, the Training and Legal Assistance Profession Program, and the Law School Clinical Experience Programs all emerged as a result of Title IX in the Education Amendments of 1980. Few of these programs will have any impact on the BL-GI's because of the overwhelming

lack of law schools at these institutions. In effect, the excess of $65,000,000 which were authorized for appropriations under the three programs were earmarked for HWCU's, for the most part.

Title X authorized the establishment and operation of a "Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education." Section 1003(a) established a National Board of the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education. Overall, duties under this title were: (1) to improve, evaluate, disseminate, and adopt improvements in postsecondary educational practice, (2) to provide advice for the Secretary, and (3) "to meet at the call of the Secretary." (94 Stat.1490) A total amount of $185,000,000 was appropriated to fund this title's activities from 1981 through 1985.

An "Urban grant university" was authorized under Title XI as a new title of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The main purpose was to aid urban universities "find answers to urban problems" and to enable these institutions "to make their resources more readily and effectively available to the urban communities in which they are located." (94 Stat. 1491) A total of $175,000,000 was authorized for appropriations under this title for FY's 1981 through 1985.

New land-grant colleges were approved for establishment under Title XIII in American Samoa and Micronesia. In these two regions, the Community College of American Samoa and the College of Micronesia were added as "1890 institutions."

It is not possible, at this point, to assess the impact of the Education Amendments of 1980 on the BL-GI's--or on any other institutions, for that matter. Such an evaluation will be more easily accomplished in the ensuing years as the act is implemented more completely. One point

about the act stands and should be reiterated: as the policy is written, there are several opportunities for BL-GI's and other HBCU's to benefit under several entitlement programs. Whether or not these opportunities will be actually utilized is simply a matter for conjecture at this point.

Summary

The Congress passed pieces of legislation which have been extremely broad in scope. As written, the acts seem to be magnanimous gestures toward the BL-GI's and many other HBCU's. In effect, the federal funding policies have had interesting impacts on these HBCU's.

Key federal funding policies include the NDEA of 1958, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Higher Education Act of 1965, and the Education Amendments of 1980. The BL-GI's gained the greatest benefits under the Higher Education Act of 1965 provisions than any of the other acts. Even so, the BL-GI's received monies under the provisions of the other acts, but their total receipts of federal monies were grossly inadequate. Consequently, it is safe to surmise that the BL-GI's received minimal amounts of money under the subject policies.

The NDEA was passed in the interest of national security as an emergency measure. The Title II program of this act provided low-interest loans to needy students. Even so, BL-GI's did not benefit from this act because HBCU's were systematically excluded from receiving federal funds in the 1958 to 1962 period when the 1958 act was first in force. Consequently, the BL-GI's were excluded from a federal program that, ideally, was suited for them.

The BL-GI's were theoretically threatened when public education was desegregated as a result of enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The main purposes of this act were to provide relief from discrimination in public places and to end discrimination in programs which received federal funds. Many educators speculated that the BL-GI's and other HBCU's would lose students to HWCU's. As a result, the HBCU's would be forced to close their doors, some black educators thought. This did not happen.

What did happen was that the BL-GI's did not suffer for want of students during this time. Student enrollments increased from 1964 to 1966 and for several years thereafter. In effect, the move to desegregate public institutions through Titles IV and VI did not cause the BL-GI's to lose large numbers of students to the WL-GI's or other HWCU's who were forced to admit black students.

The Higher Education Act of 1965 is credited for being responsible for increased federal funding to HBCU's. Indeed, prior to 1965, BL-GI's received embarassingly low amounts of federal funds. This poor record of funding was met head-on with Title III of the Higher Education Act of 1965, "Strengthening Developing Institutions."

Many BL-GI's grew as a result of increased funding. Nonetheless, they had, by no means, reached a comparable level with the WL-GI's. The BL-GI's still received far smaller amounts of federal money than their historically white counterparts even as recently as 1979. There was still reason for optimism of increased funding to BL-GI's.

With the Education Amendments of 1980, Congress amended and extended the terms of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Analysis of that

act reveals several opportunities for BL-GI's to benefit from participation in several entitlement programs. This act has not been fully implemented in education. As a result, current budget changes by the Reagan administration suggest that actual implementation of this funding policy will be somewhat different than originally intended by Congress. Only time will tell of the effect of this piece of legislation on the BL-GI's.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The emergence and formulation of the present study were prompted by lack of research in the area of federal funding participation to black land-grant colleges and universities. Generally, the purpose of the study was to examine and analyze federal funding participation to the BL-GI's from 1954 to 1980. Specifically, six hypotheses were tested:

HO_1: Establishment of BL-GCU's was more the result of state attempts to secure additional federal funds than to manifest interest in higher education for black citizens.

HO_2: In the early years, the BL-GCU's served a vital function despite the fact that the curricula were primarily secondary rather than collegiate in nature and scope.

HO_3: Despite the varying locations, philosophies, administrative leadership, and funding appropriations, there was and is a great deal of homogeneity among the existing BL-GCU's.

HO_4: When averages of receipts to BL-GCU's and white land-grant colleges and universities (WL-GCU's) are compared, there is a difference between total federal funds received by BL-GCU's and WL-GCU's.

HO_5: The BL-GCU's could not have continued to survive as they have without the aid of external special interest groups.

HO_6: The BL-GCU's were affected differently by pieces of federal

legislation enacted in 1958, 1964, 1965, and 1980 which are responsible for large sums of money appropriated to higher education.

Fifteen of the original seventeen BL-GI's were selected for the study because they all share the common characteristic of predominantly black student populations. These institutions were analyzed both separately and collectively within a historical context to test the earlier-stated hypotheses.

The federal government has an extensive record of financing educational activities. Thus, the federal government plays an essential role in higher educational activities. In fact, many higher education institutions would be seriously retarded without the financial assistance of the federal government.

Two major forces behind the involvement of the federal government in higher educational activities have been identified: the "Cold War" with Russia and the Civil Rights Movement. During the two periods of time when these forces occurred, the federal government stepped up its involvement in funding educational activities. The BL-GI's, however, did not experience significant gains in federal receipts at either time. BL-GI receipts continued to remain significantly lower than WL-GI receipts from the late 1950's to the mid-1960's.

With the aid of federal funds, the BL-GI's were established under the terms of the 1890 Morrill Act in seventeen states of the nation. Two of the original seventeen BL-GI's are no longer predominantly black in student population--one has lost its status as a L-GI. Subsequently, "1890 institutions" were established in the Virgin Islands and Guam by the Education Amendments of 1972. Most recently, "1890 institutions"

were authorized for establishment in American Samoa and Micronesia with enactment of the Education Amendments of 1980.

Early establishment of BL-GI's was hampered by many forces. As a result, the BL-GI's faced a number of conflicting situations with which they had to struggle. During the majority of their existence, in fact, the BL-GI's have struggled for their existence. Such struggles have covered such areas as curriculum, admission requirements, quality of student and faculty bodies, and inadequate financing.

A number of SIG's can be attributed to the growth and expansion the BL-GI's have experienced. These SIG's have focused on all aspects of life at the BL-GI's. Some have dealt with logistical details, others have studied federal policies and practices, served as liaisons for the various institutions, and/or provided expanded opportunities in previously-untouched areas in higher education. Such involvement has most often been beneficial for the BL-GI's, and they have continued to work closely with the numerous SIG's which work both with them and for them.

The Congress has passed pieces of legislation which have been extremely broad in scope. Actual implementation of federal funding policies has not been as financially rewarding for the BL-GI's as for HWCU's. The BL-GI's gained the greatest benefits under the Higher Education Act of 1965; yet, their receipts were lower than HWCU's.

The BL-GI's did not benefit from the NDEA of 1958. Essentially, HBCU's were systematically excluded from receiving federal funds at this time. The BL-GI's were theoretically threatened when public education was desegregated as a result of enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 because of the possibility that they might lose their students to the

HWCU's who were forced to desegregate their institutions. In the move to desegregate public institutions through Titles IV and the Civil Rights Act of 1965 did not cause the BL-GI's to lose large numbers of students to the WL-GI's or other HWCU's. In essence, the BL-GI's experienced different effects as a result of enactment of two of the first pieces of federal legislation under analysis in this study.

As a result of enactment of the remaining two pieces of legislation under examination in this study, the Higher Education Act of 1965 and the Education Amendments of 1980, the BL-GI's experienced more advancement. The Higher Education Act of 1965 is credited for being responsible for increased federal funding to HBCU's. Indeed, federal funding increased to the institutions; nonetheless, the BL-GI's and other HBCU's had, by no means, reached a comparable level with the WL-GI's or other HWCU's. With the Education Amendments of 1980, Congress amended and extended the terms of the Higher Education Act of 1965. An analysis of the act, as written, reveals a number of opportunities for BL-GI's and other HBCU's. Since this act has not been fully implemented, it is not possible to assess the full impact on the subject institutions. Even so, there is cause for optimism.

Conclusions

HO_1: Establishment of BL-GCU's was more the result of state attempts to secure additional federal funds than to manifest interest in higher education for black citizens.

Since their inception, the BL-GI's have continually received only meager amounts of federal funds which were entrusted to their states

for disbursement. Their emergence, under the terms of the 1890 Morrill Act, was a birth of less-than-favorable circumstances. In essence, the 1890 act stipulation that states would not receive federal monies if they made distinctions in admitting students on the basis of color or race was largely responsible for the unhappy birth of the BL-GI's. Seemingly, the states were forced to establish BL-GI's or admit black students to existing white institutions. Otherwise, the states would lose federal funds which they had come to rely upon rather heavily.

The states took steps to establish BL-GI's under mandate of the Morrill Act of 1890 in order to continue to receive funds under the 1862 act and gain funds under the 1890 act. Despite their being forced to establish BL-GCU's, the states circumvented the law. They established BL-GCU's, but never did they maintain the institutions by equally dividing federal funds which they received, as was explicitly stated in the new Morrill Act of 1890.

As a result of their past record of inequitable distribution of federal funds, it can be concluded that the states compromised with the federal government by establishing BL-GI's so that they could continue to receive federal funds. Beyond this conclusion, it can further be concluded that the states are not particularly interested in either the development or expansion or the BL-GI's. Otherwise, the BL-GI's would have received their "fair share" of federal monies since their inception.

HO_2: In the early years, the BL-GCU's served a vital function despite the fact that the curricula were primarily secondary rather than collegiate in nature and scope.

Segregationist policies and practices have existed in the United

States for a number of years. Upon the emancipation of the slaves, there were few institutions which were established for black people who wanted higher education. With the passage of the 1890 Morrill Act and establishment of the BL-GCU's, the number of higher education institutions increased. As a result, more black youth could enroll in higher education institutions across the nation.

A large number of the black population in the nation was concentrated in the South. The South practiced overt segregation. The establishment of BL-GI's in the South, therefore, met a valuable need. Increasing numbers of black students who could not gain access to white colleges and universities could attain higher education. Consequently, a larger segment of the total black population was educated.

The curricula in the BL-GI's were primarily secondary in nature and scope, initially. They later evolved to resemble more closely other undergraduate curricula in the nation. As a result, it was possible for the students to gain basic information which was essential for further study while, at the same time, they could progress to undertaking undergraduate curricula, as appropriate.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the BL-GI's provided a vital service because they educated black students who were refused admittance to the HWCU's. These students, consequently, were unable to gain education and were destined to continue to perpetuate their disadvantaged ways of life because of ignorance. Hence, it is of little importance that the early curricula were secondary rather than collegiate in nature and scope because the BL-GI's have since elevated and

expanded their curricula beyond the secondary level.

HO_3: Despite the varying locations, philosophies, administrative leadership, and funding appropriations, there was and is a great deal of homogeneity among the existing BL-GCU's.

The BL-GCU's, by their very nature, have been a very homogeneous group. Despite their varying locations across the country, they have a common characteristic. In spite of their different philisophies, they strive for similar goals. Even though they have varying levels of federal receipts, under the leadership of different presidents, they all have similar records of federal funding receipts.

The BL-GCU's share a number of characteristics which make them a homogeneous group. Their locations in the southern states are generally in rural areas. These institutions have not developed as rapidly or as easily as the institutions in their states of historically white heritage. Additionally, the BL-GCU's have received far less federal funds from their states and the federal government for support of their programs. Coupled with the fact that they have often been systematically excluded from many opportunities which have aided in their growth, the BL-GCU's have become homogeneous perhaps because of the adage of "safety in numbers."

HO_4: When averages of receipts to BL-GCU's and white land-grant colleges and universities (WL-GCU's) are compared, there is a difference between total federal funds received by BL-GCU's and WL-GCU's.

Data revealed that the BL-GCU's have a record of embarassingly low amounts of federal receipts from 1954 to 1963. In many instances,

the WL-GCU's individually received far greater amounts of federal funds than the BL-GCU's did collectively. As recently as 1977, data do not reveal that the HBCU's have received federal funds on par with the HWCU's.

HO_5: The BL-GCU's could not have continued to survive as they have without the aid of external special interest groups (SIG's).

External SIG's have helped BL-GCU's develop and expand for many years. The SIG's have researched and exposed less-than-favorable conditions which have affected the BL-GCU's as a part of their efforts to aid the BL-GCU's. Research indicates that SIG activity has helped the BL-GCU's to receive additional federal funds, thus aiding in the survival of the institutions. SIG activity has also been responsible for improvement of existing programs at the BL-GCU's, such as conferences conducted by the OAPNC for Development Officers and other administrative offices. The BL-GCU's have also benefited from other SIG activities which have concentrated on other parts of their organizations, such as research functions studied and funded by the NIE.

HO_6: The BL-GCU's were affected differently by pieces of federal legislation enacted in 1958, 1964, 1965, and 1980 which are responsible for large sums of money appropriated to higher education.

Enactment of the National Defense Act of 1958 had no strong impact on the BL-GCU's. For the most part, the HBCU's were systematically excluded from receiving federal funds until some seven years later. As a result, data for BL-GCU receipts of federal funds reveal that the BL-GCU's received only meager amounts of federal funds at the time of enactment of the NDEA of 1958.

With the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the BL-GCU's were faced with the desegregation of public education and other public facilities with the passage of this legislation. A major concern during this time was the effect this act would have on the enrollment of students at the HBCU's. Despite the often-held contention that desegregation of public education would or did, in fact, cause decreased enrollments in public black institutions, data generated for this study for the subject institutions reveal that the BL-GCU's did not lose students. Student enrollment at these institutions increased, instead.

With enactment of the Higher Education Act of 1965, the BL-GCU's and other HBCU's experienced gains in federal receipts. Federal monies awarded to higher education increased in appropriations to the HBCU's and the BL-GI's. Indeed, these institutions received larger amounts of federal money.

The Education Amendments of 1980 suggest a number of opportunities for the BL-GCU's to gain increased federal money. Entitlement programs authorized by this act indicate advanced opportunities for many institutions, and the BL-GCU's should be included in some program awards. With implementation of this act, the BL-GI's may be breaking out of their past record of grossly-inadequate receipts of federal monies.

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APPENDIX

INSTITUTIONAL RECORD OF TOTAL RECEIPTS OF ALL FUNDS OF FEDERAL ORIGIN TO BL-GI'S FOR SELECTED YEARS, BY INSTITUTION

Institution Alabama A & M University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	38,136
1955	37,231
1956	35,302
1957	35,156
1958	35,302
1959	35,485
1960	34,627
1961	34,463
1962	117,513
1963	113,530
1972	4,889,400
1973	2,733,700
1978	4,424,817

Institution Alcorn State University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	78,801
1955	69,164
1956	66,135
1957	75,596
1958	63,121
1959	63,134
1960	62,134
1961	52,634
1962	97,494
1963	133,646
1972	2,615,200
1973	2,827,900
1978	5,981,447

Institution Delaware State College

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	15,390
1955	15,114
1956	15,103
1957	14,935
1958	14,871
1959	15,089
1960	14,980
1961	14,849
1962	35,080
1963	42,122
1972	1,630,800
1973	1,443,800
1978	2,003,071

Institution Florida A & M University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	75,199
1955	56,594
1956	59,381
1957	62,173
1958	48,921
1959	52,544
1960	49,222
1961	48,822
1962	74,554
1963	103,307
1972	3,992,500
1973	5,000,100
1978	9,318,653

Institution Fort Valley State College

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	37,333
1955	35,816
1956	34,226
1957	33,736
1958	117,836
1959	33,159
1960	32,637
1961	32,588
1962	67,797
1963	83,930
1972	2,084,200
1973	1,970,000
1978	3,958,727

Institution Kentucky State University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	15,709
1955	15,912
1956	15,664
1957	15,664
1958	15,665
1959	15,665
1960	15,776
1961	23,194
1962	30,332
1963	63,428
1972	2,146,700
1973	2,690,400
1978	4,592,550

Institution Langston University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	12,034
1955	12,080
1956	12,080
1957	9,892
1958	9,372
1959	9,228
1960	9,312
1961	9,228
1962	18,638
1963	25,534
1972	1,834,900
1973	1,850,600
1978	3,722,614

Institution North Carolina A & T University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	95,086
1955	80,757
1956	74,250
1957	60,129
1958	101,952
1959	97,874
1960	199,682
1961	181,924
1962	267,895
1963	442,095
1972	5,770,700
1973	4,713,700
1978	8,975,200

Institution Prairie View A & M University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	45,146
1955	43,061
1956	37,968
1957	40,359
1958	39,387
1959	90,266
1960	138,468
1961	192,715
1962	137,643
1963	195,298
1972	4,657,900
1973	7,424,700
1978	9,246,352

Institution South Carolina State College

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	63,902
1955	58,398
1956	53,398
1957	51,723
1958	51,995
1959	51,856
1960	51,467
1961	51,663
1962	99,487
1963	134,070
1972	2,021,200
1973	3,478,600
1978	6,789,599

Institution Southern University and A & M College

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	66,865
1955	47,306
1956	45,153
1957	59,402
1958	39,439
1959	40,697
1960	101,833
1961	76,149
1962	204,107
1963	252,634
1972	7,247,500
1973	7,210,600
1978	7,335,030

Institution Tennessee State University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	63,727
1955	58,067
1956	48,957
1957	41,175
1958	69,847
1959	44,880
1960	45,841
1961	42,488
1962	59,106
1963	61,099
1972	5,131,700
1973	4,990,700
1978	7,372,742

Institution University of Arkansas-Pine Bluff

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	539,624
1955	28,940
1956	32,831
1957	32,028
1958	26,740
1959	28,379
1960	28,242
1961	33,892
1962	51,449
1963	67,796
1972	2,448,700
1973	2,025,000
1978	6,382,439

Institution University of Maryland-Eastern Shore

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	20,786
1955	16,278
1956	16,309
1957	16,148
1958	15,867
1959	15,852
1960	15,734
1961	15,650
1962	37,311
1963	38,385
1972	1,412,300
1973	1,325,200
1978	3,068,100

Institution Virginia State University

Year	Total Amount Received from Federal Sources
1954	54,703
1955	49,506
1956	49,237
1957	45,932
1958	44,913
1959	43,756
1960	45,812
1961	185,008
1962	188,334
1963	263,170
1972	4,920,600
1973	3,797,800
1978	4,223,492

Sources: Chandler, 1969; Jones, 1962; Federal Interagency Committee on Education, 1979; Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, 1954 through 1963.

VITA

Althia Norene Fain Canty is a native of Knoxville, Tennessee. She grew up in Morristown, Tennessee where she attended the public schools and her first two years of college. She graduated from Morristown College, with honors, in 1970. Subsequently, she attended Carson-Newman College, Jefferson City, Tennessee, on an academic scholarship and graduated, cum laude, in 1974.

While teaching English part time upon her graduation, she attended The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, working toward completion of a Master of Science degree in English Education. She received the degree in 1976. She held the positions of Director of Personnel and Research at Motlow State College and Assistant Personnel Manager at Levi Strauss & Co. before returning to The University of Tennessee to work toward her doctorate degree in Educational Administration and Supervision.

During the period of study for her doctorate, she was awarded a research fellowship from the National Institute of Education. She received her Doctor of Education degree in Educational Administration and Supervision with collateral areas in Continuing and Higher Education and Communications in March, 1982.