FINAL SURVEY REPORT

ARCHITECTURAL/HISTORIC INTENSIVE LEVEL

SURVEY OF

LANGSTON UNIVERSITY,

LANGSTON, OKLAHOMA

PREPARED BY

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NO LONGER EXTANT
ABSTRACT

This document serves as the final survey report for the Architectural/Historic Intensive Level Survey of the main campus of Langston University. The Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office undertook the survey in September 1996. The fieldwork was completed on November 18-19, 1996 with archival research and the final report being completed in March 1997.

The purpose of the survey was to locate, identify and document potential districts, buildings, objects and structures within the designated area that meet the criteria for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The survey involved two basic components: (1) Field research to record minimum documentation on each property, regardless of age or condition, within the survey area; and (2) Archival research sufficient to prepare a brief historic context characterizing the development of the area surveyed.

The survey covered the main campus of Langston University and a total of 39 buildings, 2 structures, and 4 objects were minimally documented. Of these, 30 were classified noncontributing, 15 contributing, and 6 are worthy of further study. The resources classified as warranting further study for a potential district are the Cottages No. 1-4 and the original entrance pillars. Jones Hall warrants further study for potential individual listing.

This report and the individual property files will provide a basis for nominating eligible properties to the National Register of Historic Places and for evaluating properties under the review
and compliance program established by Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended.
INTRODUCTION

Langston University was founded through the Second Morrill Act of 1890. The Act began the practice of making federal grants to the land-grant colleges that had been established under the Morrill Act of 1862. The Act of 1890, however, also required that colleges that did not admit black students could not get federal money unless there was a separate school for blacks which would get its fair share of the money. As a result of this act seventeen southern states established schools for blacks. Langston University was one of them.

The territorial act in 1897 which set up the university stipulated that the settlers in the nearby town of Langston must purchase the forty acres of land on which the school would be built. The citizens of the town raised the money through auctions, bake sales, and donations. Within a year the land was purchased, and in 1898 Langston opened its doors, first as a high school, later adding college-level departments.

In its ninety-nine years Langston University has had its problems - political interference, frequent changes in leadership, insufficient budgets, inadequate facilities and equipment. Yet the university has endured and has provided an education for many black students.

The Langston University campus contains a wide variety of architectural styles. The predominant architectural style on the campus is the Contemporary Style, which composes 28% of the buildings. There are also examples of the Art Deco (11%), Tudor
Revival (8%), Classical Revival (6%), International Style (2%), Minimal Traditional (2%), Bungalow/Craftsman (2%), and Modern Movement (2%) architectural styles. However, 26% of the campus buildings have no distinctive architectural style.

Jones Hall has been determined to warrant further study for potential individual National Register eligibility, and the row of teacher cottages and the original entrance pillars for a potential Historic District. All of these resources retain their integrity to a high degree. The majority of the remaining resources on the campus are either lacking in age or have undergone significant or substantial alteration, clearly an effect of the modernization program undertaken in the 1960s.

This survey was undertaken to identify potential districts, buildings, objects and structures within the designated area that meet the criteria for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Project personnel included Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office staff Architectural Historian Cynthia Savage and staff Preservation Research Assistant Jill Marsh. All personnel meet the Secretary of the Interior's qualifications.
PROJECT OBJECTIVES

The Architectural/Historic Intensive Level Survey of the main campus of Langston University included the following objectives:

The first objective was to minimally document each property located within the study area. Minimal documentation included completion of the Historic Preservation Resource Identification Form for each property and photodocumentation of its primary elevations.

The second objective was to evaluate each resource's eligibility for the National Register of Historic Places and/or inclusion in a National Register Historic District. This involved classification of each property as contributing or noncontributing resources to a potential district. Properties were categorized as noncontributing for one of two reasons: (1) loss of historic integrity; or, (2) insufficient age. Properties warranting further study for possible individual listing on the National Register of Historic Places were also identified.

The third objective was to delineate boundaries for a potential National Register Historic District.
AREA SURVEYED

The study area for this survey consisted of the main campus of Langston University and included approximately 130 acres. Covering a total of 2,492 acres, the university is located in the town of Langston in Logan County, 12 miles northeast of Guthrie, in the Southwest quarter of Section 13, Township 17N, Range 1W. Maps depicting the study area follow.
RESEARCH DESIGN AND EXECUTION

The staff of the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office undertook the Architectural/Historic Intensive Level Survey of the main campus of Langston University, Langston, Oklahoma, in September 1996.

The initial phase centered on research into the history of Langston University. Accordingly, the development of a historic narrative focusing on the study area's past began immediately and continued throughout the course of the project. This activity served two primary purposes. First, it helped identify specific historic properties which the survey would identify. Second, when applied with the National Register Criteria for Evaluation, it facilitated the determination of a property's significance in relationship to the broad patterns of the University's historic and architectural heritage. In short, it provided the link between a property as it exists today and the past which gives it meaning. This narrative is included in a section of this report.

This cultural resource investigation was accomplished as part of the ongoing Oklahoma Comprehensive Survey Program, supported in part by state and federal funds. The overall purpose of this program is to increase the area surveyed within the state, assess eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, and facilitate Section 106 review.

The survey emphasized the recording of extant properties at a minimum level of documentation. The results of this project provide a basis for nominating eligible properties to the National
Register of Historic Places and for evaluating properties under the review and compliance program. All properties recorded in the survey area were documented to the following standards: All individual properties regardless of age or condition were minimally recorded and photographed. Minimum recording included completion of the Historic Preservation Resource Identification Form and photographs.

All information for completing the individual Historic Preservation Resource Identification Forms was compiled into a data base using the dBase III program. From this data base, the actual Identification Forms were ultimately generated. The individual property files consisting of the Historic Preservation Resource Identification Form and photographs will be added to the Oklahoma Landmarks Inventory. Photocopies of the final report and survey maps will be available from the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office upon request.

Project fieldwork was conducted by the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office staff Architectural Historian Cynthia Savage and Preservation Research Assistant Jill Marsh. The final report was prepared by Jill Marsh, Preservation Research Assistant. All of the above personnel meet the Secretary of the Interior's qualifications.
HISTORIC CONTEXT

Historic Black Migration into Oklahoma

Permanent black settlement in Oklahoma dates from the 1830s, although a few blacks came with early explorers many years prior. When the federal government removed the Five Civilized Tribes (Choctaws, Cherokees, Creeks, Seminoles, Chickasaws) from their homes in the southeastern portion of the United States in order to make land available for the advancing cotton frontier, the Indians brought their black slaves with them to their new homes in the West. As in the Deep South these blacks tilled the soil, carried out domestic chores, planted and harvested crops, and performed other duties for their Indian masters.¹

Emancipation came following the American Civil War, at which time the new freedmen of Indian Territory became members of the various tribes. The tribes had been required by treaties to extend the rights of citizenship to their former slaves as a result of their support of the southern states during the war. The Freedmen were also awarded allotments of tribal land, from 40 to 160 acres. Three of the tribes did so begrudgingly. But according to one scholar, "Choctaws and Chickasaws preferred the removal of blacks from within their domain, and the latter ultimately refused to accept blacks as full-fledged members of their tribe."²

When President Benjamin Harrison opened a section of what is now Oklahoma to settlement in 1889, other blacks, principally from the South and from Kansas, came to the region. The availability of land in Indian Territory to the Freedmen, and subsequently to all
blacks in the newly opened lands of Oklahoma Territory, afforded blacks the opportunity to establish their own communities at a time of racial unrest. Prior to statehood in 1907, at least twenty-eight all-Black towns and one colony were established in the Twin Territories; twenty-four towns in Indian Territory, and four towns and one colony in Oklahoma Territory. The most famous of these towns were Langston in Oklahoma Territory, and Boley in Indian Territory.³

At the formation of Oklahoma Territory blacks represented over eight percent of the population and their numbers continued to grow until the years of the Great Depression. While the thirties witnessed a decline in the number of black citizens in the state, the total population gradually climbed back toward the level it had occupied in previous years.⁴

**Segregation in Oklahoma**

In the period following the Civil War relations between blacks and whites were relatively easy. In fact, there was a rather close relationship between the two groups in churches, at social events, and in some public establishments. This relationship, however, changed and near the end of the nineteenth century race relations became more restricted. This was the case in many parts of the country, especially in the South.⁵

Segregation affected every aspect of society, including education. Following the Civil War, some of the tribes had provided for the education of blacks, with the federal government
and religious groups also assisting in their training. Oklahoma Territory created a public school system for blacks only a short time after its creation. Oklahoma City had a school in early 1891, and in 1892 Kingfisher had the first black high school. Some of these early schools had both black and white students. In 1890, however, the territory adopted a policy of local option that permitted counties to segregate black and white students. Black parents tried unsuccessfully to defeat local option, and in 1897 the territorial legislature passed a stronger law that required the total segregation of black and white children. It also provided severe penalties for persons who violated the law.  

The territorial legislature mandated racial separation not only of schools, but for juries and public facilities as well. This policy of segregation continued into statehood when in 1907 the state legislature enacted "Jim Crow" laws restricting use of schools, public facilities, and transportation. The new government of Oklahoma had moved swiftly to pass legislation to separate blacks and whites. In fact, the first bill that came before the Oklahoma Senate provided for Jim Crow in public transportation. Since territorial days a number of whites had pushed for such an act and proposals had been presented to the territorial legislature but failed. The bill eventually passed by the first Oklahoma legislature required separate railway cars and waiting rooms for black and white passengers and provided a penalty for those who disobeyed the law. Subsequently, the legislature completed the "Jim Crow Code" with laws that prohibited marriage between blacks.
and whites, and which carried out the constitutional provision for separate schools. Most of the later restrictions upon blacks originated from custom. But in the period before World War II the state passed laws that segregated blacks and whites in public places including telephone booths, bathhouses, and mines. Jim Crowism became an important part of Oklahoma society, and remained undisturbed for almost half a century.

Whites regarded separate schools as an important cornerstone of Oklahoma's segregated society. Although whites spoke of "separate but equal" schools, few blacks believed the state would carry out the constitutional provision to maintain schools "impartially" for both races. Indeed, the allocation of money to the schools helped maintain a separate, inferior educational system for black children. Very simply, the state devised a plan which produced fewer dollars for black schools than for white ones. There was a noticeable difference in the outlay of funds for black children, and it resulted in poor facilities hardly adequate for producing well-qualified students. The desire to keep blacks and whites apart in schools and colleges was an important commentary on race relations in the territories in the later part of the nineteenth century.

All-Black Towns in Oklahoma

While the arrival of blacks into Oklahoma was a result of the removal of the Five Civilized Tribes from the southeastern United States during the 1830s and 1840s, in later decades many came and
joined the rush to stake claims for land. In 1870 there were more than 6,000 blacks in Indian Territory. By the 1890 census there were 18,000 blacks in Indian Territory and an additional 3,000 blacks in Oklahoma Territory. Subsequent land openings in the 1890s attracted more black settlers from the surrounding states of Arkansas, Kansas, and Texas. Others came from the Deep South. At the turn of the century the black population in Oklahoma Territory had increased to almost 19,000 and approximately 38,000 were located in Indian Territory.\(^8\)

Most of the increase in black population was attributed to the determined activities of black "boosters", individuals who regarded Oklahoma Territory as a favorable place to settle. Promotional literature described the region as an area where blacks could obtain free land, exercise their rights as citizens, and escape racial discrimination. The most active promoter of Oklahoma Territory was Edward P. McCabe who came to the area in 1889 from Kansas where he had been a prominent Republican Party politician and state auditor. He reasoned that if blacks populated Oklahoma in sufficient numbers they could organize an all-black state or at least constitute a political balance of power. He founded the town on a tract of land owned by Charles N. Robbins, a white citizen of Guthrie, attracted settlers to the site, and built the town of Langston. McCabe started the Langston Herald, a newspaper he used for promotional and political purposes. He portrayed Oklahoma Territory in glowing terms inasmuch as it provided opportunities for blacks to start anew and escape the suffering of past racial injustices.\(^9\)
McCabe's idea of an all-black state created controversy in the Twin Territories. If Oklahoma became an all-black state, whites and Indians feared that blacks would have political influence over them through positions in state government. Rumors circulated that McCabe's major objective was to become territorial governor, which created additional fears even if Oklahoma did not become an all-black state. Local politicians argued that if McCabe sought the governorship, a violent struggle would ensue. Others predicted his life would be in danger if the president appointed him governor.¹⁰

Other factors hampered the creation of an all-black state. Many of the black freedmen living in Oklahoma resented the black migrants because of the submissive, slave-like manner they exhibited to whites in the territories. The local freedmen wanted the new migrants to "throw off the shackles of slavery and become a proud and independent people."¹¹ In addition, Southern white politicians and cotton plantation owners rejected the all-black state plan because it would deplete their cheap labor force. Even though blacks were legally free, they still provided much of the manual labor for Southern cotton farms. White Southerners tried to discourage black emigration to Oklahoma by promoting the idea that the land was unsuitable for farming.

Several events occurred to resolve these conflicts. Republican Party leaders in Washington D.C. decided against the appointment of McCabe to the territorial governorship. Instead, he was named deputy auditor of Oklahoma Territory, a position he held until statehood in 1907. Black migration into the territory slowed
for a variety of reasons including the cost and hardships of moving, family ties to home, fear of the unknown, and an unfamiliar agricultural environment. Many of those who did migrate were eventually aided by Oklahoma freedmen who housed and fed the newcomers until they became established. Because of blacks' fear of migration to Oklahoma and white political opposition, McCabe's dream of an all-black state failed.12

McCabe then turned his attention to the development of all-black towns in the Twin Territories. Mainly through McCabe's promotional efforts, twenty-eight communities and one colony were founded prior to statehood (See Appendix 1). Because a majority of blacks lived in Indian Territory, twenty-four were located there while the remaining four and the one colony were in Oklahoma Territory. Tullahassee, reported to be the oldest all-black town, was founded in about 1859. Most of the towns, however, were established between the land run in 1889 and statehood in 1907. Lincoln City was organized in 1889 followed by Langston in 1890 - the first two in Oklahoma Territory. Many of the all-black towns in Indian Territory were founded near Muskogee shortly after the turn of the century. These included Taft, Boley, and Vernon.

The all-black towns of Oklahoma were founded for various reasons and were similar in many respects to other Western frontier communities. Some blacks wanted to live with people of their own race, which gave them a sense of security in a new homeland. Others saw the black towns as an opportunity to control their own destiny, politically and economically, without interference from
whites. Many viewed the towns as a safe haven from groups such as the Ku Klux Klan.\textsuperscript{13}

The all-black towns began to decline following statehood. McCabe left Oklahoma in the summer of 1908 for Chicago where he lived in obscurity and died in 1923. The communities, left without their primary booster, never totally escaped their dependence on an economic system essentially controlled by whites. Furthermore, they experienced many of the same problems faced by all small town rural market centers, black or white. The all-black towns gradually lost population and many disappeared from the Oklahoma map. By the post-World War II period, only nineteen of the original twenty-eight remained. That number had decreased to thirteen in 1990. The development of the black towns had provided the opportunity for black people to control various aspects of their lives and destinies. The towns did not offer a solution to the race problem, but they played an important role in the lives of their residents. They gave a sense of community dignity and worth to their citizens and for many, that was enough to justify their existence.\textsuperscript{14}

\textbf{History of the Town of Langston}

There were many all-black towns during the Territorial days and early years of statehood. Some existed for only a short time and went out of existence, while others were planned but did not develop beyond the initial settlement. Langston, however, is one of only a handful that has remained to the present day.
The town of Langston was founded and planned by the prominent African-American Edwin P. McCabe on a tract of land owned by Charles N. Robbins, a white citizen of Guthrie, in 1890. McCabe named the town for John M. Langston, a prominent black educator and politician, who served several terms in Congress from Virginia. The town site was situated approximately 12 miles northeast of Guthrie on the Cimarron River, in Logan County, exactly one year after the opening of Oklahoma Territory to settlement. The town was the product of advanced planning by Robbins and McCabe. Charles Robbins had spent the previous year (1889) buying land from homesteaders, and had surveyed and platted the area. The land was at the edge of the "Unassigned Lands" which were soon to be opened for settlement.\textsuperscript{15}

Trainloads of blacks came to Oklahoma. Most were immigrants from Kansas, Arkansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Texas. By January, 1891, Langston had a population of 600, with six retail groceries, two liquor stores, two smithies, two barbershops, and a feed store. By 1892, the town lobbied for a railroad point, but was unsuccessful. Guthrie, which was 12 miles away over nearly impassable roads, remained the nearest rail point. By the fall of 1892 there were 25 retail businesses including an ice-cream parlor, opera house, watch shop, two-story bank, two hotels, and a broom factory. Despite propaganda that title could never pass to a white man and that no white was ever to reside or conduct business in the city, Langston had three white businessmen.\textsuperscript{16}
Politically, the citizens registered entirely Republican. Five men were sent to the 1892 Republican County Convention, and one, D.J. Wallace, was elected temporary clerk. The blacks of Langston managed to elect several officers in Logan County, including Wallace who went to the territorial legislature. News of the new town spread as far as New York City. In 1891 the New York Times called it a "black Mecca", with 30 residences and a hotel in town, a black doctor, black preacher, and black schoolteacher already at work.¹⁷

The crusade for good schools began early. With a property tax of 5 mills, the city completed a common school in February, 1892. The first school had a capacity of 200 children, with 135 students enrolled initially. Six months after the common school opened, a boarding high school was built. Already looking ahead, the citizens organized a committee to secure higher education for the area. In July, 1892, three leading citizens, Edward Robinson, R.E. Stewart, and D.J. Wallace, appeared before the Oklahoma Industrial School and College Commission to petition that Langston have a college. For the next two years the college became the town's goal.¹⁸

Development of Higher Education for Blacks - late 1800s to early 1900s

The system of black education began immediately after the Civil War with the founding of many schools, established with federal support through the Freedmen's Bureau or with missionary
support from the North or through private philanthropy. These schools were taught in the beginning by white Northern teachers or blacks educated in Northern schools.

Educational provision for blacks was made as part of the establishment of public school systems in the Southern states by Reconstruction governments. The number of black students in school mounted rapidly, and demands for teachers had to be met by young blacks with no training and little schooling. However, under experienced supervision they met the needs, and the system continued to grow until it was checked by the close of Reconstruction and the growth of radical white supremacy. This resulted in the segregation of blacks in school, the virtual elimination of state funds for school buildings, and the reduction of per pupil expenditures to about one-fourth of the rate of expenditure for white students. Nevertheless, the system survived and continued to grow.19

The higher education of blacks during the post-Civil War period until the turn of the century was marked by the establishment of hundreds of "normal schools", "colleges", and "universities" for blacks in the South by Northern missionary and church groups. As the Freedmen's Bureau developed an organization for elementary education throughout the South, many of the missionary and church groups began turning their efforts toward the establishment of higher institutions for blacks. Before 1890, 17 of the 34 historically black public colleges now in existence were founded. However, only 2 of the 17 institutions were listed as
colleges and universities in 1890, one having an enrollment of 4
college students and the other an enrollment of 86. The other 15
public institutions were listed as normal or industrial schools.  

The first real opportunity for the expansion and development
of higher education for blacks came in 1890 with the Second Morrill
Act, which forced each of the Southern states to set up a land-
grant college for blacks. This was done by establishing what was
in effect in each state a boarding school for primary and secondary
students. Many years later these institutions developed normal
(teaching) school and college programs and gradually dropped the
lower schools.  Through 1895, these land-grant colleges were
generally agricultural, mechanical, industrial, and non-degree-
granting institutions. With one or two exceptions, the
historically black public colleges did not emerge as degree-
granting institutions for some time.  

The second opportunity for expansion came after 1900 with some
improvement in the public support for black schools, a development
which coincided with the appearance of two large and purposeful
private educational agencies - the Rosenwald Fund and the General
Education Board. These agencies were broadly concerned with the
improvement of education in the Southern United States and, within
that general objective, with the improvement of educational
opportunities for blacks. They undertook to develop educational
leadership through direct grants to promising individuals, and to
assist in the development of black colleges.
Higher Education for Blacks in Oklahoma

Education was also a continuing concern of black people in Oklahoma. As more blacks came in during Territorial days, this concern increased. The first Territorial Legislature, elected in August of 1890, gave attention to schools almost immediately. There was not, however, much concern about education beyond the eighth grade and so the laws concerning segregation in schools applied to what was called "common schools," the first eight grades.

The Territorial Legislature moved early to provide higher education for the white residents of Oklahoma Territory and by 1892 three were in operation. However, no provision was made for higher education for blacks. The three white colleges were all land-grant colleges and received federal grants under the Second Morrill Act of 1890. However, this federal law also stated that colleges that did not admit black students could not get federal money unless there was a separate school for blacks which would get its fair share of the money. For Oklahoma Territory, it meant that either the white colleges had to admit black students or a separate school must be built. The state legislators did not take immediate steps to comply with the law, however, and for a time blacks in Oklahoma were without facilities for higher education.24

Development of Langston University

Despite the pleas of the citizens of Langston from as early as 1893, a black college at Langston was not established until Charles Henry William Murce Sulcer carried the fight to the Resolutions
Committee of the Oklahoma Territorial Convention of 1894. Sulcer introduced a plank in the statehood platform asking for the establishment of a school of higher education for blacks.

In his biennial message in January, 1895, Territorial Governor William Gary Renfrow proposed a reform program. One section of the program recommended the establishment of a territorial university for blacks, which was necessitated by Renfrow's veto of a civil-rights bill that would have disregarded racial segregation. After two years of politics and compromise, House Bill 151 was finally introduced in the territorial council on February 4, 1897. It was then signed by J.W. Johnson, president of the council, approved by J.C. Tulsley, speaker of the house, and signed into law by Governor Renfrow. The bill set forth the purpose of the institution, named the site to be "within a convenient distance from Langston in Logan County, Oklahoma Territory", and named the school the Colored Agricultural and Normal University of Oklahoma. Thus Langston University came into being with the objectives of training teachers and offering agricultural, mechanical, and industrial training.25

Once the territorial legislature established the school, the citizens of Langston went to work to turn the dream into books, papers, buildings, and students. The townspeople were to provide the land - forty acres. Money was raised by midsummer. Picnics, auctions, public meetings, and bake sales were held. Women of the town sold sandwiches, cakes, pies, and dinners to raise funds. Within a year the land had been secured, the Board of Regents had approved the final plans, and Inman E. Page had been called as the
president for the institution.

The Board of Regents of Langston University was set up as a five-man board composed of three whites and two blacks. The territorial superintendent of public education and territorial treasurer were automatic members of the board. The others were to be appointed by the governor. They were to serve four-year terms, report to the legislature, and appoint the college president. The regents held the power to establish admissions standards and set salaries, as well as to issue teaching certificates to graduates of the Normal (Teacher's College) Department.

Five thousand dollars was to be appropriated from the territorial treasury so that the school could build one wing of a suitable building and begin classes. The legislature duly appointed the $5,000, but it was to cover all the costs, including construction of the building, teachers' salaries, and other expenses for two years. The funding was quickly discovered to be grossly inadequate. Territorial Governor Cassius M. Barnes solved the problem by dividing land-lease money among the territorial institutions. Langston's share was $4,000, which made a total of $9,000. Additional money was appropriated over the next several years.

The school opened on September 3, 1898, though the building had not yet been erected. The first classes were held in the Presbyterian church and in the town school. There were 41 students enrolled and four faculty. Within two years of opening, enrollment had grown to 181 students. Of this total, 15 were pursuing
college-level work in the Normal Department, 139 were enrolled in the elementary and high school, and 27 students were in night school. By 1904, the university had expanded to eight departments: agricultural, mechanical, domestic economy, elementary, normal, college preparatory, collegiate, and musical. Although the college was officially named the Colored Agricultural and Normal University, it has always been popularly called Langston University. The name of the institution was officially changed in 1941.\footnote{26}

The first main building was planned as a fourteen-room stone building. A contract for the construction was awarded by the Board of Regents to John Henderson of Kingfisher, with much of the labor on the new building donated by the citizens of Langston. This first main building was used for classrooms and offices. In the second year, (1899) Attucks Hall dormitory for Young Women was built. The next appropriation brought a mechanical-arts building. Constructed of native stone, the building was two stories high and built in the Gothic style. With a $15,000 appropriation from the Morrill Fund, a library and agricultural and mechanical departments were established. By 1901 the legislature had provided for an addition to the Main Building, a boy's dorm, and a president's home.

The first president's home was a two-story white frame house with a hip roof and a large front porch. In 1920 a new, red-brick home was built about a block south of the original residence.

Among the first campus improvements were a barn and
agricultural tools. For many years students worked for two-week stretches at campus jobs. "Duty work," which were jobs with no pay, such as sweeping halls, cleaning bathrooms, scrubbing steps, cleaning the grounds, and washing dishes were rotated every two-weeks. However, hauling wood and coal, working in the kitchens, and tending the boiler room and barns, for which a small credit toward room and board was allowed, were not rotated. Only students who could play an additional four dollars above full board were exempt from "duty work."

In November, 1907, the Main Building was destroyed by a fire of undetermined origin. The new state legislature appropriated $100,000 for construction of a new main building and other campus improvements. The new building, which was completed in 1909, was a modern two-story, pressed-brick structure with a basement. It contained twenty-seven rooms, nineteen of which were used for classes, and an assembly hall that had a seating capacity of one thousand. The building also housed four laboratories, the Library and Reading Room, the Department of Domestic Economy, a lecture hall, a reception hall, and the President's office. The entire building had marble floors and hallways. The fireproof roof was of red tile. 27

By 1912 the university had six principal buildings, including two women's dorms. All buildings were heated by steam from a central plant. One of the girl's dorms, the main building, and the grounds were lighted by electricity. The steam plant also furnished water for labs and for toilets and baths in all
It was not until 1923 that all buildings had steam heat, power, and sewer lines. By 1923 the university had also added a gymnasium and steam laundry facility.

An important change in institutional funding came about with the enactment of vocational education bills by the federal government. In 1917 the United States Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Act. This provided federal funds to states for use in vocational training of students at the secondary level. Eventually the funding reached the level of seven million dollars a year nationwide. The thrust was toward agricultural, industrial, and home-economics training, and Langston shared proportionately in the funds available. Supplements to the vocational-training bills were embodied in the George-Reed Act. Passed by Congress in 1929, this act divided the funds equally between agriculture and home economics. The effect of the legislation was to encourage more rural girls and black girls in the study of domestic arts.

During the period of approximately 1915-1916 an argument developed on whether the university was to be an industrial-manual training center or a liberal-arts college. Proponents of the teachings of Booker T. Washington advocated that the use of black talents in domestic and manual areas was the prime purpose of Langston. Others wanted to follow the teachings of W.E.B. DuBois, who sought political and social equality with whites. A compromise proposition was offered. Langston would be an all-industrial school provided another black school would be established to provide "everything that the intellect of the 20th century"
offers. As a result of the controversy, the first President Inman Page (1898-1915) left the presidency. His replacement Isaac McCutcheon (1915-1916) inherited a stack of problems that he was unable to solve and left after only 6 months.

From 1917-1922, a period which covered most of the tenure of the third president John Miller Marquess (1916-1923), the four-year college course was dropped entirely. The College Department was, however, restored in 1923 and began granting its first official undergraduate degrees. Under President Isaac William Young (1923-1927, 1931-1935) a shift was made from manual and technical training to more emphasis on arts-and-science courses.

As with all other funding, the operations of Langston shifted to reflect the good or bad times of the state and federal economies. For example, the library received one thousand dollars for books in 1936, nothing in 1937. In the postwar boom of the late 1940s, Langston began upgrading its physical plant. Temporary buildings were transported to the campus from Amarillo Air Field at the end of World War II and were used as a student recreation hall until 1965. Six new buildings were on the drawing boards, a stadium had been proposed as a self-liquidating project costing ninety thousand dollars, and long-range improvements were planned for heat, water and grounds. Eventually self-liquidating projects came to be used extensively, providing a physical-education plant, a student center, and an administration building in the 1930s, four new dorms for men and women in the 1960s, and repairs.

Langston, like all other colleges, had a postwar surge of
veteran enrollment, which reached a peak in 1947 when 402 students enrolled. By the mid-1960s the Langston campus had undergone dramatic growth in physical improvements, and the academic atmosphere had prospered to the point that graduation class size had risen from 72 in 1960 to 160 in 1965. In both growth and student-retention rate Langston ranked near the top of Oklahoma colleges.

Recruitment by industry and government increased dramatically in the 1960s. Representatives from 10 companies visited the campus in 1961; recruiters from more than 150 companies visited in 1966. The long-standing argument about industrial versus liberal-arts education seemed settled when the tailoring shop gave way to an electronics lab.33

None of the original campus buildings remain today. During the 1960s under President Hale's administration, a 10-year physical-plant upgrading plan was initiated that called for the removal of old buildings. The first Page Hall, which had replaced the first Main Building in 1909, was torn down during this period. The modern Page Hall now stands near the location. Of the original dormitories, Attucks Hall was replaced by Sanford Hall, and the Phyllis Wheatley Dorm occupied the space where the Hale Student Center now stands. A stone dorm for men was later replaced by Marquess Hall, which also is no longer standing.34
DOCUMENTED PROPERTIES

The following is a list of all properties documented within the study area regardless of whether or not they warrant further study. Documentation of each property consisted of completing the Historic Preservation Resource Identification Form and photodocumentation of its primary elevations. The photographs were developed as 5" X 7" black and white glossy prints.

1  Campus Police/Information
2  Cottage No. 1
3  Cottage No. 2
4  Cottage No. 3
5  Cottage No. 4
6  Management Training Center
7  University of Women
8  Gandy Hall
9  Young Hall
10  Counseling Center
11  William H. Hale Student Union
12  John Montgomery Multi-Purpose Building
13  Gayles Gymnasium
14  Physical Plant
15  Brown Hall
16  Breaux Hall
17  Jones Hall
18  Hamilton Hall
19  Research Building
20  Page Hall
21  G. Lamar Harrison Library
22  Hargrove Music Hall
23  I. Young Auditorium
24  Moore Hall
25  Sanford Hall
26  Highway Apartments
27  Cimarron Apartments
28  Child Development Center
29  Anderson Stadium
30  Dairy Building
31  Grain Silo
32  E "Kika" Dela Garza Institute for Goat Research - Head House
33  Calvin J. Hall
34  Centennial Court Apts.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>President's Residence</td>
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<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Physical Therapy &amp; Athletic Training Center</td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Research Greenhouse</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Physical Plant Greenhouse</td>
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<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Boiler Plant</td>
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<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Physical Plant Shop</td>
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<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Angora Facility</td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>West Entry Gates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Original Entry Pillars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Page Memorial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Uranus Sculpture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Campus Police/Information
2. Cottage No. 1
3. Cottage No. 2
4. Cottage No. 3
5. Cottage No. 4
6. Management Training Center
7. University of Women
8. Gandy Hall
9. Young Hall
10. Counseling Center
11. William H. Hale Student Union
12. John Montgomery Multi-Purpose Building
13. Gayles Gymnasium
14. Physical Plant
15. Brown Hall
16. Breaux Hall
17. Jones Hall
18. Hamilton Hall
19. Research Building
20. Page Hall
21. G. Lamar Harrison Library
22. Hargrove Music Hall
23. I. Young Auditorium
24. Moore Hall
25. Sanford Hall
26. Highway Apartments
27. Cimarron Apartments
28. Child Development Center
29. Anderson Stadium
30. Kerr Plaza
31. E. "Kika" Dela Garza Institute for Goat Research (Complex)
   A. Dairy Building
   B. Grain Silo
   C. Feed Mill
   D. Maternity Kid Bldg.
   E. Marios Creamery/Farm Shops
32. Centennial Pond
33. Telecommunication Center
34. Calvin J. Hall
35. Centennial Courts Apartments
36. Community Center
37. President's Residence
38. E. "Kika" Dela Garza Institute for Goat Research - Head House
39. Physical Therapy and Athletic Training Center
40. Physical Plant Greenhouse
41. Research Greenhouse
42. Boiler Plant
43. Physical Plant Shop
44. Angora Facility
45. Page Memorial
46. Uranus Sculpture
### PROPERTIES WARRANTING FURTHER STUDY

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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Cottage No. 3</td>
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<td>Original Entry Pillars</td>
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### CONTRIBUTING PROPERTIES

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<td>Cottage No. 4</td>
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<td>Dairy Building</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Gandy Hall</td>
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<td>G. Lamar Harrison Library</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Uranus Sculpture</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>William Hale Student Union</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Highway Apartments</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
DISTRICT

The survey identified one potential district within the study area, the Langston University Cottage Row Historic District. This area contains 1930 teacher cottages which maintain their historic integrity. Also eligible for the district is the original entrance pillars. The cottages and entrance pillars serve as an important physical link to the University's development.

Documented Properties Within the District:

1. Cottage No. 1
2. Cottage No. 2
3. Cottage No. 3
4. Cottage No. 4
5. Original Entry Pillars

According to University plans, there is the possibility of new construction in the area east of the Cottages. This new construction would be in an area between the Cottages and the original entrance pillars. If this occurs, the district and its boundaries will need to be re-evaluated.
SUMMARY

The Architectural/Historic Intensive Level Survey of the main campus of Langston University proved a success. It documented 39 properties, 4 objects, and 2 structures in the study area. Of these, 15 properties (33%) were determined to be contributing with 30 (66%) classified as noncontributing. Additionally, one property was determined to warrant further study for possible inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. A potential Historic District was also identified.

A brief historic context was also completed characterizing the development of the University. For all properties, a file containing a completed Historic Preservation Resource Identification Form and photodocumentation now exists and will be incorporated into the Oklahoma Landmarks Inventory. Photocopies of the final report and survey maps will be available from the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation office upon request. Additionally, the information was entered on the computer to facilitate its entry into the collective data base of significant Oklahoma and national cultural resources.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Primary Sources


School annual including lists of faculty, students and alumni, general information about the university, course descriptions for each department, and photographs.


School annual including lists of faculty, students and alumni, general information about the university, course descriptions for each department, and photographs.


School annual including lists of faculty, students and alumni, general information about the university, course descriptions for each department, and photographs.

Secondary Sources

BOOKS


Discusses the development of higher education for blacks from the pre-Civil War period to the present.


Discusses development of black education, including higher education, in the South from 1916 to the present.

Traces briefly the history of blacks in Oklahoma from their migration as slaves in the 1830s, through the years of segregation, and into the present.


A thorough and detailed history of the university from the first attempts to establish the institution to the present. Includes information on all aspects of the university, as well as personal recollections of the early years.


Collection of newspaper articles, personal interviews, letters, and information on prominent black individuals and institutions in Oklahoma. Covers wide range of topics from early explorers, slavery, the freedmen, territorial days, and statehood and the struggle for rights.


A history of the education of blacks in the United States from the beginning of slavery to the Civil War. Includes chapter on higher education.

ARTICLES


Report on the 1983 survey of historic resources in all-black towns.

UNPUBLISHED MATERIAL


Included in nomination is a brief historical background of black migration into Oklahoma.


Provides an historical case study of the town of Langston. Includes a list of city officials from 1892-1950.
ENDNOTES


2. Susan Allen, "Bethel Missionary Baptist Church National Register Nomination" (OK SHPO, 1994), 11.

3. Ibid.


5. Ibid., 14.


7. Ibid., 17.


9. Ibid., 118.

10. Ibid.

11. Ibid.

12. Ibid., 118-119.

13. Ibid., 119-120.


16. Ibid., 5-8.

17. Ibid., 8.

18. Ibid., 9-10.


20. Ibid., 32.

21. Ibid., 37.

22. Ibid., 32.
23. Ibid., 37.


26. Ibid., 13, 17.


28. Patterson, 18-19.


30. Patterson, 19-20.

31. Ibid., 36.

32. Ibid., 20.

33. Ibid., 40-42, 57-58.

34. Ibid., 33-34.
ALL-BLACK TOWNS

- All-Black Towns
  Pre-Statehood

- All-Black Towns
  1990

Four unconfirmed town locations not shown

Source: George Carney, "Historic Resources Of Oklahoma's All-Black Towns"
Appendix 2

CONSTRUCTION DATES BY DECADE OF EXTANT BUILDINGS

1920s
Managment Training Center
Moore Hall
University of Women
Research Building

1930s
Original Entry Pillars
Cottage No. 1
Cottage No. 2
Cottage No. 3
Cottage No. 4
Sanford Hall

1940s
Page Memorial
Anderson Stadium
Campus Police/Information
Professional Counseling Center
E "Kika" Dela Garza Institute for Goat Research - Dairy Building
Angora Facility
Grain Silo
G. Lamar Harrison Library
Physical Plant Shop
Child Development Center
Jones Hall

1950s
Gayles Gymnasium
I. Young Auditorium

1960s
Brown Hall
Breaux Hall
Gandy Hall
Young Hall
Cimarron Apartments
William Hale Student Union
Highway Apartments
President's Residence
Page Hall
1960s – cont.

Boiler House
Hargrove Music Hall
Hamilton Hall

1970s

Research Greenhouse
Physical Plant Greenhouse

1980s

Physical Plant
John Montgomery Multi-Purpose Building

1990s

Physical Therapy and Athletic Training Center
Uranus Sculpture
Centennial Court Apartments
Calvin J. Hall
Appendix 4

Historic Photographs of Buildings
No Longer Extant
First Boys' Dormitory, 1899

Attucks Hall (Girls' Dormitory), 1899
Mechanical Building, 1900

Mechanical Building, with later addition
First President's Residence, 1901

Second President's Residence, 1923
(before transformed into the "White House")
Phyllis Wheatley Girls Dormitory - 1906 (approximately)

Marquess Hall (Dormitory for Men, 1916-1923)
Gymnasium, 1921-1922

C.A. & N.U. Barn - 1923
Mechanical Building

The First Home Management House, built during the Young Administration (1923-1927)
Steam Laundry, built during the Marquess administration (1916-1923)

Temporary buildings transported from Amarillo Air Field at the end of World War II and used as a student recreation hall until 1965.