

## A Tuskegee Institute Report

# RACE RELATIONS IN THE SOUTH - 1959

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on Developments in Race Relations

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## INTRODUCTION AND ASSESSMENT

Race relations in the South\* did not change appreciably during 1959. Despite the urgency of America's aspiration to promote peace, which was highlighted by President's Eisenhower's late December visits to several world capitals, there was—on balance—little compelling evidence that America itself was able, during 1959, to advance human understanding significantly within its own boundaries.

Efforts to remove barriers structured in segregation continued despite adamant opposition in some areas of the Southern Region. In sum, the year showed further legal support and economically based rationalization for public desegregation, limited extension of desegregation practices, successful action by many state and local governments to avoid desegregation, and a hesitancy by America's citizens to face the moral implications of continued segregation.

The principle of desegregation in public situations was reinforced; and a few instances of additional desegregation were noted, both in schools and in other public situations. With an occasional exception, Federal and state court decisions, as well as the administrative and investigative actions of Federal agencies, supported the principle of desegregation and sought its implementation. A major contribution was the work of the United States Commission on Civil Rights.

Varied and extensive activities of voluntary agencies reflected the wide-spread concern of individual citizens for the real—and sometimes imagined—consequences of desegregation in public affairs and services, and particularly the public schools. Rarely, however, did these organizations include both white and Negro membership; and, for this reason, their activities frequently tended to crystallize preconceived opinions rather than lead to acceptable resolution of the issues for both groups.

Although there were a few striking exceptions, most public officials in the South, by their comments and public actions, delayed desegregation and discouraged inter-group discussion of community issues. This influence often prevented any "grass roots" development of joint efforts by whites and Negroes to deal constructively with particular desegregation issues in the light of local conditions and resources. The continuing difficulty experienced by Negroes in acquiring the

ballot was a major reason for failure of many public officials to recognize and support the interests of the total citizenry, particularly disfranchised Negroes.

Mass communication media, viewed as a whole, reported and commented extensively on desegregation and tended to highlight the arguments for segregation, either directly or by implication. A variety of constructive community services by Negroes and their organizations remained largely unreported; and, as a consequence, the general public tended to form opinions of the citizenship role of the Negro based upon the often sensational and negative reports disseminated by the mass media.

Negroes, sometimes encouraged by whites, continued to support agencies working to provide full opportunity and associated responsibilities for themselves and their children. Nevertheless, most American citizens found their energies devoted chiefly to the daily requirements of living, a task demanding the very best they could do in their individual circumstances. This was not easy for most Negroes because they were confronted often by outwardly imposed discrimination in education, voting, employment, and transportation which could not be overcome by individual effort; and this situation tended to negate the American democratic ideal. The task was difficult for whites because barriers to effective communication prevented their understanding that the aspiration of Negroes is simply to share the full rights and duties of American citizenship.

Several church and other groups sought to identify and respond to the moral issue around which the desegregation question swirled, but there were no momentous accomplishments. A general uneasiness seemed to prevail among many individuals and organizations that the values associated with democratic and Christian living were not sufficiently influential in the nation's life, for whatever the reason. Some students of the times suggested that the failure to deal morally—as well as legally—with the crucial issue of desegregation made impossible any further significant advance in the over-all quality of the total life of America and its people. The difficulty seemed most pressing at the community level, where general pronouncements in a national setting were not easily translated into local desegregation action.

Previous segregation practices seriously impaired the competence of Negroes in 1959 to experience the opportunities and discharge the responsibilities of a democratic society. That con-

\* As used here, the South includes the seventeen states and the District of Columbia which practiced legal segregation in education before 1954. The areas indicated are education, employment, recreation, transportation, and voting.



dition of inadequacy was used during the year as a chief argument against public desegregation.

Widely neglected in 1959 was the opportunity to build a superior quality of race relations in the South through a substantial and early fulfillment of the Negro's aspirations for full citizenship and an effective program to inform the public of the benefits for every citizen when racial discrimination in public affairs is eliminated.

#### FEDERAL ACTION

*Legislative.* Of much civil rights legislation proposed and introduced in the Congress, the only enactment into law was the extension for two years of the Commission on Civil Rights.

The *REPORT OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSION ON CIVIL RIGHTS* called for the extension of equal protection of the laws regardless of age, color, creed, or national origin; recommended legislation to correct abuses and to assure voting rights to all qualified citizens; indicated to the states that the alternative is "reasonable ways of ending compulsory segregation" in their schools or abandoning their systems of free public education; urged the promotion of "equal opportunity to secure decent housing," proposed that a bi-racial commission be established in every city and state "with substantial non-white populations" to study racial problems, receive and investigate complaints, and attempt to solve problems through mediation and conciliation; and suggested that the President of the United States "issue an Executive Order stating the constitutional objective of equal opportunity in housing."

The Commission's conclusion was: Voting, education, and housing are so fundamentally interrelated that it is impossible for the problems to be solved by improvement of any one factor alone.

*Executive.* In his State of the Union Message the *President of the United States* asked Congress to join him in supporting the United States Supreme Court rulings against segregation and called for legislation to achieve "freedom from discrimination in voting and access to jobs."

The Secretary of the *Department of Health, Education, and Welfare* announced that public schools converted into "private" schools to avoid integration would get none of the Federal funds designed primarily to improve facilities for teaching science, mathematics, and foreign languages. The *Department of Justice* furthered the cause of civil rights by securing court orders, filing suits in Federal courts to protect voting rights, and expressing determination to continue legal action on behalf of citizens whose rights are denied. The Secretary of the *Department of Labor* warned that segregation was a waste of a "vast reserve of human talent" and a "critical factor" in the nation's economic future.

The *President's Committee on Government Contracts* called on two agencies to eliminate discrimination on redevelopment projects and was asked to give more publicity to its program. Important specific accomplishments have been recorded in several southern communities.

The *President's Committee on Government Employment Policy* announced that the number of Negroes employed in clerical, stenographic, and typing positions in Federal agencies in New Orleans had increased nearly seven times since 1951. The *United States Employment Service* reported that three department stores in Washington, D. C., had broken the color barrier in hiring sales staffs, but indicated the building trades to be the outstanding example of discrimination in employment.

*Judicial.* The *United States Supreme Court* refused to review a circuit court decision declaring a conviction void because the county had no eligible Negro voters, hence no Negro jurors; turned down the eleventh-hour appeals for postponement of desegregation in Arlington and Prince Edward County, Virginia; and remanded a conviction of contempt for refusing to answer questions asked by a Virginia legislative committee about desegregation.

The *United States Circuit Court*, in Virginia, upheld an order admitting four Negro children to an Arlington high school, granted a stay of a desegregation order to two Charlottesville schools, and ordered Arlington County to reconsider applications of twenty-six Negro pupils denied admission to white schools.

The court upheld the plan of the Board of Education of Nashville, Tennessee, to spread integration over a 12-year period; found no racial discrimination in the refusal of the Moberly, Missouri, School District to rehire seven colored teachers dropped when integration came in 1955; upheld the constitutionality of the Arkansas pupil placement laws and the right of Negroes to attend Louisiana State University in New Orleans.

It was ruled that an integrated local of United Steel Workers in Houston, Texas, did not discriminate against Negroes by requiring tests not previously required of white applicants. Two unfavorable rulings were upheld relating to registration and voting in Alabama: (1) the Government had no grounds to bring suit against the Board of Registrars of Macon County and the State of Alabama because of denial of suffrage rights to Negroes, as the Civil Rights Act of 1957 applied only to individuals; and (2) the courts may not reverse the legislative act gerrymandering Negroes outside the city limits of Tuskegee, because the "power of increase and diminution of municipal territory is . . . in the legislature."



*Federal District Courts* were kept busy carrying out their assignment of reviewing desegregation progress for public schools. They ruled that Virginia could not close individual schools ordered desegregated and "keep other public schools throughout the state open on a segregated basis," and that as long as the state operated public schools, it could not deny integration requests. By this decision, public schools were returned to local control.

In Arkansas, the court declared unconstitutional Legislative Acts under which the Governor had closed the high schools of Little Rock and reminded this city's school board that it was under a "continuing mandate" to integrate schools. The court ordered the Atlanta Board of Education to submit a desegregation plan by December 1; and the New Orleans School Board to submit one by March 1, 1960. The New Orleans' deadline was later extended. The Dallas School Board was instructed to "put its house in order" for eventual integration and to hold an election to obtain voter action in the spring. In Florida, the pupil assignment law was upheld.

In higher education, the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia was enjoined from barring Negro applicants solely because of race, and also from requiring certificates of personal character and abilities certified by white alumni of white institutions.

The courts opened two municipal golf courses to unrestricted play in Jacksonville, Florida, but refused to so order in Mobile, Alabama. The sale of a park pool in Greensboro, North Carolina, was held valid because "plaintiffs failed to prove the sale was not bona fide"; but in Montgomery, Alabama, city officials were told the policy of denying Negroes the use of white parks violated the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

Court action was taken by the Department of Justice to obtain records of Boards of Registrars for inspection by the United States Commission on Civil Rights; but of the three suits brought by this Department, in none was there a decision in favor of complainants. A Louisiana decision denied the Commission on Civil Rights permission to hold further hearings in Louisiana unless it permitted cross examination of witnesses. In the same state, a judge refused to dismiss a suit seeking to halt a purge of Negro voters in Washington Parish.

#### STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS—COMPLIANCE

*Legislative.* The only positive legislation was Missouri enactments making it unlawful for state agencies to discriminate in employment and giving permanent status to its Commission on Human Relations.

*Executive.* The Governor of Florida appeared to be the only executive in the lower South taking positive steps to support limited desegregation. His Advisory Committee on Race Relations declared no legislation can accomplish "complete segregation in a free public school system," and concluded, "All schools must be kept open or all closed."

The Governor of Virginia departed from his "massive resistance" stand and said the state could not overthrow the Federal Government.

The Mayor of Atlanta asked for legislation permitting Atlanta to "decide the fate" of its own schools and pupils. Racial segregation was abolished at City Park in New Orleans; and Bobby Jones Golf Course at Sarasota, Florida, was desegregated.

*School Boards: Elementary and Secondary Education.* Desegregation by school boards took the form of token integration under pupil placement plans. Token integration once again returned to Arkansas' capital.

Of Florida's school systems, Dade County first accepted four Negro children. To the four systems of Greensboro, Winston-Salem, Charlotte and Wayne County which had limited desegregation were added High Point, Durham, and Craven County in North Carolina. In Virginia, seven all-white schools in Arlington and Norfolk opened their schools to twenty-one Negro pupils. Warren County High School at Front Royal received twenty-one; Alexandria, nine; and Charlottesville, eleven. Floyd County was ordered to admit fourteen Negro pupils and the City of Galax one in January, 1960.

Integration of schools near Air Force Bases under ultimatums from the Federal Government took place in Pulaski County, Arkansas, at Naranja, south of Miami, Florida, and at a school near Smyrna, Tennessee. The Atlanta Board of Education submitted a desegregation plan to the court as ordered.

There was more teacher integration during the year. Louisville, Kentucky, transferred ten Negro teachers to five schools with formerly all-white faculties. In Western Bethesda, Maryland, a Negro headed an all-white public school in the state for the first time. Oklahoma integrated faculties of two bi-racial schools, although the assignment of Negro and white teachers to the same faculties has occurred in relatively few districts. In West Virginia, the Cabell County School System placed a second group of Negro teachers in formerly all-white schools.

*Higher Education.* The University of Florida admitted six students in 1959, including a woman who entered the Medical School. Enrollment of Negroes at Louisiana State University at New Orleans increased from 78 in 1958 to 417 in 1959.



Memphis State University accepted its first Negro student in April and decided to desegregate regular classes in July. Two Negro undergraduate students attended the Evening Division of the University of Tennessee at Knoxville.

A superior court clerk became the first Georgia official to sign affidavits of residence and character for two youthful Atlanta Negro students who were seeking admission to the University of Georgia. His signature fulfilled a requirement that the ordinary or court clerk in a person's county of residence must attest to his residence and good character. A sociologist at the University of Louisville became the first Negro to head a department of an integrated southern university.

*Judicial.* The Arkansas Supreme Court declared the acts which supported the State Sovereignty Commission invalid and refused to review its decision. A state district court judge in Louisiana dismissed a suit filed by the Citizens Council asking that the registrar of voters honor voter challenges. A registrar had testified if they had challenged impartially, ninety-two percent of the voters would have been excluded.

#### STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS—NON-COMPLIANCE

*Legislative.* The legislatures of eight states enacted laws to put more props under their legislation relating to segregated education, to thwart further desegregation, or to minimize existing desegregation. Alabama approved the largest school budget in its history and a \$100,000,000 bond issue for school construction to strengthen all its schools and, perhaps, thereby to delay school desegregation. Georgia passed a package of six laws recommended by its new governor after an adverse court decision against the maintenance of segregation by a state college. Florida enacted a law to segregate schools by sex.

State laws affecting private schools as a segregation thwarting alternative for public schools included authorization for the use of state funds to finance private schools in Alabama and a state board to prescribe minimum standards for private schools in Florida.

State legislatures passed laws supporting or setting up private schools to prevent integration. Alabama authorized use of state funds to finance private schools.

Alabama and Louisiana enacted laws to hinder the work of the United States Commission on Civil Rights to permit Negroes' exercise of the suffrage.

In Louisiana, the Chairman of the Joint Legislative Committee on Segregation announced and supervised a campaign to reduce Negro registration from 130,000 to 13,000. In Red River Parish, Negro voters were cut from 1,360 to 16;

in St. Landry, from 1,726 to 83; in Washington Parish, from 1,500 to 200.

*Executive.* There was evidence to support the belief that in some quarters the rejection of the Supreme Court's 1954 desegregation decision was more evident than ever. Some governors and other state officials continued to hold that segregation must be maintained at any cost.

*School Boards and Other Officials.* One of the main functions of school boards using pupil placement plans appeared to be to keep as many Negro pupils as possible from entering schools of their choice. School boards have refused funds from the Federal Government which could be interpreted as their rejection of the Government's role in promoting equality in education for Negroes.

Virginia's educational systems were in a state of chaos. Schools were operated under the old pattern of segregation, under a pupil placement plan, and under a complete system of private white schools.

In higher education, the Georgia State Board of Regents suspended indefinitely admissions to all institutions in the University system as a reaction to a Federal court decision calling on college officials to stop refusing admission to qualified Negro applicants "solely on the ground of race and color."

Montgomery, Alabama, closed all of its parks, white and Negro, after a suit was filed to integrate Oak Park. State officials closed a lake near Selma after a number of racial incidents had occurred there, including the finding of the body of a respected Negro citizen from Montgomery. Officials of Jacksonville, Florida, voted to close down the two golf courses rather than permit equal use by the two races. The City Council in St. Petersburg voted to reopen Spa Beach on a segregated basis, but provided for its being closed again if Negroes tried to mix with whites, and the City Commission of Miami, Florida, reversed the order of the City Manager who had opened swimming pools and other recreational facilities to Negroes.

Obtaining the right to register and vote in some of the Southern States was still a burdensome problem for Negroes in 1959. The Commission on Civil Rights reported it had received voting complaints from all of the states which formerly had legally segregated schools, except Delaware. There was refusal to cooperate with the Commission on Civil Rights by the Governor of Alabama, the Chairman of the Joint Legislative Segregation Committee in Louisiana, the Governor and state officials of Georgia, and the Governor of South Carolina.



Southern delegations went to Washington to testify against civil rights bills in Congress and against the extension of the life of the Commission on Civil Rights.

A survey relating to transportation by the Southern Regional Council released on July 25 showed that bus stations and many train terminals in the South continued racial segregation in waiting-room facilities despite Federal regulations to the contrary. Practices, it reveals, differed widely from city to city and even in cities within the same state. Some towns and terminals appeared to have deliberately left their policies confused and ambiguous. Bus carriers were the most resistant to change.

*Judicial.* The Arkansas Supreme Court ruled that the Legislature did not exceed its police powers when it provided for the closing of public schools to avoid integration. A state court of appeals also dismissed the efforts of the Dallas, Texas, School Board to get an interpretation of its status under a conflict between a Federal court desegregation order and a state law providing penalties if the move to desegregate is made without approval of voters in the school district.

Dismissal on technical grounds of the appeals by a group of Negroes from disorderly conduct convictions in connection with an anti-segregation demonstration on Birmingham's buses in 1958 upheld jail sentences of two of the complainants and fines ranging up to \$100 for all of them by the Alabama Court of Appeals.

#### VOLUNTARY GROUP ACTION

*Organized Proponents of Civil Rights.* Voluntary groups were potent forces operating to break down segregation. In various ways several organizations expressed their interest in keeping public schools open and in desegregating other facilities. Among these were the *Committee for the Peaceful Operation of Our Free Public Schools*, the *Women's Emergency Committee to Open Our Schools* and the *Committee with Members of Organized Labor to Maintain Our Free Public Schools*, all of Little Rock, Arkansas; also, the *Prince Edward County Christian Association* in Virginia; the *Montgomery Improvement Association* in Alabama; and the *Georgia League of Women Voters*.

Such civic and political groups as the *Arkansas Christian Movement*, Little Rock; the *United Clubs, Inc.*, New Orleans; and the *American Veterans Committee* attacked segregation in general and in specific instances. Three groups, the *Southern Christian Leadership Conference*, the *Congress of Racial Equality*, and the *Fellowship of Reconciliation*, sponsored the first *South-wide Institute on Non-Violent Resistance to Segregation*; and a number of local groups operated effectively to break down segregation in lunch rooms, cafeterias,

and similar accommodations. Others attacked inequality of treatment by law enforcement officers.

A new organized interest in registration and voting rights was indicated during the year. Registration and voting difficulties were publicized by the *Bessemer Voters League*, Bessemer, Alabama, and programs to stimulate registration and voting were conducted by the *League of Women Voters*, Montgomery, Alabama; the *Tuskegee Civic Association*, Tuskegee, Alabama; the *Georgia Negro Voters League*; and the *Tennessee Leadership Conference for Political Action* organized at Nashville.

The possible economic consequences of the closing of the public schools were described by the *Virginia AFL-CIO Convention*; the *Little Rock Chamber of Commerce*; the *Real Estate Industry Council of Dade County*, the *Miami Beach Chamber of Commerce* and the *Junior Chamber of Commerce*, all in Florida.

Some organizations grew out of direct efforts to retain public schools. Some of these were: *Save the Education Program*, and the *Women's Emergency Committee to Open Our Schools*, both in Little Rock, and *Help Our Public Education*, formed in Atlanta.

Student and faculty groups joined the growing sentiment against discrimination in education. The *Youth March for Integrated Schools* represented by 25,000 persons from all parts of the nation, met in Washington, D. C., to demonstrate for faster implementation of desegregated education. Support was given to the movement by the *United States National Student Association* representing student governments of almost 400 colleges. The *American Association of University Professors* notified its 42,000 members to be on the lookout for jobs for four members of the University of Arkansas who lost their appointments for refusing to sign affidavits under Act 10 of 1953, requiring a listing of a teacher's contributions to and membership in organizations for the last five years.

Continuing to guard the rights of all Americans but specifically those of Negro Americans in the nation and in the Southern Region, were the *National Association for the Advancement of Colored People*, the *Southern Regional Council*, and the *Southern Conference Educational Fund, Inc.* The NAACP urged religious leaders to make their churches racially inclusive and to support desegregation in all public accommodations and facilities. At its fiftieth annual convention, delegates voted "to promote registration and vote campaigns in the South."

In 1959, specific action against segregation and discrimination was added to the strong statements already recorded by practically all of the major religious denominations. Conferences and other church groups and agencies in Alabama,



Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, Virginia, and Delaware opposed the closing of public schools.

The *American Jewish Congress* proposed a six-point program to curb hate bombing and the *Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith* made its "Four Chaplains" Award to the Attorney General of North Carolina for his fight against the Ku Klux Klan and his insistence the public schools must be kept open regardless of the outcome of the school segregation issue.

*Organized Opponents of Civil Rights.* Civic groups believing in segregation formulated programs to promote it by keeping parents informed on such matters as school closings, cost of private schools, and steps to take if schools were closed. Others petitioned authorities to cut off funds from integrated schools. The *Carroll Service Council*, Carrollton, Georgia, appointed a fact-finding committee on integration affairs; 3,000 residents of Warren County, Virginia, asked the County Board of Supervisors to defy state law in the appropriation of funds to integrated schools. Other groups indicated through action that they planned to maintain segregation.

The *East Memphis Civic Club* protested a plan to build a high school for Negroes in an all-white neighborhood, and white residents near the Adams Park City Golf Course in Atlanta threatened to tie up the course with players if plans for a Negro tournament were carried out. The *Mississippi Advisory Council* for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth did not invite Negro representation because of changed times and a change in their feeling toward Negroes, it said. Club women of the Fifth District of Alabama passed a resolution opposing all civil rights legislation proposed in Congress and the *Mississippi Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution* commended Mississippi State University for refusing to permit its basketball team to compete in the integrated National Collegiate Tournament.

Some small Negro groups in Augusta, Georgia, Birmingham and Montgomery, Alabama, were reported as having taken a segregationist position. A group of 108 Negro property owners in Augusta did not wish to have a \$1.5 million urban renewal program, giving as the reason it would force them to integrate with whites; the *Southern Negro Improvement Association of Birmingham* asked President Eisenhower not to deny Negroes "a major symbol of our progress—all Negro schools." The *Montgomery Restoration and Amelioration Association* warned Negroes against attempting to integrate the schools on the basis that they would be closed in eight months, which would cause Negroes to lose their jobs and a payroll of \$1,807,000. Negro citizens of the Van Winkle

Community, Hinds County, Mississippi, were successful in keeping a white store owner from building in an all-Negro neighborhood.

Among economic groups, the *Oklahoma Farm Bureau* and the *Oklahoma Farmers Union* deplored the centralization of government by the United States Supreme Court and its efforts to take over the power of the states and the legislative processes.

Numerous educational groups supported the retention of segregation in education. New organizations in support of segregated private schools were organized although some schools operating in 1958 failed to open in 1959 and others proposed failed to materialize. Other groups took their traditional stand or actively worked to retain "separate but equal" schools. The *National Education Association*, for the fifth consecutive year, adopted practically the same resolution on integration, refusing to strengthen its previous position and defeating moves to change discriminatory membership practices.

The long established practice of some professional groups in the South excluding eligible Negroes from membership or of permitting membership but limiting participation was publicly called into question after the *Southern Sociological Society* informed its Negro members that it had provided separate and unequal eating facilities for them in an Atlanta hotel at its forthcoming annual meeting. In line with the same policy of exclusion, the *Richmond Academy of Medicine* voted not to accept Negroes as members but to invite them to attend scientific sessions.

Among the main white Protestant groups in the South, many churches were clinging to segregation despite the fact that their parent bodies had already repudiated it. Several Baptist bodies voted for continuation of segregation in public schools. Methodists, especially in Alabama, Florida, and Georgia, were building defenses against integration within the Church. "Southern" Presbyterians began a purge of liberals within the denomination. Like some Methodists, they called for the withdrawal of the Church from the National Council of Churches because it advocated the recognition of China and wished to see desegregation implemented; a minister was dismissed by the *Georgia Presbytery* because he advocated "creative contacts" between the races, the culmination of long-time charges against him for his racial views. When the vestrymen of an Episcopal church in Rocky Mount, Virginia, instructed a lay delegate to a diocesan council to "oppose integration . . . at a camp and conference center, in any way, and at any time," the vicar resigned.

Three interdenominational groups may be cited for their extreme racial views. The *Evangelical Christian Council* of fifty-three ministers ex-



pressed the belief that racial integration is "satanic, unconstitutional and a main objective of Communists." The *Bessemer Ministerial Association* voted down a motion to protest Ku Klux Klan signs of welcome on that Alabama city's super-highway. The *United Church Women* of Mississippi, although an affiliate of the National Council of Churches, adopted a resolution calling for the continued separation of the races.

There was evidence to conclude that a resurgence of the *Ku Klux Klan* occurred in several states and plans for further expansion existed in others. The Klan forced persons from their jobs and homes and burned crosses on private and public property. But the most obvious indications that the Klan was in favor with the people and with some city and state authorities were the various signs of welcome that appeared on highways just before visitors enter certain cities. Such signs were reported at the entrances to Montgomery, Bessemer, Tuscaloosa, and Birmingham in Alabama and in Charleston, South Carolina.

*White Citizens Council* members speeded up their programs directed at limiting the number of Negro voters. In this, as in their other efforts, they had the support of some public officials. There is evidence showing cooperation between public officials and the Councils through membership or other connections. These Councils announced they preferred ending public school education to the integration of the schools; and they had as another one of their goals the elimination of Negro performers from TV programs and from the movies.

## THE IMPACT OF SOUTHERN RACIAL PRACTICES ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Discrimination and inequality as they operated everywhere but especially in the Southern States were the cause for alarm among responsible officials. Vice-President Nixon, appearing before the fifty-one member Council of Methodist Bishops, urged them as "opinion-makers" to apply their weight to discourage racial extremism. Attorney General William P. Rogers' concern was for finding "the means for making continued progress in the field of civil rights and by the exercise of self-discipline prevent damaging incidents so costly to our nation from occurring." Dr. John A. Hannah, Chairman of the Commission on Civil Rights, took the view that "the balance of power in the world rests with one-third of the world's population not allied militarily or philosophically with either the Soviet Union or the United States, most of whom are non-white."

The American Ambassador to the United Nations, Henry Cabot Lodge, expressed deep regret to the Soviet Prime Minister, during his visit to this country, for the treatment received by Negroes and explained that progress was being made in eliminating this evil. The Department of Labor apologized to a Nigerian official after he was told by a Kansas City, Missouri, restaurant manager not to return there to eat because of his color. He was a guest of the United States Government, traveling with a group of ten international labor leaders making a tour of factories and industries.