

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

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National Register of Historic Places Inventory—Nomination Form

See instructions in *How to Complete National Register Forms*
Type all entries—complete applicable sections

1. Name

historic Whitney M. Young, Jr. Birthplace

and/or common

2. Location

street & number _____ not for publication _____

city, town Lincoln Ridge _____ vicinity of _____ ~~congressional district~~

state Kentucky code 21 county Shelby code 211

3. Classification

Category	Ownership	Status	Present Use
<input type="checkbox"/> district	<input type="checkbox"/> public	<input type="checkbox"/> occupied	<input type="checkbox"/> agriculture <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> museum
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> building(s)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> private	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> unoccupied	<input type="checkbox"/> commercial <input type="checkbox"/> park
<input type="checkbox"/> structure	<input type="checkbox"/> both	<input type="checkbox"/> work in progress	<input type="checkbox"/> educational <input type="checkbox"/> private residence
<input type="checkbox"/> site	Public Acquisition	Accessible	<input type="checkbox"/> entertainment <input type="checkbox"/> religious
<input type="checkbox"/> object	<input type="checkbox"/> in process	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> yes: restricted	<input type="checkbox"/> government <input type="checkbox"/> scientific
	<input type="checkbox"/> being considered	<input type="checkbox"/> yes: unrestricted	<input type="checkbox"/> industrial <input type="checkbox"/> transportation
		<input type="checkbox"/> no	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> other:

4. Owner of Property

name Lincoln Foundation - Dr. Samuel Robinson, Executive Director

street & number 233 W. Bradway

city, town Louisville _____ vicinity of _____ state Kentucky

5. Location of Legal Description

courthouse, registry of deeds, etc. Shelby County Courthouse

street & number

city, town Shelbyville _____ state Kentucky

6. Representation in Existing Surveys

title _____ has this property been determined eligible? yes no

date _____ federal state county local

depository for survey records

city, town _____ state _____

7. Description

Condition

excellent
 good
 fair

deteriorated
 ruins
 unexposed

Check one

unaltered
 altered

Check one

original site
 moved date _____

Describe the present and original (if known) physical appearance

The Whitney Young, Jr., birthplace is a two story white wood building characterized by one over one windows on both floors. There is a single pane window to the left of the front door and a large one over one window to the right of the door.

The original portion of the house has a hipped roof. The roof of the 1972 addition is a hipped-shed construction. Three square stucco columns support the roof of the front porch which is made of wood and surrounded by wooden balustrade. The steps are also wooden and accented by balustrades on the side of the steps headed by square wooden columns. There is a small porch at the rear of the house. The roof of the porch is supported by square columns. The house sits on a stone foundation.

There are four rooms on each floor with a centrally located stairway. The original portion of the house has the original hardwood floors and woodwork. The interior of the addition copies the woodwork and floor of the original house. The house is used as a conference center.

8. Significance

Period	Areas of Significance—Check and justify below			
<input type="checkbox"/> prehistoric	<input type="checkbox"/> archeology-prehistoric	<input type="checkbox"/> community planning	<input type="checkbox"/> landscape architecture	<input type="checkbox"/> religion
<input type="checkbox"/> 1400–1499	<input type="checkbox"/> archeology-historic	<input type="checkbox"/> conservation	<input type="checkbox"/> law	<input type="checkbox"/> science
<input type="checkbox"/> 1500–1599	<input type="checkbox"/> agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/> economics	<input type="checkbox"/> literature	<input type="checkbox"/> sculpture
<input type="checkbox"/> 1600–1699	<input type="checkbox"/> architecture	<input type="checkbox"/> education	<input type="checkbox"/> military	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> social/
<input type="checkbox"/> 1700–1799	<input type="checkbox"/> art	<input type="checkbox"/> engineering	<input type="checkbox"/> music	<input type="checkbox"/> humanitarian
<input type="checkbox"/> 1800–1899	<input type="checkbox"/> commerce	<input type="checkbox"/> exploration/settlement	<input type="checkbox"/> philosophy	<input type="checkbox"/> theater
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 1900–	<input type="checkbox"/> communications	<input type="checkbox"/> industry	<input type="checkbox"/> politics/government	<input type="checkbox"/> transportation
		<input type="checkbox"/> invention		<input type="checkbox"/> other (specify)

Specific dates 1961–1971 **Builder/Architect** unknown

Statement of Significance (In one paragraph)

Whitney M. Young, Jr., executive director of the National Urban League from 1961 to 1971, played a crucial role as a civil rights spokesman, advisor to three Presidents, and an influential ambassador to major corporate leaders for the cause of racial equality. An advocate of equal employment opportunity, improved housing, and education as the best foundation for black advancement, Young drew unprecedented corporate, government, and foundation support to the National Urban League to implement programs in these vital areas. Young, though a staunch supporter of non-violent direct action and political lobbying, believed that the Urban League, alone among Black organization possessed the resources and personnel to move Blacks beyond de jure victories in civil rights to actual social and economic equality. He once said that "The ultimate security of all Americans is dependent upon the success of our efforts to end poverty. The poor have placed their faith in the American Dream. It is time to hear the cries of the poor--both Black and White--and to bring our county together again." Perhaps this statement sums up his career best of all.

INTRODUCTION

The Black Equality Movement could be defined in terms of organized and sustained activity directed toward the attainment of specific racial goals or the alleviation or elimination of certain racial problems. Such a definition would suggest that the Black Equality Movement was synonymous with civil rights organizations. But this definition obscures the important fact that the Black Equality Movement had its own historic and impersonal momentum, responsive to deep and powerful economic and international events and political and ideological forces beyond the control of individuals or agencies. In fact, the power and momentum of the Black Equality Movement impelled it to create the necessary machinery, organizations, and leaders.

Furthermore, there is a tendency to think of the Black Equality Movement, organizations, and leaders as if they were interchangeable or as if they were only parts of the same historic and social phenomenon. While there are similarities and overlaps among them, they are not identical, and their important historical and contemporary dynamic differences need clarification if one is to assess accurately the role and power of the various equal rights organizations and actual extent of personal decision-making power held by their recognized leaders. For our purposes we are going to look briefly at two organizations and their leaders.

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One major point to keep in mind in this comparison is that leaders of the Black Equality Movement have not been elected by any substantial number of Blacks. Either they are hired executives, as was the case of Whitney M. Young, Jr., holding their office at the pleasure of a board of directors, or else they emerged as leaders by a charismatic personality, as was the case of Martin Luther King, Jr., later creating an organization which, in effect, they controlled. An organization that comes into existence due primarily to a charismatic personality does not have great endurance; once that personality is removed, the organization fails. On the other hand, if the organizational leader is removed, the organization elects a new leader and the organization continues.

Of the two organizations under consideration, the National Urban League is the oldest. From the very beginning it was politically non-partisan, a northern based operation and interracial in character.¹ The League's primary emphasis was placed upon the economic, industrial, and social-service clusters of power. On the other hand, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference was the first civil rights organization to start in the South.² The organization was amorphous in structure even though there were sixty-five affiliates throughout the South. To understand this organization one has to understand King, because SCLC was Martin Luther King, Jr.³ King's success stemmed in part from the inadequacy or the inappropriateness of the methods and techniques of other civil rights organizations. He mobilized people, not in protest against the entire system but against specific injustices.

A second major point to consider is that the movement of Black Americans for equality actually took place in two phases. The first phase dates roughly from the Brown Board of Education of Topeka decision of 1954 to the signing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and is commonly referred to as the Civil Rights Movement. During this 10-year span, attention was focused primarily on segregation and discrimination in the South. Non-violence, mass demonstrations, and sit-ins became the modus operandi of the Civil Rights Movement. This was the period of the successful Montgomery Bus boycott, the Freedom-Rides, the "children's crusade, Selma to Montgomery march, and the March on Washington. Martin Luther King, Jr., became nationally and internationally known. His efforts were recognized the world over when he was given the Nobel Prize for Peace.

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The second phase of the movement for equality dates from the signing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to the mid 1970s. This period is known as the Black Revolution. The attention of Blacks and White activists turned increasingly to the North. The struggle in the South had been against "Jim Crow." The struggle in the North was against "institutionalized racism." Despite the difference in custom and law, segregation was almost as much a part of black life in Northern cities as it was in the South. Economically deprived and exploited, Blacks were concentrated in slums in all the great northern cities. As a result, their children were forced to attend all black schools and full participation in the life of the Northern city was effectively denied to them by poverty. While Blacks enjoyed some political power in the North, that power had done little to win for them a decent life. The Urban League under, Whitney Young, joined with more militant groups and associated itself with mass protest movements. Young favored the formation of more black unions and other organizations partly to give Blacks a sense of pride, but mainly for the mobilization of black political and economic resources into a significant bloc to achieve goals. The underlying goal of the Black Revolution was economic independence. Young worked to employ the unemployed and elevate the under-employed.

A third point to consider is that neither of the organizations nor their leaders operated in a vacuum. In fact, during the period that Martin Luther King, Jr., was at the pinnacle of his influence, Whitney M. Young, Jr., was also a recognized black leader. Furthermore, there was interaction between the organizations. Martin Luther King, Whitney M. Young, and Roy Wilkins, Executive Secretary of the NAACP, all worked together to make the March on Washington the tremendous success it was. Furthermore, Whitney M. Young served as a mediator between King and Wilkins when they disagreed over King's Vietnam policy. The SCLC, traditionally a southern based operation, tried to move its operation into northern cities and the Urban League set up branches in the South.

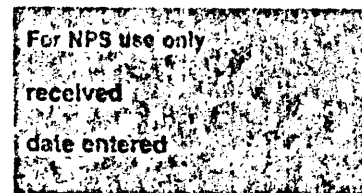
The organizations involved in the Black Equality Movement varied in organizational efficiency as well as in philosophy, approach, methods, and leaders. Whitney M. Young, Jr., was one of the more prominent leaders.

BIOGRAPHY

Whitney Moore Young, Jr., was born July 31, 1921, on the campus of Lincoln Institute, in Lincoln Ridge, Kentucky. He and his two sisters were brought up on the school campus where their father served on the faculty. He graduated from Lincoln at the age of 15, as valedictorian, and then enrolled at Kentucky State College, the Black school in Lexington, Kentucky. A pre-medical major, Whitney played on the basketball team and was President of the senior class. After graduation, he went to Louisville hoping to earn enough tuition money to enter medical school. The only available work was unskilled menial labor at low wages. Whitney worked during the day as a busboy and by night he washed dishes at the Seelbach Hotel. Working two jobs resulted in a case of double pneumonia. This period of illness exhausted his savings and seriously damaged his dream of a medical career. After recuperating, he took a job teaching mathematics at Rosenwald High School in Madisonville, Kentucky.

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When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor, the possibility of a medical career became obtainable. The United States had established the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) which afforded an opportunity to study medicine. Excited by the prospect of studying to be a doctor, Young volunteered for service. Unfortunately, the only medical instruction available for Blacks was Meharry Medical School in Nashville, Tennessee and Howard University in Washington, D.C. Both were fully enrolled until 1946. Young had to select an engineering course at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Blacks had never stayed in a dormitory at M.I.T. and now there were three assigned. At first his white roommate from Mississippi refused to speak to him. Within 6 months, he asked Young to be best man at his wedding; Young accepted.

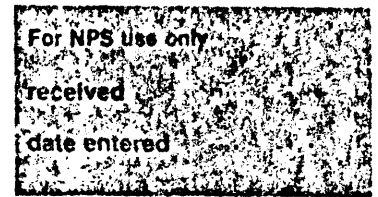
After a brief period, the ASTP program was ended and all personnel were reassigned to combat units. Young found himself as an enlisted man in a road construction company of Blacks officered by Southern Whites, despite his bachelor's degree and engineering training at M.I.T. After 3 weeks, Young was promoted from private to first sergeant. It soon became apparent that he was mediating between two antagonistic forces, black soldiers and white officers, that threatened to erupt. As a result of this experience in the Army, Whitney Young decided on race relations as a career after the war. Returning to the United States from Europe, Young joined his wife, Margaret, at the University of Minnesota. He earned a Masters Degree in social work in 1947. While at the University of Minnesota, he helped organize a chapter of the Congress of Racial Equality.

Also as part of his education, Whitney had worked for the local branch of the National Urban League. While working as a volunteer, he had organized a "Clean Up Week" in the slums. Impressed by his work as a volunteer, the Urban League offered him a full-time job. In 1948, he became the Industrial Relations Director of the Urban League in St. Paul, Minnesota. His responsibility was finding new jobs for Blacks. Instead of talking to the person who did the hiring, Young went directly to the top person in the company and showed him how the company could be helped if Blacks were hired. In this way Whitney got new jobs and promotions for hundreds of the city's black citizens. Because of his success in St. Paul, Young was promoted in 1950 to President of the Omaha, Nebraska, branch of the Urban League.

In Omaha, Whitney was able to do even more dramatic things. He doubled the size of his staff from three staff workers to six and a full-time secretary. At least one day out of each week, he would walk 24th Street, the main street of the black community. His purpose was to keep in touch with the masses and build up their confidence in the Urban League. As Director of the Omaha Urban League, Young was instrumental in the integration of federal housing projects, getting Blacks into positions previously out of reach, such as bus drivers, taxi drivers, and route salesmen.

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By the time Whitney Young left Omaha in 1953, the number of memberships had increased from three hundred to over one thousand paid memberships. In January 1954, Young became the first "Dean" of the School of Social Work at Atlanta University.⁴ Under Young's tuteledge, the curriculum was reorganized and expanded as a result of grants received from the Federal government. In 1954, the National Institute of Mental Health of the United States Public Health Service provided scholarships totaling \$9,600 for students who were in training to be psychiatric social workers. At the same time, the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, through its Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, made a grant of \$8,000 for a program of vocational rehabilitation in the school. An additional grant of \$3,000 came from this source for traineeships for students. The following year, the Medical Social Work Sequence was fully accredited by the Council on Social Work Education and received \$20,000 from the National Institute of Mental Health to support work in this area. This was signal honor, for the School of Social Work was one of only twenty-six schools in the United States and Canada offering approved courses in medical social work, and one of three such schools in the South.

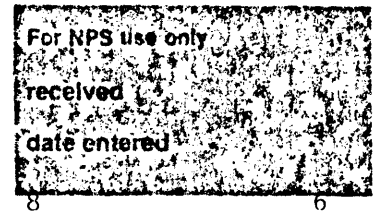
Young also reorganized the faculty so that its members would have great responsibilities in administrative matters as well as in teaching. He urged the faculty to attend the annual conferences of the various accreditation bodies such as the Council on Social Work Education. In addition, Young sought board memberships on local and national professional education groups for himself and his faculty. By 1957, the School of Social Work had a full-time faculty of twelve qualified persons and a part-time faculty of six equally qualified persons.

Young's term at the school coincided with the aftermath of the Brown v. Topeka decision. The U.S. Supreme Court ruling of 1954 made it possible for white students to be admitted to the School of Social Work for full credit degrees. Previously, one or two white students had taken one or more courses at the school, but others who had applied for admission for degree work had been denied.

The desegregation ruling created a competition problem for the Atlanta University School of Social Work. Other schools of social work began offering scholarships to black students more freely than previously. Young actively engaged in the recruitment of both black and white students and made every effort to increase the enrollment of white students, with some success. Within a short period, the school had changed from an institution training only black students for predominant work with black clients into an institution accepting all students who were being trained to work with all people. Enrollment decreased, however, for a time, despite an increase in scholarship funds and an aggressive recruiting effort. A higher admission grade point average was one influencing factor.

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During his tenure at the school, Young was deeply concerned with the lack of integrated employment opportunities for his graduates. He brought the problems of Blacks to the attention of every local or national organization he could. He worked closely with the greater Atlanta Council on Human Relations, the Southern Regional Conference--a group concerned with educational problems on a regional basis--and the Atlanta Urban League, where he concentrated on problems of housing and employment. He gave assistance to local alumni in their boycott of the Georgia Conference on Social Welfare. Their purpose was to impress the conference with the need to place Blacks in leadership positions in its programs. Young joined the NAACP, and eventually rose to become its state president before heading the National Urban League.

With the award of a Rockefeller Foundation special grant to study at Harvard University as a visiting scholar, Young took leave for 1960-1961. On August 1, 1961, he became executive director of the National Urban League. Young was selected for the post because he was not a part of the old hierarchy of the League and it was felt he would bring new life to the floundering organization.

Founded in 1911 as the National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, The Urban League came into existence in response to the plight of Blacks in Northern cities. The moderate quality of the League's program seems to have derived from its social welfare origins. The League shunned politics and devoted itself to questions that related to the economic welfare of Black Americans. Because of the League's conservative policies, from the outset, it had philanthropic backing that, for a time at least, was withheld from the less conservative NAACP.⁵ It attacked job discrimination from different angles: by meeting privately with major employees to convince them of the essential fairness and feasibility of hiring black workers; by lobbying the top levels of the American Federation of Labor to persuade organized labor to open its ranks to Blacks; and by promoting vocational training and on-the-job counseling for black workers themselves.

It quickly became apparent, however, that the League would have to devote extensive attention to direct service activities. To meet this need, the Urban League promoted the professional training of black social workers. Scientific social investigations of conditions among Blacks in cities became an integral part of its program. Results from these investigations were published in the League's Journal, Opportunity, thus creating an extensive body of reliable information on the life of the Urban black population.

To expand the work of the league in southern communities, a southern field branch office was established in Atlanta, Georgia. The National Urban League is governed by an Executive Board and a National Committee. Local Urban Leagues are governed by interracial boards and solicit voluntary services from ministers, teachers, doctors, and other public-spirited individuals. Local Leagues carry on a multitude of activities; day nurseries, sometimes with baby clinics and child placement agencies, parent-teacher associations and so on. They all function as employment agencies.

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In many communities white people often looked upon the League as "dangerous, radical, and too friendly to labor."⁶ Among the younger black intellectuals, the League was accused of being too timid. Against these charges the League retorted that "it is a social service organization attempting to perform a helpful task in a limited field."⁷ Despite all of its earlier accomplishments, the Urban League was showing signs of arteriosclerosis as the Civil Rights decade of the 1960s began. A drastic change was sorely needed. The stage was set for the arrival of Whitney Young.

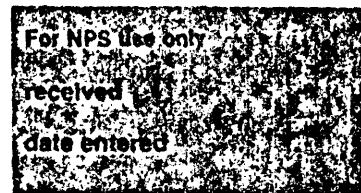
When Young took over in 1961, the National Urban League's annual budget was \$325,000, its national office had a staff of 38, and the branches were only loosely coordinated. Under his vigorous direction, the organization became much more cohesive. Five regional offices and a Washington Office were set up. By the end of 1964, the budget had increased to \$6,100,000 and the League had grown to 93 branches with 1,600 employees nationwide.

In 1962, Young met with President John F. Kennedy and as a result the Federal government hosted a 3-day conference of 89 League professionals and volunteers in Washington, D.C. The League's Washington Bureau was established as a liaison between the League and Federal governmental agencies to further League programs. The next year Young announced his "Domestic Marshall Plan." This much publicized program called for Federal expenditure of \$145 billion dollars over 10 years to eradicate the "discrimination gap caused by three centuries of abuse, humiliation, segregation and bias against Blacks."⁸ The heart of the Marshall Plan concept was that special effort was needed for and by black citizens if they were ever to catch up. Its ten points called for:

- 1) Special effort to overcome the serious historic handicaps of black citizens.
- 2) Moves to develop the potential of black Americans.
- 3) Assignment of the best educational talent and facilities to teach and motivate black youngsters.
- 4) Conscious effort to put Blacks in entrance jobs in all types of employment, including upper and lower management positions.
- 5) Open housing for all and elimination of racial ghettos.
- 6) Placement of black citizens on boards, commissions, and panels that make policy in health, education, welfare, housing, and employment.
- 7) Concentration of the best health and welfare skills where needed most to help needy Blacks in the ghetto.
- 8) Action by Blacks themselves to seize every opportunity for education, advancement and strengthening of the black community.

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9) Government, foundation, labor, and business support and backing for preventive programs carried on by established, responsible black leadership organizations.

10) Responsible participation by Black Americans in every phase of community life.⁹

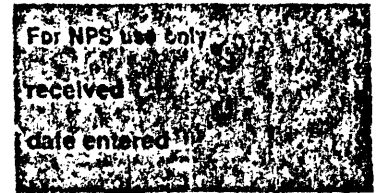
When the plan was first announced, it was considered hopelessly utopian and Young was considered radical for even daring to suggest it. Later, however, Senator Hubert Humphrey and ten democrats called for a "Marshall Plan" for the cities. Roy Wilkins, Executive Secretary NAACP, told a Washington audience that "if we can underwrite the economics of Germany, France, Italy and England and see that these people recover their equilibrium, then we can underwrite our own native black people."¹⁰

Before he assumed the position as Executive Director, Young had won from the League's directors an assurance that they recognized the new climate in the civil rights movement and the need for a change. Fearful that the League might lose its business support and its valuable status as a charitable organization, some of the directors bitterly opposed Young's decision to put the League behind the 1963 March on Washington. Young persisted and contributions rose dramatically. More importantly, the League joined the mainstream of the Black movement, a position it has held ever since. During this same period, Young began "To Be Equal," a syndicated column intended originally for the Black Press and community but by the time of his death it was appearing in more than 100 newspapers and heard on more than 40 radio stations across the country. He also created the League's National Skills Bank to upgrade under-employed Blacks and match them with jobs equal to their skills in cities across the nation. It was the first program of its kind in the country. The Bank upgraded 1,885 Blacks to better jobs.

In April 1964, Young undertook a major reorganization of the League. He established five Regional offices, new branches, especially in the South, and expanded operations at all levels throughout the organization. The League's resources were geared to the problems of the hard core unemployed. The On-the-Job Training Program was created. It qualified and placed more than 50,000 individuals into paid training positions in skilled trades and white-collar jobs. He also organized and led the Community Action Assembly which brought together 500 Black leaders, the President of the United States and his cabinet, and Congressmen in symposiums to discuss the Black community's needs and directions the country could take to meet them.

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In 1966, Young joined with top corporate leaders of the country in the Time sponsored tour of Europe. The twelve-day tour was designed to introduce American businessmen to political and economic leaders and circumstances in different regions of the world.¹¹ The Eastern European tour included two-dozen chairmen and chief executive officers of such companies as North American Aviation, Goodyear Tire and Rubber, Alcoa, Mobil Oil, Borg-Warner, and Ford Motor Company. Young used this opportunity to urge employment and upgrading of Blacks. Over the next year an estimated 50,000 new jobs were opened to minorities. The most dramatic result was a Christmas letter from Henry Ford II, enclosing a check for \$100,000. This gift continued each year until Young's death.¹² He also had offers of corporate vice-presidencies for himself, which he declined. He also traveled to Vietnam to talk with minority soldiers. The needs he discovered among them resulted in the 1967 League's Veterans Affairs Program. This program has aided more than 35,000 servicemen and veterans to register complaints through effective channels, and to find solutions to their education, housing, employment, health, and welfare needs. About the same time, the League established the Street Academy Program--now a national model. As an alternative education system, it has been highly successful in sending former drop-outs back to school and on to higher education. The first Street Academies were designed as a college entrance program for hard-core teenager dropouts.

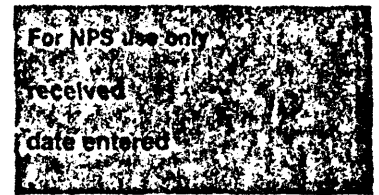
Students were recruited by League workers in ghetto pool halls, bars, and "shooting galleries." In 1967 alone, 107 Street Academy graduates entered Ivy league and other colleges around the nation. This education program proved that students abandoned by the public school system were not only educable but, when taught relevant material could and did qualify for college.

In 1968, under Young's direction, "New Thrust" was established as the League's modus operandi. This philosophy focused on a direct move into ghettos and grass roots communities across the nation. Local leaders were organized to identify and solve their own problems with the League's technical assistance. "New Thrust" attacked the root causes of minority deprivation, inadequate housing, health, and educational disadvantage, rather than focusing on the symptomatic statistics of joblessness. Following this new philosophy, Young endorsed the concept of Black Power. He interpreted it to mean black pride and self-respect, and the desire of Blacks for participation and control over their own destiny as Americans. In 1969, Young was awarded the nation's highest civilian honor, the Medal of Freedom, by President Lyndon B. Johnson.

In 1970 the Urban League turned a vigorous sixty. It had come along way from the small organization founded in 1910 with limited goals to the organization it is today. The League had broadened its programs so that they reach to the basic problems that afflict minority communities. Whitney Young was a major force in this new direction.

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On December 22, 1970, Executive Director Young met with President Richard M. Nixon and most of his cabinet. During the 75 minute session he stressed the disastrous effects of the recession on the Black community and called for visible, tangible evidence of the Administration's concern. This was the first time that a private citizen had met with the President and his cabinet. President Nixon, in his eulogy for Young, indicated that this meeting caused him to send out instructions to all of his cabinet to "find ways to enlist the unique capabilities of the Urban League and other private social service agencies in advancing and evaluating the nation's human resources program."¹³

In September of 1970, the Urban League challenged the United Way to quickly reorder priorities to meet the needs of the inner cities. In a statement to the press, Mr. Young said:

The Urban League is the only full-time, private race-relations agency supported by the United Way across the country, yet we receive only 1 ½% of the allocations from United Way agencies. We question the seriousness of local communities to do anything meaningful about the growing crises in our cities.

I am saying to the United Way and to all citizens who give to the United Way, that we cannot and will not continue to participate in this deception being perpetuated on the American public.

We are asking that the United Funds in the country increase their gifts to the Urban League by 50% this year... and a 50% increase now is only a beginning commitment by the United Way.¹⁴

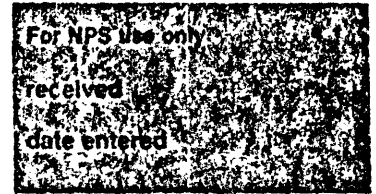
One of the most successful coalitions in 1970, comprised of the Urban League, NAACP, Church groups, Welfare Rights Organizations, and others was the "Make Black Count" campaign. The program, carried out in 47 League cities, was aimed at getting all of America's minority citizens counted in the census. While the end result left much to be desired, the campaign heightened non-white awareness of the Census and its importance to minorities.

On January 24, 1971, Mr. Young appeared in the NBC-TV documentary, "Which Way America?" In replying to comments about his conservative approach and lack of overt militance, Young said:

I am as angry as the most angry militant and revolutionary, but I am not a fool. I am against violence because I believe that the victims would suffer more than anybody else. The black community would be destroyed more than anybody else.¹⁵

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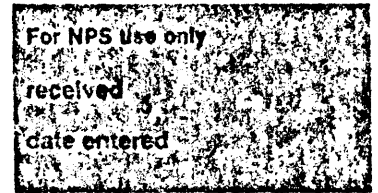
In March of the same year, Young left the United States to go to Africa to attend the African-American Dialogue, and annual conference of American and African leaders sponsored by the African-American Institute in Lagos, Nigeria. On March 11, 1971, while swimming in Lagos, he had an apparent heart attack and drowned. News spread immediately across Africa to the United States. President Nixon in his official statement said:

With Whitney Young's death today in Nigeria, I have lost a friend. Black America has lost a gifted and commanding champion of a just cause—and this nation has lost one of the most passionate and principled leaders it has had in all the long centuries since whites from Europe and blacks from Africa began building together toward the "American Dream."¹⁶

President Nixon ordered a jet to go to Africa to pick up Young's body, and dispatched top officials to form an escort. The President postponed a Cabinet meeting so that cabinet members could attend the funeral, and delivered a eulogy at the graveside rites. Whitney Young profoundly believed in unity within the black community and in racial reconciliation with the society at large.

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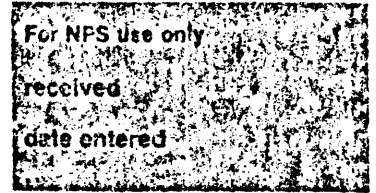
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- 2 Ibid.
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- 4 Young's predecessor's title had been Director, School of Social Work.
- 5 Kenneth G. Goode, From Africa to the United States and Then, Glenview, Illinois, 1969.
- 6 Ibid.
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- 10 Time, Volume 90, No. 6, August 11, 1967.
- 11 Black Leaders of the Twentieth Century, edited by John Hope Franklin and August Meier; Essay by Nancy J. Weiss, "Whitney M. Young, Jr.: Committing the Power Structure to the Cause of Civil Rights," Chicago, 1982.
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- 13 President Nixon's Eulogy of Whitney M. Young, Jr., March 17, 1971.
- 14 National Urban League "Year-end Report," 1970.
- 15 Robert Penn Warren, Who Speaks for the Negro, New York, 1971.
- 16 Official statement issued by President Nixon on Thursday, March 11, 1971.

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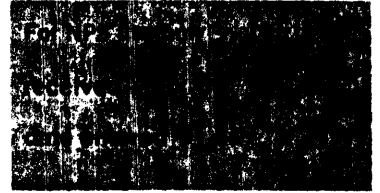
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- Dr. Clarence Coleman, Dean of School of Social Work, Atlanta University, September 7, 1983.
- Dr. James D. McGhee, Director Research Department National Urban League, October 5, 1983.
- Mrs. Betty Corbin, Omaha Urban League, October 20, 1983.
- Dr. Samuel Robinson, President of Lincoln Foundation, October 21, 1983.

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Verbal Boundary Description

The Whitney Young, Jr. birthplace is located on what was once the Lincoln Institute. It is located away from the other building on the northern edge of the campus. It is bounded on the north by a wooden fence which serves as a boundary for the Institutes property. The right curb of the driveway serves as its eastern boundary; the northern edge of the access road is its southern boundary. An imaginary line from the wooden fence to the northern curb of the access road is the western boundary.