

Negroes

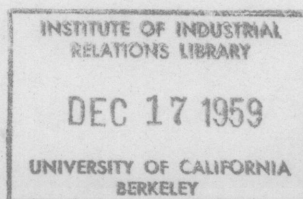
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U.S. ~~U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR~~
Bureau of Labor Statistics

... NOTES ON THE
ECONOMIC SITUATION OF NEGROES
IN THE UNITED STATES,

✓
Revised,
August 1959.

= Washington, 1959 =



Notes on the Economic Situation of Negroes in the United States was originally prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in May 1957 as background material for the use of the United States delegation to the International Labor Conference in Geneva in June 1957. That Conference included on its agenda the topic of discrimination in employment.

This issue of Notes is a revision of two earlier editions, bringing up to date the statistical tables, and adding new material that has since become available.

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Changes in the population, including Armed Forces overseas, by color
1950 to 1958

<u>All ages</u>	<u>April 1, 1950</u>	<u>July 1, 1958</u>	<u>Percent change</u>
White _ _ _ _	135,343,000	154,795,000	+ 14.4
Nonwhite _ _	15,789,000	19,269,000	+ 22.0

In 1950, Negroes comprised 95.5 percent of the nonwhite population. On this basis, in 1958 there were about 18,400,000 Negroes, an increase since 1950 of 22 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Employment Status of Negroes, 1940-1958

Long-term Trends

Among the most important social and economic developments of the past several decades has been the steady improvement in the status of Negro persons. Although they still lag behind whites in many respects --in education, income, and type and adequacy of employment, to mention a few--the historical differentials between the two have been narrowing.

In terms of labor force participation, almost all men in ages 25 to 54, both white and Negro, are in the labor force. For the other groups--women and younger and older men--the proportions of Negroes in the labor force have traditionally exceeded those of the comparable white population groups. The differences are not so great, however, as they were just a few years ago. This is particularly the case among teenage boys and men 65 years and over. In 1951, for example, the proportion of Negro teenage boys in the labor force was 55 percent compared with 49 percent for white boys. In 1958, the difference was 1 percentage point. The exodus of Negroes from sharecropping and other small-scale farm enterprises--where the very young and old tend to work in larger proportions than elsewhere--has been a major factor in reducing this gap. The participation rate of white women has risen faster than for Negro women from 1951-1958.

Occupational differentials are still quite large between the two groups, with Negroes predominating in the relatively unskilled fields. Some improvement has been observed in this respect since 1940. About 13 percent of the Negroes employed were in professional, managerial, and other white-collar occupations in 1958, as compared with only 6 percent in 1940. Among whites, the comparable proportion (about 44 percent in 1958) has also risen during the same period, but to a relatively smaller degree.

The number of Negro men who were professional, technical, and kindred workers more than doubled; while managers, proprietors, and officials almost doubled. The number of Negro men employed as clerical workers was more than five times as large in 1958 as in 1940.

In the skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar occupations, there has been no marked change in the past few years, but Negroes have generally held on to the gains made during World War II. Negro men employed as craftsmen and factory operatives were two and one-half times as numerous in 1958 as in 1940. On the other hand, there was a marked decline in the number of Negro men employed in private household service, as farmers, and as farm laborers.

Changes in the numbers of Negro women employed in different occupational groups between 1940 and 1958 also show a rise in their employment opportunities, and in their ability to take advantage of new openings.

By 1958, the number of Negro women employed as clerical workers had risen to almost 200,000, more than 12 times as many as in 1940. The number of those classified as professional and technical workers doubled and the group of Negro women sales workers was 2.5 times as great. The number of Negro women employed as operatives and service workers not in private households had more than tripled. During the period, the number of Negro women working as domestic servants in private households remained about the same.

Recent Developments

Unemployment rates have historically been higher among Negroes than among white workers. In the economic downturn of the past year, unemployment rates increased among all groups of workers. The rates for nonwhite men rose about as much as for white men. About one out of seven Negro male workers was jobless in April 1958, and a large proportion of these men were from unskilled and semiskilled occupations. These are the occupations where layoffs were heaviest. From 1957 to 1958, employment of both white and Negro men in semiskilled jobs declined almost 10 percent. In the unskilled group, however, employment declined more sharply for Negro men than for white men.

In 1959 Negroes shared in the upturn of employment and the decline in unemployment; unemployment among Negro women declined more than among whites, but among Negro men, however, the decline was somewhat less than among white men.

Involuntary part-time and part-year work is always more prevalent among Negro than among white workers. To some extent, these differences are probably due to the concentration of Negro workers in the less skilled occupations within each industry group and their lower seniority ratings due to their more recent entry into factory and office work.

Percent of the civilian population in the labor force, 1/
by color, age, and sex, annual averages 1951 and 1958

Age	Male				Female			
	White		Nonwhite		White		Nonwhite	
	1951	1958	1951	1958	1951	1958	1951	1958
Total, 14 and over-	84.0	81.3	83.7	80.4	32.6	34.8	44.9	46.2
14-19 - - - - -	49.2	43.5	55.3	44.0	32.5	29.7	28.9	24.8
20-24 - - - - -	88.4	86.7	88.7	88.7	46.7	46.1	45.4	48.3
25-34 - - - - -	97.0	97.2	95.7	96.3	33.6	33.6	51.1	50.8
35-44 - - - - -	97.6	98.0	96.4	96.4	38.0	41.4	55.8	60.8
45-54 - - - - -	96.0	96.6	95.1	93.9	38.0	46.5	55.5	59.8
55-64 - - - - -	87.4	88.2	84.6	83.3	26.8	34.5	39.8	42.8
65 and over - - - -	44.5	35.7	49.5	34.5	8.5	10.1	14.0	13.3

1/ Excludes persons in institutions.

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Employment status of the civilian population, by color and sex,
April 1958 and April 1959

Employment status and sex	White			Nonwhite		
	Number (in	Percent		Number (in	Percent	
	thousands)	change		thousands)	change	
	1958	1959	1958-1959	1958	1959	1958-1959
Men						
Civilian population - - - - -	51,139	51,735	1.2	5,585	5,694	2.0
Civilian labor force - - - - -	41,293	41,611	0.8	4,481	4,504	0.5
Percent of population - - -	80.7	80.4	-.4	80.2	79.1	-1.4
Employed - - - - -	38,455	39,761	3.4	3,827	4,037	5.5
Agriculture - - - - -	4,096	4,215	2.9	608	685	12.7
Nonagricultural industries -	34,359	35,546	3.5	3,219	3,352	4.1
Unemployed - - - - -	2,838	1,850	-34.8	654	467	-28.6
Percent of labor force - -	6.9	4.4	-36.2	14.6	10.4	-28.8
Women						
Civilian population - - - - -	55,926	56,605	1.2	6,352	6,456	1.6
Civilian labor force - - - - -	19,371	19,659	1.5	2,883	2,866	-0.6
Percent of population - - -	34.6	34.7	.3	45.4	44.4	-2.2
Employed - - - - -	18,112	18,608	2.7	2,513	2,607	3.7
Agriculture - - - - -	705	771	9.4	150	178	18.7
Nonagricultural industries -	17,407	17,837	2.5	2,363	2,428	2.8
Unemployed - - - - -	1,258	1,051	-16.5	370	259	-30.0
Percent of labor force - -	6.5	5.3	-18.5	12.8	9.0	-29.7

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

The return of nonwhites to agriculture is striking. The year before there had been a drop of almost 10 percent for nonwhite men and 3 percent for nonwhite women; this year the numbers went up by 13 and 19 percent respectively. Something of the same thing occurred among whites, in the two year-to-year comparisons, but not to so marked a degree. However, the month-to-month variations in this particular employment group are wide, due to weather conditions. In addition, the number involved, being relatively small, is subject to wider sampling errors than is true for larger numbers.

Persons at work in nonagricultural industries
by full- or part-time status, by color and sex, March 1959
(Percent distribution)

Hours worked, usual status, and sex	White	Nonwhite
<u>Men</u>		
Total at work - - - - -	100.0	100.0
35 hours or more - - - - -	88.2	81.1
1-34 hours - - - - -	11.8	19.0
Usually work full-time at present job - - -	4.6	8.0
Worked part-time for economic reasons - -	1.5	3.2
Worked part-time for other reasons - - -	3.1	4.8
Usually work part-time at present job - - -	7.2	11.0
Worked part-time for economic reasons - -	1.4	5.7
Worked part-time for other reasons - - -	5.8	5.3
<u>Women</u>		
Total at work - - - - -	100.0	100.0
35 hours or more - - - - -	74.0	63.7
1-34 hours - - - - -	26.0	36.3
Usually work full-time at present job - - -	4.4	5.5
Worked part-time for economic reasons - -	1.6	3.0
Worked part-time for other reasons - - -	2.8	2.5
Usually work part-time at present job - - -	21.6	30.8
Worked part-time for economic reasons - -	2.3	11.4
Worked part-time for other reasons - - -	19.3	19.4

Note: "Economic reasons" include: Slack work, material shortages, repairs to plant or equipment, start or termination of job during the week, and inability to find full-time work. "Other reasons" include: Labor dispute, bad weather, own illness, vacation, demands of home housework, school, etc., no desire for full-time work, full-time worker only during peak season, and other such reasons.

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Major occupation group of employed persons by color and sex,
April 1958 and April 1959

Major occupation group and sex	White			Nonwhite		
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent	
	(in thousands)	change	(in thousands)	change		
	1958	1959	1958-59	1958	1959	1958-59
Total employed men - - - - -	38,454	39,761	3.4	3,827	4,037	5.5
Professional, technical, and kindred workers - - - - -	4,288	4,374	2.0	125	137	9.6
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm - - - - -	5,509	5,726	3.9	110	89	-19.1
Clerical and kindred workers - - - - -	2,613	2,783	6.5	178	194	9.0
Sales workers - - - - -	2,571	2,664	3.6	56	48	-14.3
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers - - - - -	7,897	7,873	-.3	333	347	4.2
Operatives and kindred workers - - - - -	7,067	7,475	5.8	942	900	-4.5
Private household workers - - - - -	36	40	11.1	22	20	-9.1
Service workers, except private household - - - - -	2,052	2,147	4.6	593	561	-5.4
Farmers and farm managers - - - - -	2,770	2,744	-.9	242	246	1.7
Farm laborers and foremen - - - - -	1,152	1,272	10.4	329	404	22.8
Laborers, except farm and mine - - - - -	2,498	2,624	5.0	896	1,094	22.1
Total employed women - - - - -	18,112	18,608	2.7	2,513	2,607	3.7
Professional, technical, and kindred workers - - - - -	2,437	2,512	3.1	146	154	5.5
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm - - - - -	1,008	1,023	1.5	48	39	-18.8
Clerical and kindred workers - - - - -	6,041	5,917	-2.1	200	196	-2.0
Sales workers - - - - -	1,443	1,544	7.0	35	23	-34.3
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers - - - - -	202	205	1.5	18	10	-44.4
Operatives and kindred workers - - - - -	2,651	2,828	6.7	335	365	9.0
Private household workers - - - - -	1,278	1,191	-6.8	1,010	1,030	2.0
Service workers, except private household - - - - -	2,305	2,531	9.8	549	589	7.3
Farmers and farm managers - - - - -	107	112	4.7	19	13	-31.6
Farm laborers and foremen - - - - -	558	614	10.0	130	164	26.2
Laborers, except farm and mine - - - - -	82	93	13.4	22	21	-4.5

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Percent distribution of employed persons, by major occupation group,
color and sex, April 1940 and April 1959

Major occupation group and sex	White		Nonwhite	
	1940	1959	1940	1959
Total employed men - - - - -	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and kindred workers - -	5.9	11.0	1.9	3.4
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm-	10.6	14.4	1.6	2.2
Clerical and kindred workers - - - - -	7.1	7.0	1.2	4.8
Sales workers - - - - -	6.7	6.7	0.9	1.2
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers - - - -	15.5	19.8	4.4	8.6
Operatives and kindred workers - - - - -	18.8	18.8	12.2	22.3
Private household workers - - - - -	0.2	0.1	2.9	0.5
Service workers, except private household - - -	5.8	5.4	12.4	13.9
Farmers and farm managers - - - - -	14.0	6.9	21.3	6.1
Farm laborers and foremen - - - - -	6.8	3.2	19.9	10.0
Laborers, except farm and mine - - - - -	7.5	6.6	20.5	27.1
Occupation not reported - - - - -	1.0	-	0.7	-
Total employed women - - - - -	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and kindred workers - -	14.3	13.5	4.3	5.9
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm-	4.3	5.5	0.8	1.5
Clerical and kindred workers - - - - -	24.6	31.8	1.0	7.5
Sales workers - - - - -	8.0	8.3	0.6	0.9
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers - - - -	1.2	1.1	0.2	0.4
Operatives and kindred workers - - - - -	20.2	15.2	6.6	14.0
Private household workers - - - - -	10.8	6.4	58.0	39.5
Service workers, except private household - - -	11.3	13.6	10.5	22.6
Farmers and farm managers - - - - -	1.2	0.6	3.2	0.5
Farm laborers and foremen - - - - -	1.2	3.3	12.8	6.3
Laborers, except farm and mine - - - - -	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.8
Occupation not reported - - - - -	2.0	-	1.1	-

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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Nonwhite employment as a percent of total employment
in each major occupation group, by sex,
April 1940 and April 1959

Major occupation group	Nonwhite men		Nonwhite women	
	: as percent		: as percent	
	: of all men		: of all women	
	1940	1959	1940	1959
Total employed - - - - -	9.0	9.2	13.9	12.3
Professional, technical, and kindred workers - -	3.1	3.0	4.6	5.8
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm-	1.5	1.5	2.8	3.7
Clerical and kindred workers - - - - -	1.6	6.5	0.7	3.2
Sales workers - - - - -	1.4	1.8	1.1	1.5
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers - - -	2.7	4.2	2.3	4.6
Operatives and kindred workers - - - - -	6.1	10.7	5.0	11.4
Private household workers - - - - -	61.8	37.7	46.5	46.2
Service workers, except private household - - -	17.4	20.6	13.1	18.9
Farmers and farm managers - - - - -	13.1	8.2	30.2	10.5
Farm laborers and foremen - - - - -	22.5	24.0	62.9	20.8
Laborers, except farm and mine - - - - -	21.2	29.5	14.4	17.1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
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Source: U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Nonwhites in Government Employment

The total number of nonwhite persons working in Federal, State and local government ^{1/} rose from 214,000 in 1940 to 845,000 in 1959. This almost four-fold increase compares with an increase of 43 percent in total nonwhite employment during the same period. The proportion that nonwhites were of all government employees rose from 5.6 percent to 10.8 percent.

The rapid increase in government job opportunities may be in part a result of a vigorous non-discrimination policy applied to government jobs during the war and postwar periods.

<u>Employment in government</u>			
	<u>1940</u>	<u>1956</u>	<u>April</u> <u>1959</u>
Total - - - - -	3,845,000	6,919,000	7,799,000
Nonwhite - - - - -	214,000	670,000	845,000
Percent of total	5.6	9.7	10.8

U.S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

The Bureau of the Census does not publish employment in Federal government separately, nor do Federal agencies maintain employment statistics by color.

^{1/} These figures include all government service, including teaching and blue-collar work done directly by government agencies.

Wage and Salary Income

The difference between median annual earnings of white and Negro persons is large, but the gap is narrower than before World War II. Between 1939 and 1957, the income of Negro wage and salary workers increased relatively more than for whites. In 1957, the average income for Negro male workers was 55 percent of the average for white males compared with 41 percent in 1939. For Negro female workers, their wage and salary income was almost 46 percent of the white females in 1957, compared with 36 percent in 1939.

The difference between average income of Negro and white families is not quite as wide as it is for individuals, because a higher proportion of Negro family members are in the labor force. Moreover, the income difference between Negro and white families is even smaller for urban than for rural groups.

Median wage and salary income of white and nonwhite persons,
1939-57

(Persons without wage or salary income excluded)

Year	White		Nonwhite		Nonwhite as a	
					percent of	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1939-44	\$1,112	\$ 676	\$ 460	\$ 246	41.4	36.4
1947-50	2,357	1,269	1,279	432	54.3	34.0
1951-57	4,396	2,240	2,436	1,019	55.4	45.5

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Labor Statistics

Source: U.S. Department of
Commerce, Bureau of
the Census

Work-Life Expectancy

As a result of a dramatic reduction in mortality in the middle age range, life expectancy for 20-year-old nonwhite males in the United States increased from 39.8 in 1940 to 45.5 in 1955--an increase of nearly 6 years. During the same period, work-life expectancy has increased from 36.2 years to 40 years--an increase of almost 4 years.

With these developments, the number of years spent in retirement (the difference between life expectancy and work-life expectancy) has increased from 3.6 to 5.5 years. There are two main reasons for this development:

A much larger proportion of nonwhites lived beyond retirement age in 1955 than in 1940.

Increased liberalization of social security provisions and the continuation of the off-farm movement results in earlier retirement.

In this period, increases in both life expectancy and work-life expectancy have been greater for nonwhites than for whites. Life expectancy for 20-year-old nonwhite men has increased 5.7 years compared with 2.4 years for white men. Similarly, work-life expectancy has increased 3.8 years for nonwhite men and 1.6 years for white men. Largely because a greater proportion of nonwhite men now live beyond retirement age, the retirement life-expectancy for nonwhites has also increased more rapidly than for white men--1.9 years compared with 0.8 years.

Average number of remaining years of life,
in labor force and in retirement, males,
by color, 1940 and 1955

Age and color	1940			1955		
	Total	In labor force	In retire- ment	Total	In labor force	In retire- ment
At age 20:						
Nonwhite - - -	39.8	36.2	3.6	45.5	40.0	5.5
White - - - -	47.7	41.8	5.9	50.1	43.4	6.7
At age 40:						
Nonwhite - - -	25.4	21.3	4.1	28.6	22.8	5.8
White - - - -	30.1	24.0	6.1	31.7	24.8	6.9
At age 60:						
Nonwhite - - -	14.6	9.5	5.1	15.4	9.6	5.8
White - - - -	15.1	9.1	6.0	16.0	9.5	6.5

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Labor Statistics

Source: National Office of Vital Statistics,
and Bureau of Labor Statistics

Federal Government Action Against Discrimination in Employment

At the present time there are two committees, appointed by the President, to implement two executive orders, one dealing with government contracts and one with government employment.

President's Committee on Government Contracts

An Executive Order created, as of August 15, 1953, a Committee of 15 members to promote the government's program of securing equal economic opportunity for all qualified persons working or seeking work on government contracts. The Committee assists the government's contracting agencies to discharge their responsibilities on nondiscrimination, cooperates with public and private agencies, and encourages educational efforts concerning the necessity and desirability of this policy. It consists of high ranking government officials, business and labor union leaders appointed on a nonpartisan basis. The Chairman is Vice President Richard M. Nixon. The Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell is Vice Chairman of the Committee.

It has long been mandatory that government contracts contain a clause obligating the contractor or subcontractor not to discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, creed, color, or national origin. (Such a provision was written into the war contracts negotiated or renegotiated after May 27, 1943, the date of Executive Order 9346. During World War II, the Fair Employment Practice Committee, set up June 25, 1941, was responsible for investigating and adjusting complaints, in cooperation with the contracting agencies of the government.)

Under the current Executive Order, complaints may be received by the President's Committee, but are referred for investigation and adjustment to the contracting government agency. These agencies are required to report actions on all complaints (including those received directly and from the Committee) to the Committee which reviews and analyzes them. The Committee has developed a manual for the guidance of government contracting officers in the elimination of racial and religious discrimination in employment. The Committee has published the nondiscrimination directives of 15 government contracting agencies.

A program of compliance reviews by the agencies is being developed. A compliance review checks on whether the government contractor has done the following:

- (1) Posted a notice in his plant, which says: "This employer agrees not to discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, color, religion, or national origin." This card carries the Washington address of the President's Committee, to which inquiries or complaints can be sent.

- (2) Included a nondiscrimination clause in his subcontracts.
- (3) Observed nondiscrimination in regard to:
 - (a) recruitment and employment
 - (b) upgrading
 - (c) lay-offs, terminations, transfers
 - (d) establishing rates of pay
 - (e) selection for training, including apprenticeship.

The compliance review officer observes the employment pattern of the contractor, to see if he seems to have a fair proportion of minority groups on his payroll; and makes suggestions to the contractor to assist him in carrying out his obligations.

Since 1956-57, the President's Committee and the government contracting agencies have been reviewing the employment and promotion practices of 500-600 installations belonging to the 150 largest government contractors in 25 metropolitan areas. At least 50,000 Negroes live in each of these areas.

Where a contractor has given clear and convincing evidence of failure to comply with the nondiscrimination clause in previous contracts, the 26 principal Federal contracting agencies were asked on May 10, 1957, by the Committee, to deny further contracts.

Among the education efforts of the President's Committee have been:

- (1) The holding of a Conference on Equal Job Opportunity, October 1955, to exchange ideas on successful methods of promoting equal opportunity regardless of race, color, religion, or national origin;
- (2) The holding of a Youth-Training-Incentives Conference, in February 1957, attended by 200 leaders in business, labor, and education, with follow-up campaigns in 10 cities. Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell, told the group that there have not been enough job opportunities for Negroes "and consequently not enough of them prepare themselves for skilled work . . . Thus, when better jobs do become available to Negroes, not enough of them are qualified. It is a vicious circle."
- (3) The holding of a Minority Community Resources Conference, January 1958, attended by 500 leaders of business, civic, fraternal, professional, and social organizations representing minority groups from 38 States and the District of Columbia. This Conference stressed the future manpower needs of our economy and the responsibility of minority youth to become qualified through education and training for present and future job opportunities.

It was pointed out, at the Equal Job Opportunity Conference that 85 or 90 percent of American industry has some business with or for the Federal Government; the Government Contracts Order, prohibiting discrimination against any employee, because of race, religion, or national origin, therefore, affects some 50 million jobs.

The number of complaints received by the President's Committee on Government Contracts from August 1953 to June 30, 1958, was 644; 493 cases were disposed of and 151 were still pending (i.e., being investigated or adjusted). Several of those complaints involved several thousand jobs, and one affected almost an entire industry. The change in practice in this industry, brought about through Committee action, will open thousands of jobs which had been closed to minority groups.

President's Committee on Government Employment Policy

The Committee was established by Presidential Executive Order on January 18, 1955, to assist all Federal departments and agencies in implementing the policy of equal opportunity without discrimination in the Federal service.

The Committee has undertaken both a long range educational program and a program for the investigation, adjustment, and review of complaints. The Committee serves as a Board of Review for cases not settled in the departments to the satisfaction of complainants. Its opinions are advisory.

The Federal government is by its very nature vast and complex, and the Committee has been conscious of the fact that a complete understanding of the Executive Order may not always be had in the field establishments without an opportunity for personal discussion. With this in mind, the Committee began in November 1955 to conduct conferences outside of Washington with the administrative heads and the Deputy Employment Policy Officers of Federal establishments in major cities.

Most of the complaints have concerned separations or promotions. The questions of application for employment and hiring were dealt with as far back as 1940 by the Ramspeck Act barring racial discrimination in Civil Service, and by an Executive Order of November 7, 1940.

The President's Committee on Government Employment Policy conducted a survey as of March 31, 1956, of employment of Negroes in the Federal Government in five major cities: Washington, Chicago, Los Angeles, St. Louis, and Mobile. These cities were selected for their geographical location, their high percentage of Federal employment, and for the fact that they had large populations of Negroes. This fact means that the percentage is not representative of all Federal employment.

Total Federal employment in these five cities was 349,856 as of March 31, 1956, or approximately 17 percent of all Federal employment. Negroes comprised 23.4 percent of this total.

A report by the Committee on the number of Negroes serving in clerical, stenographic, and typing positions in Federal agencies in the New Orleans area shows that the number had increased from 17 in 1951 to 115 in March 1959. During this same period, total Federal employment in the New Orleans area declined by nearly 2,000.

In commenting on the results of the survey, Committee Chairman Archibald J. Carey, Jr., stated that, "We believe there is significance in the increase. The total number of Negroes now employed in clerical, stenographic, and typing positions in New Orleans is not large, and it is also true that in some of the smaller agencies no Negroes at all are employed in these categories. Nevertheless, the survey indicates that with reference to these particular positions qualified Negro-Americans are finding increased opportunities for white-collar office employment in the Federal agencies in this southern city."

The Third Report of the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy, which covers the period from January 18, 1958, through June 30, 1959, states that "the facilities of the Committee are constantly engaged in assisting the agencies to provide corrective or preventive measures...The charge of discrimination against some groups is made frequently;...85 percent of the cases referred arise in one minority group [Negroes]. On the other hand...the charges the Committee has heard fall into 12 different categories of race, color, religion, or national origin. In most cases the specific charges were not proved, but in many cases remedial action was deemed necessary..."

"Federal employment at the lowest levels appears to be available to all groups, but as the scale rises a disparity develops between the total number of minorities employed and the number of minority-group members in the higher positions. This does not prove discrimination, but it poses the question. Federal employment is more available to minorities than private employment. But Federal employment, like private employment, may reflect the pattern and climate of the local community. Nevertheless, the agencies have displayed genuine concern in the elimination of discrimination when it appears."

The Report concludes with the statement that "there is discrimination in Federal employment...However, the Committee has gained considerable experience in the difficult task of isolating the elusive factors which constitute actual discrimination and is improving techniques for its eradication."

"To effect full compliance with the policy some major problems must yet be solved:

- One is to identify discrimination wherever it occurs.
- Another is to remove improper conditions and practices which foster the possibility of discrimination.
- A third is to determine whether those situations in which minority group members are absent--conspicuously--are due to a lack of qualified applicants or to the practice of discrimination."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

The U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Employment Security operates a Minority Groups Program through its United States Employment Service and affiliated State and territorial employment service. Its purpose is to promote the employment of workers belonging to various minority groups on the basis of their skills, abilities, and performance on the job. A Minority Groups Consultant plans and directs this program.

The purpose of the Minority Groups Program is accomplished through the development of policies and training employment service staff to deal with employment problems faced by members of minority groups, cooperation with high schools and colleges regarding vocational guidance, cooperation with Government agencies (President's Committee on Government Contracts and the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy), and cooperation with religious, racial, and nationality minority group organizations with similar goals.

The Minority Groups Consultant also serves in an advisory capacity to other Bureaus in the Department of Labor bringing to their attention problems and information concerning the employment of minority groups, and consulting with them regarding policies and programs affecting such employment, and otherwise assisting in the promotion of equitable employment opportunities for minority groups.

To insure equitable service for members of minority groups, the following policy of the United States Employment Service, Bureau of Employment Security, has been issued:

- A. To promote employment opportunity for all applicants on the basis of their skills, abilities, and job qualifications.
- B. To make definite and continuous effort with employers with whom relationships are established, to the end that their hiring specifications be based exclusively on job performance factors.
- C. To assist the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy in effectuating Executive Order 10590 by not accepting discriminatory job orders from Federal establishments.
- D. To cooperate with procurement agencies and other appropriate agencies of the Government in their efforts to secure compliance with nondiscrimination clauses in Government contracts.

**Deletion of Race Information and Reference to
Photographs from Application Forms in
Government Employment**

Civil Service Commission Circular No. 248, issued January 10, 1941, announced that the Civil Service Commission had deleted the question regarding race and reference to photographs from the Declaration of Appointee forms which were used in part for the purpose of establishing the identification of persons taking civil service examinations.

Prior to April 20, 1942, there was no standard universal application form prescribed for the Federal service. On that date, by its Circular No. 332, the Civil Service Commission prescribed the use of Standard Form 57. This form contained no race question and no reference to the use of photographs.

November 10, 1943, the Commission referred back to its earlier deletion of race questions and references to photographs and directed the agencies not to send photographs to the Commission in connection with any of the Commission's forms and urged all departments and agencies to discontinue the use of photographs in connection with any of their own forms (Civil Service Commission Circular No. 449).

The present rules of the Civil Service Commission (Civil Service Rule IV) prohibit the making of any inquiry concerning race, political affiliation, or religious beliefs of any employee or applicant.

Source: U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Office of Personnel Administration

TVA's Nondiscrimination Policy

Personnel actions in TVA are made on the basis of merit and efficiency as provided in the TVA Act. Thus TVA does not discriminate against employees because of race, religion, or national origin.

In compliance with Executive Order 10590 of January 18, 1955, (which stated a nondiscrimination policy for the Federal government and established the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy), the TVA Board, on March 7, 1955, appointed J.H. Daves, Special Assistant to the General Manager, to be TVA's Employment Policy Officer. He appraises personnel operations of TVA at regular intervals to assure their conformity with the Executive Order.

TVA employees may appeal under Executive Order 10590 or in the same manner as for other types of grievances, if they feel they are being discriminated against in personnel action because of race, color, religion, or national origin. Thus, employees may appeal in accordance with the general agreement negotiated between TVA and the Tennessee Valley Trades and Labor Council, if they are trades and labor employees. Salary policy employees may appeal in accordance with the Articles of Agreement negotiated between TVA and the Salary Policy Employee Panel. Both Agreements prohibit discrimination because of race, color, religion, or national origin.

Recently, TVA began a series of conferences with personnel officers, division chiefs, and supervisory personnel to review progress or the lack of progress being made by the various divisions and branches in carrying out TVA's policy of nondiscrimination in the placement, training, and upgrading of Negro employees.

During the past few years, the TVA has eliminated all segregated facilities at all projects for employees and the general public such as washrooms, picnic areas, cafeterias, etc. This was done without any serious opposition on the part of the employees or the public.

Integration in the Armed Forces

Fall of 1940

A conference between three Negro leaders and the President on Negro policy of the U.S. Armed Forces resulted in a White House statement that:

- (1) Henceforth, Negroes would be used in all branches of the Army
- (2) Negroes would be used to the extent of their 10 percent population ratio
- (3) Negroes would have the same quality of training and facilities as others
- (4) Negroes would not be "intermingled" with white service men.

During World War II Negroes and whites attended the same officer candidate schools. There were some indications that the segregation policy might be discarded.

June 1942

Marines for the first time accepted Negroes.

November 1945

The Gillem Board report, "The Utilization of Negro Manpower in the Postwar Army," led to the announcement of a policy in 1946 regarding the Negro soldier, which

- (1) Assured the Negro of a continuing place in the Army
- (2) Established a numerical ratio based on that in the civilian population
- (3) Abolished the "all-Negro" division
- (4) Authorized the grouping of Negro units and white units of smaller size into composite organizations
- (5) For the first time took the position that in the event of another major war all personnel assignments should be made without regard to race.

July 26, 1948

Executive Order 9981 announced a national policy for the Armed Forces of "equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin."

It created the Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services. The Committee's 1950 report provided the philosophy and the working basis for a program of racial integration, with no restrictions as to racial quotas, which has advanced "with significant success" in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps.

March 1, 1954

Navy announced that separate recruitment of stewards was being abolished. (Stewards had long been the traditional Negro branch.)

June 30, 1954

The time limit set for the dissolution of all-Negro units in the Forces was June 30, 1954. But the program proceeded ahead of schedule. Racially segregated Army units were abolished in the Far East during the summer of 1951; in Europe a year later, with a transition period for the change over; in the United States most training locations were integrated by the summer of 1953.

There are no longer any all-Negro units in any of the services proper. Integrated activities include organization, assignment, training, billeting, mess, supervised recreation, and all other unit operations. There are some exceptions in civilian components, principally a number of school and college Reserve Officers' Training Corps units. Arkansas, Georgia, and Mississippi are the only States where there is no channel through which the qualified Negro college student can enroll in ROTC courses. Moreover, there is no legislation by which the Army, Navy, or Air Force may be directed to provide an ROTC program so as to assure equity.

Negro personnel as percentage of total personnel in the military services, 1949-56

	July 1, 1949	July 1, 1954	July 1, 1956
	(Percent)		
Army officers - - - - -	1.8	2.97	2.9
Army enlisted men - - - - -	12.4	13.7	12.8
Navy officers - - - - -	---	.1	.1
Navy enlisted men - - - - -	4.7	3.6	6.3
Air Force officers - - - - -	.6	1.1	1.1
Air Force enlisted men - - - - -	5.1	8.6	10.4
Marine Corps officers - - - - -	---	.1	.1
Marine Corps enlisted men - - - - -	2.1	6.5	6.5

A recent sampling of officers in the Armed Forces indicates that Negro officers are found in all ranks up to Brigadier General (two Negroes have attained this status).

Schools for Dependents

Without any formal directive, in a number of States several schools for dependents, located on Government property, had been operating for some time, without incident, on a racially integrated basis. As the question of integration in public schools received widespread attention, it was determined as a matter of policy that with the beginning of the 1953 fall term all such schools operated by the military on military posts and stations would be organized and conducted on an integrated basis. This policy was carried out on schedule.

Policy concerning schools located on military installations but operated by local educational agencies was announced on January 12, 1954, when the Secretary of Defense directed "that the operation of all school facilities located on military installations shall be conducted without segregation on the basis of race or color," regardless of other considerations. He stipulated that this policy would be put into effect "as soon as practicable, and under no circumstances later than September 1, 1955." At the present time all such schools are fully integrated.

State Action

1947-49, California, Connecticut, Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin prohibited discrimination in the National Guard.

November 1955, Maryland desegregated the National Guard. This is the first State south of the Mason-Dixon line to take this step.

Recent Developments

The Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower and Personnel stated in May 1959 that integration in the Armed Services has progressed so far that no statistics are available on the proportion of Negro personnel in the military services. They are found throughout the services.

Source: Office of Assistant Secretary of Defense
(Manpower and Personnel)

State Fair Employment Legislation

Legislation directed towards the eradication of many types of discrimination in employment exists in 18 States. The principal reach of the statutes is discrimination based on race, color, religious creed, ancestry, age, or national origin. In 1950, these 18 States contained 56 percent of the total labor force of the continental United States, 30 percent of the nonwhite labor force, 62 percent of the total urban labor force, and 39 percent of the nonwhite urban labor (according to the Bureau of the Census).

In 16 of the 18 States, fair employment laws are enforceable by an administrative agency using conciliation, backed by the power to issue administrative orders enforceable in the courts (Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Washington, Wisconsin). Two of the 18 States have laws condemning discrimination but without enforcement provisions (Indiana, Kansas).

In addition to these States, at least five States have voluntary citizen's committees, or agencies set up by the Governors, which are tackling the same problems using investigation, conciliation and persuasion, and publicity.

A number of counties and cities have commissions set up by ordinance, or by the mayor, or by citizen groups, which work with the State agencies or with voluntary national agencies, or with the President's Committee on Government Contracts.

The first State anti-discrimination laws were passed in the early 1930's. New York legislated against inquiries into religious affiliation of teachers (1932) and discrimination by public utilities in employment on account of race, color, or religion (1933). Other States followed in 1935, 1937, 1939. But particularly during World War II, after the Fair Employment Practice Committee was set up by the Presidential Executive Order in June 1941, the State Governors and legislatures increased their activity in this field. Quite a few laws were enacted at the close of the war, applying to general private employment in 1945-47, and nine State agencies were set up by executive order, law, or voluntary action, 1953-55.

While the State agencies use chiefly such methods as education, publicity, conciliation, and research, some have issued cease-and-desist orders against employment agencies which discriminated in job placements, or have ordered corporations to cease segregation in company-owned housing, washrooms, and payroll lines, and to cease discriminatory hiring practices.

In investigating complaints, the total absence from the payroll of Negroes, or other minority groups, while not deemed conclusive, is held to be strong evidence of discriminatory practices (New York State).

Between 1948 and 1956, 37 cities adopted ordinances barring discrimination in public (and some of them in private) employment. In 1959, 42 cities had fair employment practices ordinances or city councils.

In many cases, State and city agencies are concerned with discrimination outside the field of employment, also.

Four States have laws broadly prohibiting discrimination in education enforced by administrative agencies (Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Washington), while a number of others have more limited legislation in that area.

Twenty-four States have prohibited discrimination in places of public accommodation (Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Washington, and Wisconsin). Eight of these have provided for administrative enforcement (Colorado, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Rhode Island, Washington).

Four States have prohibited discrimination in a substantial portion of the general housing market (Colorado, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Oregon). Three others have prohibited discrimination in virtually all public and publicly assisted housing (New Jersey, New York, Washington), and a number of States have more limited statutes in this area. New York City and Pittsburgh, Pa., also prohibit discrimination in the sale or rental of multiple dwellings and projects of over a specified number of homes.

(The above information includes actions of State legislatures meeting in the first 7 months of 1959, and was compiled by the Commission on Law and Social Action of the American Jewish Congress, New York.)

Civil Rights Act of 1957

The Civil Rights Act was enacted by the Senate and the House of Representatives in order to provide means of further securing and protecting the civil rights of persons within the jurisdiction of the United States

Part I - Establishes the Commission on Civil Rights

The law establishes a Commission on Civil Rights composed of six members appointed by the President with Senate approval.

The duties of the Commission are to:

"(1) Investigate allegations in writing under oath or affirmation that certain citizens of the United States are being deprived of their right to vote and have that vote counted by reason of their color, race, religion, or national origin; which writing, under oath or affirmation, shall set forth the facts upon which such belief or beliefs are based;

"(2) Study and collect information concerning legal developments constituting a denial of equal protection of the laws under the Constitution; and

"(3) Appraise the laws and policies of the Federal Government with respect to equal protection of the laws under the Constitution."

The Commission also will have a staff headed by a full-time Staff Director, appointed by the President with the advice of the Commission and the consent of the Senate.

The Commission may submit interim reports to the President and to the Congress at such times as either the Commission or the President shall deem desirable and shall submit to the President and to the Congress a final and comprehensive report of its activities, findings, and recommendations not later than 2 years after the enactment of the Act (Sept. 9, 1959).

Sixty days after the submission of its final report and recommendations, the Commission shall cease to exist.

The Commission is empowered to appoint advisory committees within States composed of citizens of that State and may consult with governors, attorneys general, and other representatives of State and local governments, and private organizations, as it deems advisable.

All Federal agencies shall cooperate fully with the Commission to the end that it may effectively carry out its functions and duties.

Part II - Provides For An Additional Assistant Attorney General

There shall be in the Department of Justice one Assistant Attorney General, who shall be appointed by the President with Senate approval, who shall assist the Attorney General in the performance of his duties.

Part III - Strengthens the Civil Rights Statutes

Part III strengthens existing Civil Rights Statutes and Repealed Section 1989 of the Revised Statute (42 USC 1993) which provided that the President could use Federal troops to enforce specific civil rights statutes.

Part IV - Right to Vote Secured and Protected

This section amends an existing Federal statute which declares that all citizens have the right to vote in State and local elections without discrimination because of race. The amendments leave this section unchanged and add four new subsections.

The first of these prohibits any person acting under color of law or otherwise, from intimidating, threatening, or coercing any other person for the purpose of interfering with the right of such other person to vote, or to vote as he may choose, for any candidate for office in a Federal election. General, specific, or primary elections held for the purpose of electing candidates for Federal office are also included in this provision.

The second subsection specified that whenever any person has engaged or there are reasonable grounds to believe that any person is about to engage in any act or practice which would deprive any other person from the right to vote, the Attorney General of the United States may institute proceedings under the proper laws that prohibit interference with the right to vote.

The next subsection provides that Federal courts shall have jurisdiction of proceedings instituted under the new law. This simplifies procedure and eliminates the need for an individual to exhaust "any administrative or other measures that may be provided by law" regarding his right to vote, such as possibly having to appeal to election officials, election boards, State officials, etc.

The fourth subsection provides that any person cited for contempt under the new Act has the right to be defended by counsel, and also has the right to have witnesses, and to "compel his witnesses to appear at his trial or hearing, as is usually granted to compel witnesses to appear on behalf of the prosecution."

Part V - Provides Trial By Jury and Amends the Judicial Code Relating
to Federal Jury Qualifications

Persons found guilty of criminal contempt arising under the provisions of the new Act shall be punished by fine or imprisonment or both, the fine not to exceed \$1,000 and the imprisonment not to exceed six months.

In any criminal contempt proceedings the judge may try the accused with or without a jury. If, however, the sentence of the court upon conviction is a fine in excess of \$300 or imprisonment is in excess of forty-five days, the accused may demand a new trial by jury.

This section also amends Section 1861 title 28 US Code, a Federal statute regarding qualifications of jurors in Federal courts.

The old statute made it possible for some States to exclude Negroes from Federal jury service, as some State laws require as a qualification that such jurors be registered voters. The new amendment makes it possible for Negroes to serve on Federal juries.

PUBLIC LAW 85-315
85th Congress, H. R. 6127
September 9, 1957

Discrimination and Trade Unions

No part of the Department of Labor has ever made, as far as we know, any study of discrimination by trade unions on any grounds whatsoever. However, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in its analyses of clauses found in collective bargaining agreements and in its histories of labor-management relations, has inevitably come across some evidence, both positive and negative, on the character of the stand taken by labor unions on various discrimination issues. The following paragraphs present some comments on the available material on the subject. (Dates represent termination or renewal dates.)

The company shall not discriminate against or coerce the employees covered by this agreement because of affiliated membership in or activity in behalf of the council, nor encourage membership in any union not affiliated with the council, nor shall it attempt to discourage any local unions from affiliated membership in the council. It is the policy of the company, the council, and each of its affiliated local unions not to discriminate against any employee on account of race, color, creed, sex, or national origin.

The council agrees that neither its officers nor its affiliated membership will intimidate or coerce employees.

General Electric Company
Richland, Washington
Hanford Metal Trades Council
October 1, 1960

The Union will impose no burdensome restrictions upon the admission of employees to membership therein. There shall be no discrimination on the part either of the Company or of the Union with respect to race, color, sex, national origin, or creed of any employees or any applicant for employment. The question of whether any applicant has been discriminated against shall be determined in accordance with law and not through the grievance procedure.

The National Sugar Refining Company
Long Island City, New York
United Packing House Workers of America
(AFL-CIO), Local 580, Sugar Division
December 31, 1960

Neither the Company nor the Union will discriminate against any employee because of race, creed, color, or national origin, nor because of membership or non-membership in any church, society, fraternity, or union.

Esso Standard Oil Company
Bayway Refinery
Linden, New Jersey
Independent Petroleum Workers Union of Bayway
March 17, 1960

There shall be no discrimination in any manner against any employee on account of race, creed, color, national origin, or Union affiliation.

Monsanto Chemical Company
(Plastics Division)
Springfield, Massachusetts
Monsanto Industrial Union
Local 288, I.U.E., AFL-CIO
July 18, 1960

Under this Agreement the Company and the Union agree not to discriminate against any employee because of race, creed, color or membership in the Union.

Riegel Paper Corporation
(New Jersey Division)
Milford, New Jersey
United Papermakers and Paperworkers, AFL-CIO
and its Affiliated Local No. 712
October 4, 1959

There shall be no discrimination against any employee because of race, creed, color, sex, or political affiliations by either the Company or the Union. There shall be no discrimination against any employee by the Company because of membership in the Union or because of active participation as an officer or representative of the Union in any capacity.

Hussmann Refrigerator Company
St. Louis, Missouri
The American Federation of Labor and
Affiliated A.F.ofL.-C.I.O. Organizations
April 30, 1961

The provisions of this Agreement shall apply to all employees covered by this Agreement without discrimination on account of race, color, national origin, marital status, sex, or creed.

Ex-Cell-O Corporation
 Detroit, Michigan
 International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft
 and Agricultural Implement Workers of America,
 and Local 49 of the International Union (AFL-CIO)
 March 31, 1962

Under this agreement no employee will be discriminated against because of race, creed, or color.

United States Rubber Company
 (Company-wide agreement)
 New York, New York
 United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and
 Plastic Workers of America
 June 1, 1961

The Corporation agrees that neither it nor any of its officers, foremen, or supervisors will differentiate amongst, discriminate against, interfere with, restrain or coerce employees or applicants for employment, because of membership in the Union or participation in the Union's affairs, or because of sex, race, creed, color, or national origin; nor shall the Corporation discriminate against any employee or group of employees for presenting, in accordance with the provisions of this Agreement, any complaint, dispute, or grievance.

The Union agrees that neither it nor any of its officers or members will coerce, intimidate, or discriminate against any employee who is promoted to a higher classification in any craft in any department under the terms of this Agreement.

New York Shipbuilding Corporation
 Camden, New Jersey
 International Brotherhood of Boilermakers, Iron
 Ship Builders, Blacksmiths, Forgers, and Helpers
 Lodge 801, AFL-CIO
 June 24, 1960

1. Neither the company nor any of its foremen, superintendents, or other agents or representatives, shall discriminate against any employees because such employee is a member, steward, officer, or other agent or representative of the union or of any local.

2. Neither the union nor any local, nor any steward, officer or other agent or representative of either, shall intimidate or coerce any employee, nor solicit members or funds in the plant during working hours.

3. The policy of the company, the union and its IUE locals is not to discriminate against any employee on account of race, color, sex, creed, marital status, or national origin.

General Electric Company
(Interstate)

International Union of Electrical Workers
October 1, 1960

Comments on Discrimination and Trade Unions

A 1955 National Industrial Conference Board study showed that of 194 unions with 17.5 million members, the constitutions of only 5 unions with 442,000 members prohibit the admission of Negroes and other racial minorities.^{1/} On the other hand, 39 union constitutions, covering 4.3 million members, have specific provisions which declare, in some manner, that all persons qualified for membership are to be admitted regardless of their race, creed, color, or nationality. The constitution of the AFL-CIO lists among its objectives and principles: "To encourage all workers without regard to race, creed, color, national origin or ancestry to share equally in the full benefits of union organization." In addition, the AFL-CIO constitution established a Committee on Civil Rights, whose duty and responsibility consist of assisting the Executive Council "to bring about at the earliest possible date the effective implementation of the principle stated in this constitution of non-discrimination in accordance with the provisions of this constitution."

The position taken by the parent federation has not gone unheeded by its affiliates. Listed below are published reports which have come to our attention:

1. In 1956, the Switchmen's Union of North America accepted Negro switchmen on a basis of complete equality with white switchmen. This marks the first time that one of the major railroad unions has accepted Negro workers into membership voluntarily.
2. The Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers International Union has recently negotiated a number of agreements in the southern oil refinery industry which provide for the upgrading of Negro workers into skilled trades departments. Previously, Negro workers were restricted to unskilled and common labor jobs.
3. In 1957, the National Agricultural Workers Union adopted a constitutional amendment barring members of White Citizens Councils from its ranks. The American Federation of Teachers voted to suspend the charter of any local union which as of June 1956 continued to bar Negroes from membership.

It should be pointed out, however, that even before the AFL-CIO merger organized labor took a number of positive steps in this area. For instance:

4. The United Automobile Workers (AFL-CIO) Fair Practices and Anti-Discrimination Department--Article 25, Section 5 of this union's

^{1/} Handbook of Union Government Structure and Procedures, Studies in Personnel Policy No. 150, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1955, p. 63.

constitution provides: "It shall be mandatory that each local union set up a Fair Practices and Anti-Discrimination Committee." A similar committee in the United Packinghouse Workers (AFL-CIO) has made notable gains in stamping out discrimination both within the industry and within its own locals. Among other ^{and} things, this has led to the elimination of separate drinking fountains /toilet and dining facilities in plants in the deep South. Also, Article IV, Section A of the constitution of the International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers (AFL-CIO) provides: "All persons whose normal occupations is in the electrical, radio and machine industry . . . are eligible for membership in the International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers, regardless of skill, age, sex, nationality, color, or religious beliefs." The Preamble to the International Jewelry Workers' Union (AFL-CIO) constitution contains the statement: ". . . we shall endeavor to bring about an organization based on the economic needs of its membership . . . regardless of their color, race, nationality, creed or political affiliations." Article II of the constitution of the United Mine Workers (Ind.) lists as a union objection: "To unite in one organization, regardless of creed, color, or nationality, all workers eligible for membership. . ."

5. The existence, prior to the merger, of a CIO Civil Rights Committee--formerly the National CIO Committee to Abolish Discrimination--a service organization for CIO affiliates on matters of discrimination. It is responsible for the formation of local anti-discrimination committees, educational projects, and cooperation with other community groups. This committee receives and investigates complaints of alleged discrimination and seeks compliance of affiliates with mandates and resolutions adopted by the CIO.

6. The solid support of both the former CIO and AFL was instrumental in getting fair employment practices legislation on the statute books of 11 States and 25 municipalities by mid-1952. (State and Municipal Fair Employment Legislation, Staff Report of the Subcommittee on Labor and Labor-Management Relations, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U. S. Senate, 82d Congress, 2d Session, Washington, 1952.) Also worthy of note are the concerted efforts of these two organizations to attain passage of a national FEPC. (See Report of the Seventy-Third Convention of the AFL, 1954, p. 302 ff. and p. 552 ff., and proceedings of Sixteenth Constitutional Convention of the CIO, 1954, p. 250 ff. and p. 382 ff.)

7. A pamphlet issued by the President's Committee on Government Contracts, Equal Job Opportunity is Good Business (June 29, 1954), states that Negroes held top offices in 23 national unions. Also mentioned is an estimate made by the Southern Regional Council stating that of 1,750,000 trade unionists in the South, about 700,000 are Negroes. (See Monthly Labor Review, January 1954, p. 16, International Harvester's Nondiscrimination Policy, for a report on the efforts of an employer to eliminate discrimination.)

8. In a survey in 1958 for the Fund for the Republic of the constitutions of 70 international unions with a total membership of almost 16,000,000, Mr. Leo Bromwich, of the Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, found racial discrimination in only four constitutions in the sample: The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Engineers, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, Order of Railway Conductors, and the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen. He found that the practice of establishing segregated locals or auxiliary units is disappearing from the constitutions of American unions, in large part because of the difficulties that discriminating unions have faced in court.

However, he found one method of racial discrimination still standing in union constitutions. In nine of the unions in the sample, representing almost 2,000,000 workers, there were requirements for 'fraternal' approval of the applicant by the members of the local that he seeks to enter. He noted that this power "allows the whites in a union to reject minority-group applicants without engaging in formal, constitutional discrimination."

From: Union Constitutions, a Report to
The Fund for the Republic, by
Leo Bromwich, New York, 1959

Supreme Court Decision on Segregation

On May 17, 1954, the Supreme Court handed down a unanimous decision outlawing segregation in the public schools. Following this decision, moves toward desegregation were initiated in close to 1,000 school districts and units in Southern and border States. By April 1959, desegregation was under way in 802 school districts, affecting 439,000 Negro and roughly 2 million white children. About two-thirds of the 8,597 school districts in the Southern and border States have no racial problem since they are all-one-race districts. There are 2,909 biracial school districts where Negroes and whites reside. Progress by States: Arkansas - eight districts integrated, 220 still segregated; Delaware - 12 of 57 biracial districts desegregated (plus 5 all-white which have also desegregated); Kentucky - integration in 123 of the State's 175 biracial school districts; Maryland - 21 of the State's 24 school districts desegregated; Missouri - out of 244 biracial school districts, 211 are integrated. Missouri has 3,600 school districts, however, of which 3,356 are all-one-race districts. North Carolina - 4 of the State's 174 school districts integrated. Oklahoma - like Missouri, most of its school districts are all one race, but 238 of 271 biracial school districts have desegregated. Tennessee - only 3 of 141 biracial school districts desegregated. Texas - 125 of 722 biracial school districts have begun desegregation; 928 districts are all one race. West Virginia - desegregation has taken place in all of 43 school districts where there are Negro and white pupils; 4 other all-white districts have an announced desegregation policy. Virginia - integration has begun in 4 out of 129 school districts. Washington, D. C. - all public schools desegregated. Six States - Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina - have made no steps toward desegregating public schools. (Southern Education Reporting Service.)

More than 2,000 Negro students attend integrated college and professional classes in formerly all-white colleges and universities. A survey of private and tax-supported colleges and universities in the South shows that about 225 have opened their doors to Negro students. (National Labor Service, 165 East 56 Street, New York 22, New York, July 1959.)

In the Southern and border States there are approximately 12,630,344 white and Negro pupils, of whom 9,660,000 are white and 2,970,344 are Negro. Negroes represent 23.5 percent of the school population. The percentage of Negro pupils, by State are:

<u>Border States and D. C.</u>		<u>Middle and Deep South</u>	
Texas	13.4	Arkansas	24.6
Oklahoma	6.4	Mississippi	49.3
Missouri	10.0	Tennessee	17.4
Kentucky	6.6	North Carolina	27.0
West Virginia	5.4	South Carolina	43.0
Maryland	21.6	Virginia	24.6
Delaware	19.0	Louisiana	35.0
District of	74.1	Alabama	37.0
Columbia		Georgia	33.0
		Florida	21.8

At the end of the 1956 school year, 450 districts had desegregated; 270 were added in 1957, 60 in 1958, and 22 through April 1959. Present prospects are for only ^{two} additional districts to be added this fall: Dade County (Miami), Florida, has announced it will desegregate a grammar school; Charlottesville will become the fifth district in Virginia to desegregate.

More than 200 anti-desegregation laws have been adopted by Southern legislatures since 1954. Ten States: Arkansas, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas and Virginia have adopted school closing down laws in one form or another. Most of them also passed pupil assignment laws. Mississippi and South Carolina have abolished their compulsory attendance laws; six other States have modified them.

One major consequence of the segregation-desegregation issue has been a tremendous effort in the South toward more equalization of the Negro and white schools. A study of six Southern States shows expenditures for Negro education began to accelerate even before the 1954 decision. Expenditures per Negro school child in 1952 averaged 73 percent of expenditures for white pupils; by 1957 these six States had brought expenditures per Negro pupil to within 86 percent of white expenditures.

Source: "How Much Progress?" by Edward D. Bell, Executive Director of the Southern Education Reporting Service, in Saturday Review, May 23, 1959, pp. 18-19.

Expenditure for instruction ^{1/} per pupil in average daily attendance in public elementary and secondary schools, Continental United States and selected States, 1940 and 1954

State	1940		1954		Percent	
	White	Negro as : percent : of white	White	Negro : percent : of white	Negro as : percent : of white	increase : 1940-54
Continental United States ^{2/}	\$63.66		\$177.52			178.9
Alabama	\$33.98	42.4	\$111.99	\$105.20	93.9	229.6
Arkansas	24.43	55.6	99.08	71.78	72.4	305.6
Florida	50.00	56.1	175.92	160.61	91.3	251.8
Georgia	42.32	37.8	165.08	122.07	73.9	290.1
Mississippi	29.98	26.9	98.15	43.17	44.0	227.4
North Carolina	32.68	88.0	132.46	124.85	94.3	305.3
						334.1

^{1/} Total cost of instruction includes salaries, free text books, teaching supplies, school library books, and other instructional supplies and expenses.

^{2/} All public elementary and secondary schools combined.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education,
and Welfare, Office of Education

Negro Education (1940-58)

Although the Southern economy has made enormous progress, especially since the beginning of World War II, the region still has less resources to support education and other public services than has the rest of the Nation. Since a large proportion of the Negro population still lives in the South, this lower level of resources is a handicap in achieving advancements in education for the Negro.

One out of every 5 Negro men reaching adulthood (20-21) in the South in 1950 had not completed the fifth year of school, compared with 1 in 20 Negro men in the rest of the country. However, there had been a tremendous improvement in basic literacy among Negro men in the South in just one generation. Almost half of the Negro men in the South born between 1905 and 1909 (they were between 40 and 45 years old in 1950) had completed less than 5 years of school.

In the South in 1950 the proportion of Negro men aged 20-24 who were high school graduates was about one-third of the proportion among whites, whereas in the rest of the country the difference was much less.

Progress in literacy, school attendance, and expenditures per pupil has brought the national record for Negroes in elementary and secondary education closer to the average level for whites in recent years. This is a remarkable achievement in view of the high concentration of Negroes in the agricultural South.

In April 1940, for the country as a whole, the proportion of children between the ages of 7 to 14 enrolled in school was 95.5 percent of white children, and 91.2 percent of Negro children. In October 1958, the percentages had risen, for both groups, to 99.6 percent of white children and 98.8 percent of Negro children (see table). This means that future generations of high school and college age will not show the discrepancies which have characterized whites and nonwhites in the past.

Between 1940 and 1958, the enrollment of Negroes aged 14-17 in school made even greater progress than for the younger children, and the gap between the proportions of whites and Negroes enrolled, narrowed. However, not all students aged 14 to 17 were enrolled in high school (as one might expect of these age groups); 80 percent of the whites, but only 64 percent of the Negro students aged 14-17 were in high school, in 1958. In 1940, however, only 28 percent of the Negroes in these ages were in high school, and only 61 percent of the whites.

The table showing the median years of school completed by persons 25 to 29 years old reflects still further the narrowing gap in school enrollment of Negroes and whites since 1940.

Labor force participation of students of high school age has been generally higher for nonwhite than for white students since 1953. In 1958, however, the economic recession made it more difficult for all students to find jobs, but nonwhite youths had greater difficulties than white students. Fewer students of high school age in rural-farm areas were in the labor force in 1958 than in former years. To some extent, this change reflected bad weather in some areas and a moderate tapering off in harvesting during the survey week. As has been the case over the past few years, the proportion of white students in the labor force in urban areas exceeded that of nonwhites by roughly two to one, whereas on farms the reverse was true.

Percent of whites and nonwhites enrolled in school,
by age, 1940, 1956, 1958

Age	April 1940		October 1956		October 1958	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
7-24	59.7	55.3	73.8	69.9	74.9	71.5
7-13	95.5	91.2	99.4	98.4	99.6	98.8
14-17	80.7	68.2	89.2	81.2	90.0	82.8
18-24	13.8	9.1	20.1	15.8	21.2	16.5
18-19	29.8	21.1	35.9	31.8	38.1	34.3
20-24	6.9	3.8	13.4	8.7	14.1	8.7

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

Enrollment in college or professional school, 1930-58

	<u>Total</u>	<u>Nonwhite</u>
1930	1,100,737	1/27,141
1950	2,164,425	113,735
1956	2,883,000	196,000
1958	3,242,000	212,000
<u>Percent increase</u>		
1930-50	96.6	318.6
1950-56	33.2	72.3
1950-58	49.8	86.4
1956-58	12.5	8.2

1/ Negroes enrolled in predominantly Negro colleges;
total nonwhite college enrollment not available for
1930.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Labor Statistics

Source: U.S. Office of Education
(for 1930 data for both
total and nonwhite);
U. S. Bureau of the Census

Median years of school completed by persons 25 years old and over
and 25 to 29 years old, by color and sex: 1940 to 1957

Date and age	White		Nonwhite	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
<u>25 years and over</u>				
April 1940	8.7	8.8	5.4	6.1
April 1947	9.0	9.7	6.6	7.2
April 1950	9.3	10.0	6.4	7.2
October 1952	10.1	10.8	6.8	7.4
March 1957	10.7	11.3	7.3	8.1
Increase, 1940 to 1957...	2.0	2.5	1.9	2.0
<u>25 to 29 years</u>				
April 1940	10.5	10.9	6.5	7.5
March 1957	12.3	12.3	9.4	10.3
Increase, 1940 to 1957...	1.8	1.4	2.9	2.8

Source: Bureau of the Census
U. S. Department of Commerce

Civilian labor force participation rates of students
14-17 years old, by color and residence:
October 1953 to 1958

(Percent of population in labor force. Rate not shown
where base is less than 150,000.)

Year and color	:	United States	Urban	Rural nonfarm	Rural farm
<hr/>					
Total:	:				
1958	----	21.1	20.4	19.2	27.2
1957	----	22.8	20.9	20.4	32.5
1956	----	23.4	21.8	21.0	32.8
1955	----	22.8	20.6	20.4	33.3
1954	----	20.9	17.0	18.6	30.0
1953	----	17.6	15.1	14.8	28.9
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White:	:				
1958	----	21.3	21.7	18.9	24.4
1957	----	22.6	22.1	20.5	27.4
1956	----	23.3	22.6	21.3	28.9
1955	----	22.6	21.7	19.4	29.7
1954	----	20.0	18.7	18.0	26.9
1953	----	16.9	15.6	15.5	22.7
<hr/>					
Nonwhite:	:				
1958	----	19.8	11.1	n.a.	43.3
1957	----	25.1	12.1	n.a.	51.3
1956	----	26.0	15.9	n.a.	51.3
1955	----	26.1	12.7	n.a.	50.4
1954	----	22.9	11.8	n.a.	47.5
1953	----	22.9	10.7	n.a.	65.7

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census

**Employment of Technically Trained Negroes:
Placement of Negro Engineering School Graduates**

Information obtained from Howard University indicates increasing willingness of industry and government to employ Negro graduates in engineering and in advanced chemistry. Since 1949, major industrial companies have sent recruiters to the Howard School of Engineering, and governmental laboratories have joined them. Student chapters have been set up for the following National professional societies: American Institute of Electrical Engineers, American Society of Civil Engineers, American Institute of Architects, American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and also a branch of Tau Beta Phi (National engineering honor society, corresponding to Phi Beta Kappa). The University is accredited by the Engineers' Council for Professional Development, and the Architectural Accrediting Board. Howard engineering graduates are employed 40 percent in industry, 40 percent in government, 10 percent in teaching and private practice.

In 1940 about 150 Negroes were enrolled in engineering schools, in 1957, 1,700.

Housing

There has been a considerable improvement in Negro housing in the United States since 1940, largely through the rise in the real incomes of the Negro group, but partly through the provision of public housing. (For example, an article in the September 1956 number of Fortune says that Negroes occupy the only new public housing built in Atlanta since World War II.)

The number of Negroes in nonfarm areas occupying their own homes rose by 36 percent from 1940 to 1950, bringing the proportion of homeowners to 35 percent as compared with 24 percent in 1940. There was a further gain 1950-56 as shown in the attached table. However these later figures are for the whole United States, farm and nonfarm together. Attempts by Negroes to improve their housing have been facilitated by the United States Supreme Court decision on covenants. This decision on May 3, 1948, prohibited judicial enforcement of racial restrictive covenants on real property.

The 1950 Census does not distinguish the value of owner-occupied homes by race or color for the entire country. It does, however, present figures on the subject for the South. ^{1/} In that area in 1950, the median value of one-family houses occupied by their owners in urban and rural nonfarm areas was \$6,455 for whites and \$2,278 for Negroes. After the changes in home construction costs which occurred between 1940 and 1950 are eliminated, the data show that the median value of homes occupied by white owners in the South rose 29 percent over the decade while the value of the homes occupied by Negro owners rose 66 percent.

The median, the value below and above which half the homes owned by non-farm Negroes in the South are found, does not entirely describe the value of Negro housing in this part of the country. In 1950, 4 percent of the Negro families in this area (23,700) were living in homes they owned which were valued at more than \$10,000. Later data on value of homes by race or color are not available.

^{1/} The South Atlantic, Southeast Central and Southwest Central regions combined.

**Owner-Occupancy of Houses by
Whites and Nonwhites, 1950 and 1956**

The proportions of owner-occupancy in the United States of whites and nonwhites were as follows:

Item	: Rates of owner- : occupancy by race		: Increase in the : number of owner- : occupied dwellings : by race 1950-1956
	: April	: December	
	: 1950	: 1956	
	(percent)		
Total	55.0	60.4	27.8
White	56.9	62.7	28.4
Nonwhite	34.9	36.1	18.5

Source: 1956 National Housing Inventory,
Vol. III, Characteristics of the
1956 Inventory, Part 1,
United States and Regions,
Table 1, p. 15.

Density Patterns Among Nonwhites

The 1950 Census of Housing contains practically no cross-tabulation of housing or household characteristics by race upon which housing utilization measures can be based. There are, therefore, no comprehensive recent data from which to draw a picture of crowding in Negro housing. The few facts presented here are taken from a variety of sources. Fragmentary though they may be, they permit the unstartling disclosure that Negroes have substantially higher person-per-room ratios than whites. Furthermore, Negroes may not have shared fully in the general improvement in utilization which took place in recent years, in spite of unmistakable gains in employment and income, the provision of public housing, and (possibly) reductions in the intensity of discrimination.

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As in the case for whites, overcrowding among Negroes is more severe among renters than owners and in rural nonfarm compared to urban areas. Homeownership was, of course, far less common among Negroes, 23.9 percent in 1940, compared to 42.7 percent for whites, so that the relatively good showing of Negro homeowners applied to but a small minority of the Negro population. Over the decade 1940 to 1950, the gain in homeownership among Negroes was relatively greater than among whites. Nevertheless, in 1950 the homeownership ratios were still far apart, standing respectively at 35 and 55 percent.

Source: Louis Winnick and Ned Shilling, American Housing and Its Use (A Volume in the Census Monograph Series for the Social Science Research Council in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census), John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York (1957), pp. 66-67.

One-family houses occupied by their owners in urban and
rural nonfarm areas of the Southern regions of the
United States 1/

Value of homes	: White : owner- : occupants	: Nonwhite : owner : occupants
Median value of homes, 1950 - - - - -	: \$6,455 <u>2/</u>	: \$2,278 <u>2/</u>
Percent increase in value 1940-1950 - -	: 175	: 254

1/ South Atlantic, East and West South Central divisions,
as defined by the Census.

2/ 1950 Census of Housing, Vol. I, General Characteristics,
Part I, U. S. Summary, pp. 1-11.

1940 Census of Housing, Vol. II, General Characteristics,
Part I, U. S. Summary, pp. 47-49.

Owner-occupied dwelling units in nonfarm areas of the
South in specified value brackets 1/

Value bracket	: White owner-occupants		: Nonwhite owner-occupants	
	: Percent		: Percent	
	: of total		: of total	
	: Number	: owner-occupied	: Number	: owner-occupied
	: dwelling unit		: dwelling unit	
	: in value group		: in value group	
\$10,000-\$14,999:	:	:	:	:
1940 - - - - -	: 58,802	2.8	: 726	0.2
1950 - - - - -	: 495,718	14.6	: 15,626	2.6
\$15,000 and over:	:	:	:	:
1940 - - - - -	: 36,690	1.7	: 270	0.1
1950 - - - - -	: 351,335	10.4	: 8,079	1.4

1/ In comparing the 1940 and 1950 value brackets, the change in construction costs must be taken into account. According to the E. H. Boeckh index, construction costs for small residential structures more than doubled between 1940 and 1950--rising from 50.5 in 1940 to 107.7 in 1950 (1947-49=100).