

Negroes

NG(S)

**the
Economic
Situation
of
Negroes
in the
United
States**



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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
James P. Mitchell, Secretary

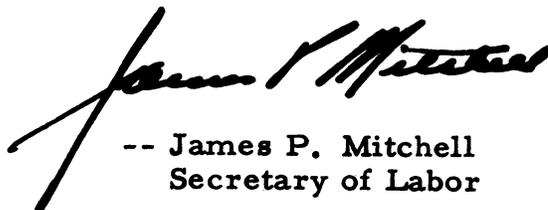
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FOREWORD

A notable development in the United States in recent decades has been the steady improvement in the social and economic status of Negroes. In education, type of work, income, housing, and other areas for which measures are available, the historic differentials between whites and Negroes have narrowed. Both the Negroes' lag, and their relatively faster gains are reflected in the pages that follow.

Despite this progress, there is no room for complacency. Employment and promotion policies in some areas still keep doors closed to minority workers, a condition the Nation cannot afford.

Our standards of justice and our national conscience forbid discrimination. Only as full opportunity is opened to all, can we reach the future to which we aspire.



-- James P. Mitchell
Secretary of Labor

PREFACE

Information on the economic condition of Negroes is limited, and many of the data in the following pages are based on estimates that are subject to revision when statistics from the 1960 census become fully available. Since Negroes constitute over 95 percent of the nonwhite residents of the United States, figures for nonwhites are used when data do not exist for Negroes alone.

This review of the economic situation of Negroes was prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Earlier related publications by the BLS have included a series of mimeographed booklets entitled Notes on the Economic Situation of Negroes in the United States, issued in 1957, 1958 and 1959; and Negroes in the United States, Their Employment and Economic Status (Bulletin No. 1119, 1952). The latter presents population and labor force data through 1950 in considerable detail.

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POPULATION

Trends

In the first two decades of the present century, the number of nonwhites in the United States population increased less rapidly than the number of whites. Thereafter nonwhites increased, until recent years, at about the same rate as whites, and continued to constitute just over one-tenth of the population. Nonwhites increased faster than whites, however, during parts of the 1940's and 1950's; by 1959, they constituted over 11 percent of the population (table 1).

Table 1.--Population, white and nonwhite, 1900-59

Year	Total population	White	Nonwhite	Nonwhite as percent of total population
Number (in thousands)				
1900.....	75,995	66,809	9,185	12.1
1910.....	91,972	81,732	10,240	11.1
1920.....	105,711	94,821	10,890	10.3
1930.....	122,775	110,287	12,488	10.2
1940.....	131,820	118,366	13,454	10.2
1950.....	151,132	135,343	15,789	10.4
1958.....	174,054	154,771	19,283	11.1
1959.....	177,103	157,290	19,813	11.2
Percent				
Percent increase:				
1900-59.....	133.0	135.4	115.7	
1950-59.....	17.2	16.2	25.5	

Note: 1940-59 data include Armed Forces overseas.

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

In 1950, Negroes numbered 15,073,776. If the Negro population increased from 1950 to 1959 at the same average rate as the total nonwhite population, the number of Negroes in 1959 was about 18,918,000.

Birth and Death Rates

The recent greater rate of increase among nonwhites than among whites is due in large measure to a drop in the nonwhite death rate (table 2). The birth rate has long been higher among nonwhites than among whites, but a higher death rate kept the nonwhite population at a constant proportion of the total. The death rate of nonwhites has been rapidly reduced, however, until by 1958 it was very little higher than that of whites. The increase of nonwhites from roughly 10 to 11 percent of the population, noted above, is the result.

Table 2.--Birth and death rates, white and nonwhite

Year	Birth rate			Death rate		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
	(Number per 1,000 population)					
1900.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	17.2	17.0	25.0
1920.....	27.7	26.9	35.0	13.0	12.6	17.7
1930.....	21.3	20.6	27.5	11.3	10.8	16.3
1940.....	19.4	18.6	26.7	10.8	10.4	13.8
1950.....	24.1	23.0	33.3	9.6	9.5	11.2
1958.....	24.6	23.4	34.2	9.5	9.4	10.2

¹ Not available.

Note: Birth rates have been adjusted for underregistration.

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

Marital Status

Proportionately more nonwhites than whites reported themselves in March 1959 as single, more were widowed, and many more, though married, reported the husband or the wife absent (table 3). Thus, a markedly smaller proportion of nonwhites were living with the spouse.

Table 3.--Marital status of persons age 14 and over, March 1959

	Percent					
	Males			Females		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single.....	24.9	24.2	31.5	18.7	18.5	20.8
Married.....	69.6	70.5	60.9	66.3	66.9	61.2
Spouse present.....	66.7	68.4	51.7	62.2	63.9	47.0
Spouse absent.....	2.9	2.2	9.2	4.1	2.9	14.3
In Armed Forces.....	--	--	--	.4	.4	.6
Separated.....	1.5	1.0	6.4	2.2	1.2	10.8
Other.....	1.4	1.2	2.8	1.5	1.3	2.9
Widowed.....	3.6	3.5	4.9	12.6	12.3	14.8
Divorced.....	1.8	1.7	2.7	2.4	2.4	3.2

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Marital Status and Family Status, March 1959, pp. 7-9 (Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 96).

Mobility

One-fourth of the nonwhite population changed residence during the year ending in March 1958, compared with one-fifth of the whites (table 4). Most moves by both groups were within the same county, however, involving merely a shift from one house to another. The longer moves, into another county or another State, were more frequent among whites than among nonwhites. (For notes on home ownership, which may influence mobility, see p. 31.)

Table 4.--Mobility of the civilian population, March 1957 to March 1958

Place of residence	Total	White	Nonwhite
Total population.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
In same house.....	79.7	80.3	74.6
Moved to different house in U.S.....	19.8	19.2	25.1
In same county.....	13.1	12.3	19.8
In different county.....	6.7	6.9	5.3
Within State.....	3.4	3.5	2.3
In different State.....	3.3	3.4	3.0
Abroad at beginning of period.....	.5	.5	.3

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Mobility of the Population of the United States, March 1957 to 1958, p. 8 (Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 85).

Migration

In 1900, three-fourths of the Negroes of the United States were in the rural South. (The South is defined as the area of the three southern divisions in table 16, pp. 21-22.) By 1950, so many had moved to cities, in the South and elsewhere, that roughly a third were in northern and western cities, a third in southern cities, and not much more than a third remained in rural areas of the South (table 5). More than two-thirds were still in the South. About one-fifth were on southern farms; almost none were on farms elsewhere.

For analysis of a long range of census data on population by color, by region, see: Irene B. Taeuber, "Migration, Mobility, and the Assimilation of the Negro," in Population Bulletin, November 1958, pp. 127-51 (reprint).

Table 5.--Negroes in the South and in remainder of the United States, urban and rural areas, 1900 and 1950

Area	1900	1950
United States.....	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>
South.....	89.7	68.0
Urban.....	15.4	32.4
Rural.....	74.2	35.5
Nonfarm.....	(1)	14.9
Farm.....	(1)	20.6
Remainder of the United States.....	10.3	32.0
Urban.....	7.2	30.0
Rural.....	3.1	2.0
Nonfarm.....	(1)	1.7
Farm.....	(1)	.3

¹ Not available.

Note: Definitions of rural and urban are only roughly comparable at the two periods.

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

EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Labor Force Participation

Almost all men age 25 to 54, both white and nonwhite, are in the labor force (table 6). In some other groups--adult women, and younger and older men--the proportion of Negroes in the labor force has traditionally exceeded that of whites. However, the differences are not as great as they were a few years ago. This is particularly true of teenage boys and of men age 65 and over. In 1951, 55 percent of nonwhite teenage boys were in the labor force, compared with 49 percent of white boys; by 1959, there was no difference. A major factor in reducing the difference has been the exodus of Negroes from sharecropping and other small-scale farming where, more than in other types of enterprise, the very young and the very old tend to be at work. In addition, the proportion enrolled in school has increased more rapidly for nonwhite than for white youth.

Table 6.--Percent of the civilian population in the labor force, by color, age, and sex, annual averages 1951 and 1959

Age	Male				Female			
	White		Nonwhite		White		Nonwhite	
	1951	1959	1951	1959	1951	1959	1951	1959
Total, 14 and over.....	84.0	81.0	83.7	79.1	32.6	35.0	44.9	45.8
14-19.....	49.2	44.0	55.3	44.0	32.5	30.2	28.9	22.7
20-24.....	88.4	87.3	88.7	90.8	46.7	44.5	45.4	48.8
25-34.....	97.0	97.5	95.7	96.3	33.6	33.4	51.1	50.0
35-44.....	97.6	98.0	96.4	95.8	38.0	41.4	55.8	60.0
45-54.....	96.0	96.3	95.1	92.8	38.0	47.8	55.5	60.0
55-64.....	87.4	87.9	84.6	82.5	26.8	35.7	39.8	46.4
65 and over.....	44.5	34.3	49.5	33.5	8.5	10.0	14.0	12.6

Note: Figures exclude persons in institutions.

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

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 increased from 36.2 years to 40 years--an increase of almost 4 years (table 7).

With these developments, the number of years spent in retirement (the difference between life expectancy and work-life expectancy at age 20) increased from 3.6 to 5.5 years. There are two main reasons for this development: (1) A much larger proportion of nonwhites lived beyond retirement age in 1955 than in 1940; and (2) increased liberalization of social security provisions and the continuation of the off-farm movement result in earlier retirement.

Increases in both life expectancy and work-life expectancy were greater for nonwhites than for whites from 1940 to 1955. Life expectancy for 20-year-old nonwhite men increased 5.7 years, compared with 2.4 years for white men. Similarly, work-life expectancy 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.

Despite their much greater increase in life expectancy, nonwhite males age 20 in 1955 still had a 4.6-year shorter expectancy than had whites.

Table 7.--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 retirement	Total	In labor force	In retirement
At age 20:						
White.....	47.7	41.8	5.9	50.1	43.4	6.7
Nonwhite.....	39.8	36.2	3.6	45.5	40.0	5.5
At age 40:						
White.....	30.1	24.0	6.1	31.7	24.8	6.9
Nonwhite.....	25.4	21.3	4.1	28.6	22.8	5.8
At age 60:						
White.....	15.1	9.1	6.0	16.0	9.5	6.5
Nonwhite.....	14.6	9.5	5.1	15.4	9.6	5.8

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Vital Statistics, and U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Unemployment

Unemployment rates are generally higher among Negro than among white workers. One factor is the disproportionate number of Negroes who are in unskilled work (table 12, p. 13), where unemployment is regularly heavier. Another is the frequently lower seniority ratings of Negro workers, because of their more recent entry into factory and office work.

In the 1958 downturn, unemployment rates rose in all groups. The rate rose about as much for nonwhite as for white men, and continued roughly twice as

high. About 14 percent of the nonwhite male workers, a large proportion of them from unskilled and semiskilled occupations, were unemployed and seeking work in 1958, compared with an average of about 6 percent of white workers (table 8). By 1959, both rates had declined, but that of nonwhites had declined relatively less. About 11.5 percent of nonwhite men were still unemployed, compared with 4.6 percent of whites.

Table 8.--Employment status of the civilian population age 14 and over, by color and sex, annual averages 1957, 1958, 1959

Employment status	White			Nonwhite		
	1957	1958	1959	1957	1958	1959
	<u>Number (in thousands)</u>					
	Men					
Civilian population.....	50,537	51,262	51,868	5,510	5,611	5,713
Civilian labor force.....	41,428	41,686	41,993	4,454	4,511	4,568
Employed.....	39,909	39,151	40,047	4,080	3,891	4,041
Agriculture.....	4,359	4,178	4,113	678	624	635
Nonagricultural industries.	35,550	34,973	35,934	3,402	3,267	3,405
Unemployed.....	1,519	2,536	1,945	374	619	527
	Women					
Civilian population.....	55,329	56,067	56,755	6,270	6,374	6,478
Civilian labor force.....	19,212	19,508	19,863	2,852	2,943	2,970
Employed.....	18,381	18,300	18,804	2,641	2,623	2,689
Agriculture.....	896	790	815	289	252	273
Nonagricultural industries.	17,484	17,510	17,989	2,352	2,371	2,416
Unemployed.....	832	1,208	1,059	211	318	281
	<u>Percent</u>					
Labor force as percent of civilian population:						
Men.....	82.0	81.3	81.0	80.8	80.4	79.1
Women.....	34.7	34.8	35.0	45.5	46.2	45.8
Unemployed as percent of labor force:						
Men.....	3.7	6.1	4.6	8.4	13.7	11.5
Women.....	4.3	6.2	5.3	7.4	10.8	9.5

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

Unemployment rates vary according to age in both white and Negro groups. In 1959, with 4.6 percent of white males unemployed, unemployment at ages 14-17 and 18-19 was about 12 and 13 percent. But nonwhite males unable to find work averaged 18.8 percent at age 14-17, and 27.2 percent at 18 and 19 years old (table 9). Many young Negro girls also were unemployed.

Table 9.--Unemployment by age, by color and sex, annual average, 1959
 (Number unemployed as percent of civilian labor force of the category)

Age	White	Nonwhite
Both sexes, age 14 and over	4.9	10.7
Male.....	4.6	11.5
14 to 17.....	12.2	18.8
18 and 19.....	13.0	27.2
20 to 24.....	7.5	16.3
25 to 34.....	3.8	12.3
35 to 44.....	3.2	8.9
45 to 64.....	3.9	8.2
65 and over.....	4.5	8.4
Female.....	5.3	9.5
14 to 17.....	10.5	20.0
18 and 19.....	10.7	29.9
20 to 24.....	6.7	14.9
25 to 34.....	5.0	9.7
35 to 44.....	4.7	7.6
45 to 64.....	4.2	5.7
65 and over.....	3.4	2.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Labor Force and Employment in 1959 (Special Labor Force Reports No. 4), table F-4.

Part-Time Work

Involuntary part-time and part-year work are more prevalent among Negroes than whites (table 10). Differences are probably due in large measure to Negroes' greater concentration in the less skilled occupations (table 11) and to their generally lower seniority ratings because of their more recent entry into factory and office work.

Many women workers prefer part- rather than full-time work. About 19 percent, both white and nonwhite, were reported in 1959 as usually working part time because of the demands of home housework, or for other noneconomic reasons.

Table 10.--Persons at work in nonagricultural industries by full- or part-time status, by color and sex, annual average, 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.....	85.2	78.2
1-34 hours.....	14.7	21.8
Usually work full time at present job.....	8.2	11.7
Worked part time for economic reasons.....	1.5	3.7
Worked part time for other reasons.....	6.6	8.0
Usually work part time at present job.....	6.6	10.1
Worked part time for economic reasons.....	1.3	5.5
Worked part time for other reasons.....	5.3	4.6
Average hours.....	42.5	38.9
<u>Women</u>		
Total at work.....	100.0	100.0
35 hours or more.....	70.3	61.4
1-34 hours.....	29.6	38.6
Usually work full time at present job.....	8.5	8.0
Worked part time for economic reasons.....	1.7	2.7
Worked part time for other reasons.....	6.8	5.3
Usually work part time at present job.....	21.1	30.6
Worked part time for economic reasons.....	2.4	11.4
Worked part time for other reasons.....	18.7	19.2
Average hours.....	36.1	33.9

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.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

OCCUPATION

Occupational differences between Negroes and whites are still large, but Negroes have raised their occupational levels appreciably faster in the past 20 years.

In 1960, a fourth of the white males working, but less than 7 percent of nonwhites, were in professional or managerial occupations (table 12). Well over half the nonwhite men were in manual occupations, but less than 10 percent were skilled craftsmen or foremen, compared with 20 percent of the whites. About 15 percent of the nonwhite men were in service occupations and about as many were still doing farm work (of whites, 6 and 9 percent, respectively). Many of those in agriculture, both white and nonwhite, were operating their own farms; but the percentage who were farm laborers was greater among nonwhites.

These percentages represent a gain in occupational status for both white and nonwhite men, but particularly the latter. In the skilled and semiskilled 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, when many moved into the semiskilled factory operative and related occupations halfway up the skill ladder.

The percent of nonwhite men working as skilled craftsmen or foremen doubled between 1940 and 1960, as did the percentage in professional and technical occupations; the percent of managers, officials, etc., nearly doubled. In each of these groups, nonwhites gained faster than whites. Probably some of the Negro men who left the farm became unskilled laborers in urban areas, but the rise in the percentage at such work was small, as was also the rise in the percent in service jobs.

The most frequent occupation of nonwhite women in 1960, as in 1940, was domestic service work. However, the number at such work fell from 58 to 37 percent of nonwhite women workers. The number of women in service work outside private households rose to 23 percent, and the number of factory operatives to 15 percent--more than double in each case. Far more nonwhite women were clerical workers, though still only a fraction of the percentage among whites. A big drop occurred in the percent of nonwhite women doing farm work.

These shifts have resulted in giving nonwhites many more of the semi-skilled factory operative and of the clerical jobs, and more of the professional and technical, the managerial, the crafts and foreman, and the sales jobs (table 13). The proportion of nonwhites to the total of farmers meanwhile declined.

The number of nonwhites working in Federal, State, and local government rose from 214,000 in 1940 to 855,000 in 1960, a fourfold increase.¹ The proportion of nonwhites to all government employees rose from 5.6 to 10.7 percent.

¹Figures cover all government services, including blue-collar work done directly by government agencies, and teaching.

Table 11.--Major occupation group of employed persons by color and sex,
annual average, 1958 and 1959

Major occupation group and sex	White		Nonwhite	
	Number (in thousands)		Number (in thousands)	
	1958	1959	1958	1959
Total employed men.....	39,148	40,048	3,892	4,041
Professional, technical, and kindred workers....	4,298	4,441	121	143
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm.....	5,643	5,751	108	107
Clerical and kindred workers.....	2,718	2,790	200	205
Sales workers.....	2,533	2,663	47	56
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	7,882	7,971	362	378
Operatives and kindred workers.....	7,326	7,647	927	951
Laborers except farm and mine.....	2,565	2,626	936	1,016
Service workers, except private household.....	2,152	2,189	585	574
Private household workers.....	30	32	22	17
Farmers and farm managers.....	2,736	2,681	224	218
Farm laborers and foremen.....	1,264	1,256	360	377
Total employed women.....	18,296	18,804	2,625	2,688
Professional, technical, and kindred workers....	2,398	2,397	141	162
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm.....	988	1,024	46	53
Clerical and kindred workers.....	6,024	6,130	192	202
Sales workers.....	1,552	1,637	40	38
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	208	201	17	11
Operatives and kindred workers.....	2,816	2,883	371	377
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	80	81	22	20
Service workers, except private household.....	2,303	2,502	564	578
Private household workers.....	1,170	1,169	982	978
Farmers and farm managers.....	107	104	16	15
Farm laborers and foremen.....	651	676	233	254

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

Table 12.--Percent distribution of employed persons by major occupation group, color, and sex, April 1940 and April 1960

Major occupation group and sex	White		Nonwhite	
	1940	1960	1940	1960
Total employed men.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and kindred workers...	5.9	11.3	1.9	4.0
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm.....	10.6	14.6	1.6	2.7
Clerical and kindred workers.....	7.1	7.3	1.2	5.1
Sales workers.....	6.7	6.5	.9	1.9
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	15.5	20.0	4.4	9.0
Operatives and kindred workers.....	18.8	19.1	12.2	24.4
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	7.5	6.3	20.5	23.3
Service workers, except private household.....	5.8	5.7	12.4	14.6
Private household workers.....	.2	.1	2.9	.2
Farmers and farm managers.....	14.0	6.3	21.3	5.7
Farm laborers and foremen.....	6.8	3.0	19.9	8.9
Occupation not reported.....	1.0	--	.7	--
Total employed women.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and kindred workers...	14.3	14.0	4.3	5.8
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm.....	4.3	5.1	.8	1.8
Clerical and kindred workers.....	24.6	32.6	1.0	8.9
Sales workers.....	8.0	8.8	.6	1.5
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	1.2	1.1	.2	.7
Operatives and kindred workers.....	20.2	15.3	6.6	15.1
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	.9	.4	.9	.3
Service workers, except private household.....	11.3	13.8	10.5	22.8
Private household workers.....	10.8	5.9	58.0	36.9
Farmers and farm managers.....	1.2	.5	3.2	.7
Farm laborers and foremen.....	1.2	2.6	12.8	5.4
Occupation not reported.....	2.0	--	1.1	--

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

Table 13.--Nonwhite employment as percent of total employment in each major occupation group, by sex, April 1940 and April 1960

Major occupation group	Nonwhite men as percent of all men		Nonwhite women as percent of all women	
	1940	1960	1940	1960
Total employed.....	9.0	9.3	13.9	12.6
Professional, technical, and kindred workers... Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm.....	3.1	3.5	4.6	5.6
Clerical and kindred workers.....	1.5	1.9	2.8	4.8
Sales workers.....	1.6	6.7	0.7	3.8
	1.4	3.0	1.1	2.4
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	2.7	4.4	2.3	8.0
Operatives and kindred workers.....	6.1	11.6	5.0	12.4
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	21.2	27.6	(¹)	(¹)
Service workers, except private household.....	17.4	21.1	13.1	19.2
Private household workers.....	(¹)	(¹)	46.5	47.5
Farmers and farm managers.....	13.1	8.6	30.2	16.4
Farm laborers and foremen.....	22.5	23.6	62.9	22.6

¹ Figures not shown where base in either year is less than 100,000.

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

Employment in Federal, State, and local government was as follows in April of selected years:

	1940	1956	1960
Total employment	3,845,000	6,919,000	8,014,000
Nonwhite employment	214,000	670,000	855,000
Nonwhite as percent of total	5.6	9.7	10.7

The rapid increase in government job opportunities resulted in part from a vigorous nondiscrimination policy applied to government jobs during the war and postwar periods.

WAGE AND SALARY INCOME

Since earnings vary with occupation, the relative rise in Negroes' occupational levels (table 12), as well as their continuing disproportionate concentration in the less skilled jobs, is reflected in their earnings. Whites average higher earnings than Negroes, but the gap is somewhat less wide than in earlier years. In 1939, nonwhite male workers earned, on the average, 41 percent as much as whites; by 1958, 58 percent. The corresponding percentages for nonwhite female workers were 36 and 45 (table 14).

These averages are reduced by the inclusion of many part-time or part-year workers. If figures are limited to those who worked a full year, nonwhites do relatively better. For full-year full-time work, nonwhite males in 1958 averaged \$3,368, which was 65 percent of the rate for white males.

When family rather than individual incomes are compared, the Negro-white difference is somewhat less, as a higher proportion of Negro family members are in the labor force.

Table 14.--Median wage and salary incomes of white and nonwhite persons, 1939-58

Year	Male		Female		Nonwhite as percent of white	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	Male	Female
All persons with wage or salary income:						
1939.....	\$1,112	\$460	\$676	\$246	41.4	36.4
1947.....	2,357	1,279	1,269	432	54.3	34.0
1957.....	4,396	2,436	2,240	1,019	55.4	45.5
1958.....	4,569	2,652	2,364	1,055	58.0	44.6
Year-round full-time workers with wage or salary income:						
1939.....	\$1,419	\$639	\$863	\$327	45.0	37.9
1957.....	4,950	3,137	3,107	1,866	63.4	60.1
1958.....	5,186	3,368	3,225	1,988	64.9	61.6

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

EMPLOYMENT POLICIES

The Federal Government forbids discrimination because of race, religion, or national origin, both in Federal employment and by private employers working on Federal contracts. This prohibition extends to the Armed Forces. A number of Federal actions in this field are outlined below.

Federal Government or Government-Connected Work

Federal Employment

Various steps have been taken to assure equality of opportunity in Federal service. Questions of application and hiring were dealt with by 1940, through the Ramspeck Act barring racial discrimination in the Federal service, and by an Executive order of November 7, 1940. Civil Service Commission Circular No. 248, issued January 10, 1941, announced that the Commission had deleted the question regarding race, and reference to photographs, from the declaration of appointee forms that were used in part to establish the identification of persons taking civil service examinations. The present rules of the Commission (Civil Service Rule IV) forbid any inquiry concerning the race, political affiliation, or religious belief of any employee or applicant.

The Fair Employment Practice Committee, established under Executive Order 8802 of June 25, 1941 (see p. 19), delegated to the Civil Service Commission the supervision of questions relating to Federal employment. Executive Order 9980, in 1948, set up a Fair Employment Board at the Civil Service Commission to review complaints of discrimination.

In January 1955, Executive Order 10590 established the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy to help Federal agencies carry out the policy of equal opportunity in the Federal service without discrimination because of race, color, religion, or national origin. The Committee undertook both a long-range educational program, and a program for the investigation, adjustment, and review of complaints. As discrimination in hiring on Federal jobs had long been barred, most of the complaints received by the Committee concerned promotion or layoff.

The President's Committee on Government Employment Policy stated in its Third Report, covering the period January 1958 through June 30, 1959:

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.

Negroes in the Armed Forces

During the period 1940 to 1954, Negroes were first included in the Armed Forces in segregated units, then gradually integrated. The President's Executive Order No. 9981, of July 26, 1948, announced a policy of "equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin." The order created the Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services to put the policy into effect.

The time limit set for dissolution of all-Negro units in the Armed Forces was June 30, 1954. However, the program proceeded ahead of schedule, and for a number of years there have been no all-Negro units in any of the services proper. Integrated activities include organization, assignment, training, billeting, mess, supervised recreation, and all other unit operations.

Negroes are enrolled at West Point, Annapolis, and the Air Force Academy, and are found as officers in all ranks of the services. Integration in the Armed Forces has progressed so far, according to the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower and Personnel, that statistics showing the proportion of Negroes are no longer kept. Negroes are found throughout the services.

Data for past years are shown in table 15. The figures indicate that in mid-1956 the proportion of Negro enlisted men in the Army and the Air Force was roughly equal to the proportion of Negroes in the population as a whole (compare table 1, p. 1), but that in the Navy and the Marine Corps, Negroes were proportionately fewer; also, that even in the Army the number of Negro officers was still low. Young men who are unskilled, or who have received an inferior education, as is still the case with many Negroes, find it as hard to advance in the armed services as in civilian life. It is the purpose of the Defense Department, however, to advance able personnel without consideration of race.

Table 15.--Negroes as percent of officers and enlisted men
July 1, 1949 and 1956

Branch	Officers		Enlisted men	
	1949	1956	1949	1956
Army.....	1.8	2.9	12.4	12.8
Navy.....	--	.1	4.7	6.3
Air Force.....	.6	1.1	5.1	10.4
Marine Corps.....	--	.1	2.1	6.5

Civilian components, enrolling personnel not on active military duty, present varied racial patterns usually reflecting local customs. Some of the largest all-white and all-Negro units are the ROTC units on college campuses, where they reflect the composition of the student body, and are beyond the direct control of the military. Georgia, Mississippi, and Arkansas are the only States in which the qualified Negro college student cannot enroll in any ROTC unit.

The National Guard and the Organized Reserves, as civilian components, likewise present a mixed picture, in law and in fact, in the different States. By 1960, 15 States had laws that more or less strictly barred segregation in the

National Guard.¹ Many States had no law on the subject, but in theory did not segregate the Guard; practice varied. Some States enlisted Negroes, but in segregated units;² others excluded Negroes from the Guard altogether.³

Studies under way in the Department of Defense in 1960 are designed to help bring to an end the remaining racial differences in the civilian components. Such differences are considered at variance with the established policy of equality of treatment and opportunity.

Employment on Government Contracts

The Federal Government has taken a series of actions to assure equality of treatment in work under Government contracts. Executive Order 8802, of June 25, 1941, affirmed a policy of full participation in the defense program by all persons, regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin. It ordered contracting agencies of the Federal Government to include in each defense contract negotiated by them a provision obligating the contractor not to discriminate against any worker because of race, creed, color, or national origin. A Fair Employment Practice Committee was set up to receive and investigate complaints of discrimination in violation of the order, and to take any necessary steps to redress grievances found to be valid. Executive Order 9346, of May 27, 1943, reaffirmed the policy of nondiscrimination in Government contracts, extending it to cover apprenticeship, and established a seven-member committee in the Office of Emergency Management to enforce the policy. The order expired after the war. A Committee on Government Contract Compliance, established by Executive Order 10308, of December 5, 1951, had advisory and educational functions but no enforcement power. This Committee was ended on the establishment of the present Committee on Government Contracts.

Executive Order 10479, of August 13, 1953, created the President's Committee on Government Contracts, made up of 16 high ranking Government, business, and labor union leaders appointed on a nonpartisan basis. The Vice President became chairman; the Secretary of Labor, Vice Chairman. The Committee was charged with strengthening enforcement of the nondiscrimination clauses included in Federal contracts in accordance with earlier Executive orders. Executive Order 10557, of September 3, 1954, supplied a standard nondiscrimination provision and ordered it included in all future contracts. As about one-third of the nongovernment employees in the United States work in companies that are involved to some extent with Federal Government contracts, the orders have very broad scope.

Enforcement involves review of the degree of compliance, action on complaints, and educational work. Federal agencies conduct compliance reviews to see that the contractor has (1) Posted a nondiscrimination notice in his plant; (2) included a nondiscrimination clause in his subcontracts; and (3) observed nondiscrimination in regard to recruiting, upgrading, layoffs, transfers, pay rates, and selection for training, including apprenticeship. The compliance officer also observes the employment pattern of the contractor, to see whether he seems to have a fair proportion of representatives of minority groups on his payroll. Where there is clear evidence of failure to comply with the nondiscrimination clause, Federal contracting agencies are asked to deny further contracts.

¹New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Nebraska, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Oklahoma, Washington, California.

²Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas (as of 1955).

³South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana (as of 1955).

Complaints are referred for investigation and adjustment to the contracting Government agency, which is required to report action to the Committee. From August 1953 to May 16, 1960, the Committee received 970 complaints, some of which involved several thousand jobs or even an entire industry; 718 were disposed of and 252 were still being investigated. The Committee attaches special importance to the very large number of cases that involve a "breakthrough," in which a company breaks its previous pattern, limiting Negroes to laborer jobs, by hiring some Negroes in skilled or white-collar jobs and agreeing to a non-discriminatory job policy for the future. By September 1959, for example, one of the major cigarette companies had changed its policy and opened all types of production jobs in its big North Carolina plant to Negro applicants; it had also taken on three Negroes as white-collar workers. The Martin Co., of Orlando, Fla., had hired five Negroes in clerical positions and one as a stenographer, and had put seven into training for highly skilled positions. American Airlines employed nearly 1,000 Negroes in New York City (of a total of 20,000 employees), the Negroes serving as ticket sellers, reservation clerks, etc.; some were in executive training programs. Great numbers of other examples could be cited.

Educational efforts by the Committee on Government Contracts have included a Conference on Equal Job Opportunity; a Youth-Training-Incentive Conference, with follow-up campaigns; a Minority Community Resources Conference; and a Religious Leaders' Conference.

For further information, including the texts of Executive Orders 10479 and 10557, see annual reports of the Committee, especially: (1) Five Years of Progress, 1953-1958, A Report to President Eisenhower by the President's Committee on Government Contracts; and (2) Sixth Report to President Eisenhower from the Committee on Government Contracts, July 1, 1958 to September 30, 1959.

U. S. Employment Service

The U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Employment Security operates a minority groups program through its United States Employment Service and affiliated agencies in the States and other jurisdictions. 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, 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:

1. To promote employment opportunity for all applicants on the basis of their skills, abilities, and job qualifications.
2. 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.
3. To assist the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy in effectuating Executive Order 10590 by not accepting discriminatory job orders from Federal establishments.
4. To cooperate with procurement agencies and other appropriate agencies of the Government in their efforts to secure compliance with nondiscrimination clauses in Government contracts.

State Actions on Fair Employment

By early 1960, 16 States having half the United States population and about a fourth of its Negro population had passed enforceable fair employment practice laws designed to end discrimination in employment (table 16). Delaware passed such a law in July 1960. Two other States, Indiana and Kansas, have fair employment practice laws, but without enforcement provisions. Many of the State fair employment practice commissions are charged with enforcing nondiscrimination rules in public accommodation, housing, or education as well as in employment.

As a rule, the State law creates a commission having the power to enforce nondiscriminatory employment practices. In practice, however, the commissions proceed largely through public education, with investigation of complaints, followed by an attempt to persuade any offender to end the practice complained of. If necessary, a formal hearing can be held. After a hearing the commission may issue an order, and this order may be enforced, if necessary, through the courts. Few cases in any State, however, reach the stage of formal hearing, and very few reach the courts. The commissions depend largely on education and conciliation; they claim to have achieved good results by these means.

Trade Union Policies

Discrimination because of race is a problem in the labor movement, as elsewhere in American life. It is a problem to which labor leaders are vigorously addressing themselves.⁴

⁴See U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, A Guide to Labor-Management Relations in the United States (Bull. No. 1225, March 1958), sec. 2:14, Equal Job Opportunities Under Collective Bargaining, for a description of three important aspects of job equality: (1) The right to get a job on the basis of one's ability, without discrimination; (2) the right to fair and equal treatment on the job in accordance with objective and reasonable standards; and (3) protection against discharge without just cause.

Table 16.--The States and discrimination, as of April 1960

State	Negroes as percent of population 1950	Enforceable fair employment practice law	Law against discrimination in		Integration of public schools			
			Publicly aided housing	Public accommodations	Complete	Substantial	Begun	None
New England:								
Maine.....	0.1			x	x			
New Hampshire.....	.1				x			
Vermont.....	.1			x	x			
Massachusetts.....	1.6	x	x	x	x			
Rhode Island.....	1.8	x	x	x	x			
Connecticut.....	2.6	x	x	x	x			
Middle Atlantic:								
New York.....	6.2	x	x	x	x			
New Jersey.....	6.6	x	x	x	x			
Pennsylvania.....	6.1	x	x	x	x			
East North Central:								
Ohio.....	6.5	x		x	x			
Indiana.....	4.4		x	x	x			
Illinois.....	7.4		x	x	x			
Michigan.....	6.9	x	x	x	x			
Wisconsin.....	.8	x	x	x	x			
West North Central:								
Minnesota.....	.5	x	x	x	x			
Iowa.....	.7			x	x			
Missouri.....	7.5					x		
North Dakota.....	(¹)				x			
South Dakota.....	.1				x			
Nebraska.....	1.4			x	x			
Kansas.....	3.8			x	x			
South Atlantic:								
Delaware.....	13.7	(²)				x		
Maryland.....	16.5					x		
District of Columbia.....	35.0			x	x			
Virginia.....	22.1						x	
West Virginia.....	5.7				x			
North Carolina.....	25.8						x	
South Carolina.....	38.8							x
Georgia.....	30.9							x
Florida.....	21.7						x	
East South Central:								
Kentucky.....	6.9					x		
Tennessee.....	16.1						x	
Alabama.....	32.0							x
Mississippi.....	45..							x
West South Central:								
Arkansas.....	22.3						x	
Louisiana.....	32.9							x
Oklahoma.....	6.5					x		
Texas.....	12.7					x		

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 16.--The States and discrimination, as of April 1960--Continued

State	Negroes as percent of population 1950	Enforce-able fair em-ployment practice law	Law against dis-crimination in		Integration of public schools			
			Publicly aided housing	Public accommo-dations	Com-plete	Substan-tial	Begun	None
Mountain:								
Montana.....	.2			x	x			
Idaho.....	.2				x			
Wyoming.....	.9				x			
Colorado.....	1.5	x	x	x	x			
New Mexico.....	1.2	x		x	x			
Arizona.....	3.5				x			
Utah.....	.4				x			
Nevada.....	2.7				x			
Pacific:								
Washington.....	1.3	x	x	x	x			
Oregon.....	.8	x	x	x	x			
California.....	4.4	x	x	x	x			
Alaska.....	(³)	x		x	x			
Hawaii.....	(³)				x			

¹ Less than 0.1 percent.

² Delaware passed a fair employment practice law in July 1960.

³ Not available. The percent nonwhite in 1950 was as follows: Alaska, 27.9; Hawaii, 77.0.

Note: For detailed information on legal aspects, see: Jack Greenberg, Race Relations and American Law, New York, Columbia University Press, 1959, 481 pp.

Source: Col. 1, 1950 Census of Population, v. II, pt. 1, pp. 1-106. Col. 2, 3, and 4, Jack Greenberg, Race Relations and American Law, passim. Col. 5-8, Southern School News, April 1960.

AFL-CIO

The constitution of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, adopted in December 1955, lists among its objectives: "To encourage all workers without regard to race, creed, color, national origin or ancestry to share equally in the full benefits of union organization. "

To further this objective, the AFL-CIO established a Civil Rights Committee and a Civil Rights Department in the organization. It is their function to help the Executive Council "to bring about at the earliest possible date the effective implementation of the principle stated in this constitution of nondiscrimination in accordance with the provisions of this constitution. "

AFL-CIO President George Meany stated in an address on March 26, 1960:

I think the record proves we have come a long way. Many of our older unions were born and grew up in an earlier and less enlightened period. They reflected the attitudes of their communities--prejudice based on ignorance. Discrimination was not only accepted; it was respectable. It is a measure of our progress that where discrimination still survives in the labor movement, it is a bootleg product, sneaked in by subterfuge. Even those who practice discrimination know that its days are numbered. And we are going to make sure of it.

I say that if we have to practice discrimination to organize workers, then organizing will have to wait until we educate the unorganized. I say that if we have to lose a vote in Congress . . . because we take a stand on civil rights, that is a price we are prepared to pay.

The AFL-CIO has established two regional committees to help carry out its purposes. The Southern Advisory Committee on Civil Rights is made up of the presidents of the AFL-CIO bodies of all the Southern States. A Midwestern Advisory Committee on Civil Rights, organized in the spring of 1960, is made up of representatives of the AFL-CIO central bodies of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota; each of these States also has a civil rights committee of its own.

The North Carolina AFL-CIO, one of the constituent bodies of the Southern Advisory Committee, passed the following resolution on March 18, 1960:

WHEREAS the American Labor Movement has always stood for the rights of all human beings regardless of race, color or creed.

WHEREAS the American Labor Movement recognizes that the rights of minority groups are now being denied in a variety of areas, such as the use of various public facilities, in employment opportunities and in the equal availability of good housing.

WHEREAS there are now Negro student groups throughout the South who are demonstrating through the use of peaceful labor techniques such as the picket line, the sit down and the consumer boycott for equal rights to eat in public eating facilities.

THEREFORE be it resolved that this Third Annual Convention of the North Carolina AFL-CIO express its approval of the efforts of these Negro student groups and express our disapproval of the unwarranted police actions now being carried out in many of these demonstrations as violations of the rights of American citizens to free speech and free assembly.

Internationals and Locals

Since power in the AFL-CIO is decentralized, changes depend to a great extent upon action by the national and international unions and particularly by their locals. In January 1960, at its national convention, the Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen voted 4 to 1 to remove the "white only" clause from their constitution. This left only one international union affiliated with the AFL-CIO that still carried such a clause in its constitution. The union has been notified that it must follow the example of the Trainmen and remove the clause, which is contrary to the AFL-CIO constitution. Two international unions outside the AFL-CIO also still retained such clauses.

Many collective bargaining contracts contain clauses specifically barring discrimination. A few examples from current agreements, from files of the U. S. Labor Department's Bureau of Labor Statistics, are:

Allied Building Metal Industries, New York; and International Association of Bridge, Structural and Ornamental Iron Workers:

There shall be no discrimination against any employee with respect to any term of employment or otherwise, by reason of race, color, creed, sex, or age, nor shall an employee be disciplined or discharged except for proper cause.

Bethlehem Steel Co. (Shipbuilding Division), Quincy, Mass.; and American Federation of Technical Engineers. Also, Bethlehem Steel Co. (Shipbuilding Division) and Bethlehem-Sparrows Point Shipyard, Inc.; and Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America:

The company will not discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment at the yard by reason of his membership in the union or by reason of any union activity on his part not in contravention of any provision of this agreement, or because of race, color, sex, national origin or membership in any lawful organization.

Chicago Luggage and Leather Goods Manufacturers Association, Chicago; and Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen:

There shall be no discrimination as to wages or other conditions of employment because of sex, race, color, creed, or other conditions within any plant.

Congoleum-Nairn, Inc., Wilmington, Del.; and United Rubber, Cork, Linoleum and Plastic Workers of America:

. . . and there shall be no discrimination by reason of age, sex, creed, color or nationality.

General Electric Co.; and International Union of Electrical Workers:

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.

Harbison-Walker Refractories Co., Pittsburgh; and United Stone and Allied Products Workers:

There shall be no discrimination by the company or the union in promotions, transfers, lay-offs, hiring and rehiring because of race, color, religion, nationality or political affiliation.

International Harvester Co.; and United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America:

1. Neither the Company nor the Union, in carrying out their obligations under this Contract, shall discriminate in any manner whatsoever against any employee because of race, sex, political or religious affiliation, or nationality.

2. The Company agrees to continue its present nondiscriminatory policy offering equal opportunities for available jobs to qualified applicants without regard for their nationality, race, sex, political or religious affiliation, or membership in any labor or other lawful organization.

By mid-June 1960, 20 State central bodies and 12 international unions had set up their own civil rights machinery. Some of the national and international unions have taken strong action, where necessary, to establish civil rights within the local union and on the job. A few examples follow, from actions taken by internationals and locals during the year ending with June 1960.

The American Federation of Musicians, which had over 40 separate Negro locals, is conducting a campaign to merge all separate Negro and white locals. It has accomplished its purpose throughout the West, and reports progress elsewhere.

The International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers is another organization that has recently made progress in this field. Texas locals have been integrated, and other southern as well as northern groups have taken action. The local union in Columbia, S. C., for example, has issued journeyman cards to a number of Negro maintenance men in a shop they organized; one of these Negro members was elected to the executive board. IBEW Local 134, in Chicago, reduced its initiation fee to make it easier to recruit nonunion electricians, and 23 Negro journeymen were issued cards in the local.

During the first half of 1960, Carpenters and Iron Workers locals in Houston and Beaumont, Texas took in Negro journeymen for the first time.

Shortly after an officer of the Washington, D. C., Council of the Painters Union testified at a public hearing in the spring of 1960 that there were no Negro members in any of the District locals, Painters Local 1831 began an active drive in the home building and construction maintenance field. Ten Negro members were recruited the first week.

A complaint before the President's Committee on Government Contracts and the Civil Rights Department of the AFL-CIO early in 1960 alleged that qualified Negro journeymen rodmen could not get work in Washington because they could not gain admittance to Local 201 of the International Union of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers. Local 201 denied that its hiring hall was restricted on the basis of race, or even of union membership. After consultation, the complainants were registered at the union referral hall, and six Negro journeymen were referred to Government and private construction sites in Washington.

Despite large numbers of actions of the types cited above, many union locals still discriminate in some way against Negroes. Some refuse them membership; some organize Negroes, but in separate locals; some craft unions prevent young Negroes from entering highly skilled trades, by barring them from apprenticeships. A complaint heard in unions otherwise integrated is that Negroes are not appointed to staff jobs in proportion to their numbers in the union.

Apprenticeship

Apprenticeships are arranged by management, usually in cooperation with trade unions. Although full information is lacking, it is clear that young Negroes do not enter apprenticeships in proportion to their number in the population. This appears to be true in all parts of the country and in all apprenticeable occupations; but in varying degrees. In New Orleans, for example, and many other cities, both North and South, many Negroes have been apprenticed in the building trades and admitted to the unions. Yet in San Francisco, in May 1958, there was reported to be only one Negro apprentice in the metal trades, and none in the electrical, plumbing, carpentering, or ironworking programs. Recent

studies by various agencies have revealed somewhat similar situations in cities of Connecticut and Michigan, and in Cleveland, Chicago, Memphis, Birmingham, Louisville, Baltimore, Boston, and elsewhere.*

Many causes besides race prejudice operate to keep young Negroes out of apprenticeship. Historically, many have lacked the generally required high school diploma. As this has been gained, many young Negroes (and whites as well) have preferred white-collar work. The young men most likely to enter apprenticeship are those whose older relatives are already working in the skilled trades; they are in a position to know of openings, which may be rare, and to understand the kind of career that may be expected to follow apprenticeship. Since comparatively fewer Negroes are in the skilled trades (see table 12, p. 13), this kind of connection is not open to many youths, and the lure of higher immediate earnings in an unskilled job may prevail.

The fact that many trades admit only limited number of apprentices makes it especially hard for members of minority groups to enter. However, officials of management, labor, and Government have increasingly emphasized the Nation's need to train more apprentices. As Vice President Nixon observed on January 15, 1958, "Encouragement and incentive for higher training is needed by all youth, and it is particularly needed among the youth of minority groups." Many national organizations, both labor and management, are cooperating with Government authorities to promote increased use of apprenticeship. As these efforts bear fruit, more numerous opportunities are expected to open to minority as well as other youth.

Negro American Labor Council

Formed in mid-1959, the Negro American Labor Council aims to assure fully equal treatment for Negroes within the labor movement--in policy making, in apprenticeships, and elsewhere. It is not yet clear, as of this writing, what its effects will be.

For many examples of trade union success in widespread efforts to combat discrimination on the job, see: Harry Fleischman and James Rorty, We Open the Gates, Labor's Fight for Equality, New York, National Labor Service, 1958, 64 pp.

*New York State Commission Against Discrimination, Apprentices, Skilled Craftsmen and the Negro, An Analysis, New York, 1960, p. 15. This publication describes national and historical aspects of the problem of Negro apprenticeship, as well as stating the results of a survey made in New York State in 1958. It also presents an extensive bibliography.

VOTING RIGHTS

In addition to actions to ensure fair employment practices in Government work, the Federal Government has taken certain steps to assure equal protection of the laws in other fields. Federal Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1960, though touching other subjects, particularly emphasized the maintenance of voting rights.

The 15th Amendment to the Constitution, adopted in 1870, states:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Congress passed a Civil Rights Act in 1957, and another in April 1960 supplementing the 1957 act and entering certain new fields.

1957 Civil Rights Act

The 1957 act has three main provisions:

1. It established a Commission on Civil Rights, to be appointed by the President. This Commission was designed as an independent agency, empowered to study, investigate, appraise and make recommendations. Specifically, it was directed to investigate sworn allegations that citizens were being denied their right to vote and to have that vote counted, because of their race, color, religion, or national origin. Secondly, the Commission was charged with the responsibility of collecting information concerning legal developments constituting a denial of equal protection of the laws. Further, the Commission was to appraise the laws and policies of the Federal Government with respect to equal protection. In September 1959, the life of this Commission was extended by Congress for an additional 2 years.

2. The Attorney General of the United States was empowered to seek court injunctions against interference with the voting rights of any individual. Prior to the 1957 act, the Attorney General was limited to bringing criminal proceedings. Usually these actions could only be used after the event, and therefore came too late to have any substantial effect. The injunctive relief provided for in the 1957 act was designed to remedy this situation.

3. A Civil Rights Division was established in the Department of Justice, to be headed by an Assistant Attorney General.

Through the enforcement of this legislation, over 1,300 previously registered Negroes have been restored to voting lists in one southern county alone.

1960 Civil Rights Act

The 1960 act, in the words of Attorney General William P. Rogers, "reaffirms the determination of the people of the United States that constitutionally protected rights shall be fully enjoyed by all citizens in all parts of the Nation." Briefly, it provides as follows:

1. Any attempt to obstruct any court order is a punishable offense. This provision is not limited to civil rights.

2. The Federal Bureau of Investigation is authorized to investigate bombings of any buildings where it is reasonably believed that the guilty party has fled across a State line.

3. State election officials are required to retain voting records for a period of 22 months. This is to allow inspection of records of Federal elections and primaries by the Department of Justice. The Attorney General has served demands for examination of voting records on election officials of several southern counties, pursuant to this section.

4. Free public education may be arranged by the Commissioner of Education for children of Armed Forces members when the public schools in a given area have been closed by State or local authorities.

5. Probably the most important provision establishes additional machinery to ensure the right of all qualified citizens to vote. It was this section, providing for the appointment of Federal voting referees, that caused the greatest amount of congressional debate. The new law provides that in proceedings instituted under the 1957 act alleging denial, because of race or color, of the right to vote or the right to have the ballot counted, if a Federal district court finds the denial to be pursuant to a pattern or practice, the court may appoint a voting referee. The referee is to determine whether any voting applicant of the race or color discriminated against is qualified to vote under the State law; with affirmative findings, the court may issue a certificate declaring that right, and the citizen must then be allowed to vote.

In June 1960, the Attorney General filed in a Louisiana district court the first Federal suit under this newest civil rights law. The suit charged that denial of voting rights to Negroes in Bienville Parish constituted an officially sanctioned pattern of racial discrimination.

For further information, see: The Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service, American Law Division, Civil Rights Project--Report U. S. No. 1: Provisions of the Constitution, Statutes, and Executive Orders and Regulations of the United States Relating to the Infringement of Civil Rights on the Basis of Race, Religion, Color or National Origin, August 19, 1958, 117 pp. (processed).

For a review of the 1960 civil rights law, see: American Jewish Congress, Commission on Law and Social Action, Federal Civil Rights Act of 1960, Summary and Analysis, New York, May 1960, 14 pp. (mimeo).

HOUSING, PUBLIC ACCOMMODATION, TRANSPORTATION

Housing

The general picture in housing, as in other fields, shows Negroes in a less advantageous position than whites, but improving their situation faster, on the whole. The housing field presents special problems, however.

Housing discrimination is common in the North as well as the South. One instrument used is the restrictive covenant, an agreement on the part of a group of homeowners not to sell to members of certain racial or religious groups. Such agreements cannot, however, be enforced through the courts. The U. S. Supreme Court ruled in 1948 that neither State nor Federal courts might enforce racial or religious covenants; and in 1953 that courts might not award damages for breach of such covenants. Even though not legally enforceable, however, restrictive or evasory agreements are believed still to exist and to influence the housing market.

Fifteen States and a number of cities specifically prohibit discrimination in any housing that receives government assistance (table 16, p. 22). In the spring of 1960, the New Jersey Supreme Court, acting under the State law, banned discrimination against Negroes in a private housing project on the ground that the Federal Housing Administration had agreed to supply mortgage loans to prospective purchasers of the homes.

Four States (Massachusetts, Connecticut, Colorado, and Oregon) have gone further by instructing commissions to prevent discrimination in the sale, rental, or occupancy of purely private as well as publicly assisted housing. New York City and Pittsburgh have taken similar action affecting private housing.

Despite discrimination, Negro housing has improved, largely owing to the rise in Negroes' incomes. Provision of new low-rent public housing has been of some assistance also.

Negro ownership of homes has become more extensive. In 1940, only 24 percent of nonwhite families lived in homes they owned, compared with 46 percent of white families (table 17). By 1956, the rates had risen to 36 and 63 percent, respectively. The 1940-50 decade was a period of active home buying, especially for nonwhites. Nonwhites in nonfarm areas doubled their home ownership in 10 years (while their total number of occupied dwelling units in the nonfarm areas rose 36 percent); home buying was less extensive in farm areas. During 1950-56, however, whites bought homes at a faster rate than nonwhites (on the average, in all areas; separate nonfarm data are not available after 1950), and by the end of the whole period 1940-56 whites had increased their home ownership by almost as much as nonwhites.

In the South (the three southern regions in table 16), the average value of nonfarm one-family houses occupied by their owners rose 29 percent between 1940 and 1950 for whites and 66 percent for nonwhites (after allowance for rise in construction costs). However, values of nonwhites' homes were still far

Table 17.--Owner-occupied dwelling units, by color, total and nonfarm

Color of occupant	Percent of dwellings owner-occupied			Percent increase in owner-occupied units		
	1940	1950	1956	1940-50	1950-56	1940-56
All units:						
Total.....	43.6	55.0	60.4	55.0	27.8	98.2
White.....	45.7	57.0	62.7	54.3	28.4	98.1
Nonwhite.....	23.6	34.9	36.1	69.6	18.5	101.1
Nonfarm units:						
Total.....	41.1	53.4	(¹)	73.3	(¹)	(¹)
White.....	42.7	55.0	(¹)	72.1	(¹)	(¹)
Nonwhite.....	23.9	35.2	(¹)	101.4	(¹)	(¹)

¹ Not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 Census of Housing, vol. I, pt. 1, pp. 1-2, table 3; 1956 National Housing Inventory, vol. III, pt. 1, p. 15, table 1.

lower. See, for example, the values of one-family owner-occupied houses bought between January 1, 1949, and mid-1950 in the United States (nonfarm areas):

	All purchasers	Nonwhite purchasers
Median purchase price	\$7,900	\$3,900
Percent costing \$10,000 or more	29.1	9.2

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 Census of Housing, vol. IV, pt 1, pp. 272, 304.

Negroes live in more crowded quarters than whites (table 18). The situation for both has been improving, but as whites have moved to a greater extent out of the central city into the suburbs, they have succeeded better in obtaining more space for the family. By 1950, there were 3.6 nonwhites per dwelling unit in urban areas, 3.2 whites per unit. Farm homes were more crowded. To the extent, furthermore, that Negro dwellings are smaller, with fewer rooms than those of whites, the difference is greater than is shown by these figures.

Public Accommodation

By 1960, 24 States and the District of Columbia (table 16, pp. 21-22), as well as about 30 municipalities, had enacted enforceable laws forbidding discrimination in places of public accommodation. This generally means places open to the public; most such places are privately owned. New Hampshire and Wyoming, also, had laws on the subject, but laws without enforcement provisions.

The laws usually apply to a list of types of accommodation such as hotels, restaurants, beauty parlors, taxis, buses, theatres, parks, and beaches. Eight of the States¹ provide for administrative enforcement of their laws. Connecticut

¹Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Colorado, Oregon, and Washington.

Table 18.--Population per occupied dwelling unit by color of occupants, urban and rural

	Total	White	Nonwhite
United States			
1940.....	3.8	3.7	4.1
1950.....	3.4	3.3	3.9
Urban			
1940.....	3.6	3.6	3.7
1950.....	3.2	3.2	3.6
Rural nonfarm			
1940.....	3.8	3.8	4.0
1950.....	3.4	3.4	4.0
Rural farm			
1940.....	4.3	4.2	4.7
1950.....	4.0	3.9	5.0

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 Census of Housing, vol. I, pt. 1, pp. 1-2, table 4.

ascribes improved observance to a campaign of education conducted by its Commission on Civil Rights. In other instances, minority rights have been confirmed by court decision. In communities in which social pressure reinforces the law, desegregation has proceeded with little difficulty.

Transportation

Public transportation is a field of active interest as regards desegregation. Where Federal law clearly governs, as in interstate commerce and in all air travel, segregation has been outlawed. The situation as to transportation within a State is less clear. Although past court decisions cast doubt on State laws requiring or authorizing segregation in travel, 13 Southern States and many southern cities have such laws on their books. Some of the laws have long been ignored, however, and after a Supreme Court decision of 1957 (Browder v. Gayle), many southern bus lines announced desegregation. Despite doubtful legality, nevertheless, State and local officers, with the support of local public opinion, often continue to enforce segregation in local buses and in terminals.

EDUCATION

Elementary and Secondary Education: Levels

In education, as in other fields, statistics show Negroes still below the levels reached by whites, but rapidly gaining. Since two-thirds of the Negroes still live in the South (table 5, p. 4), the progress in that region is especially important.

In 1940, a greater proportion of white than of nonwhite children aged 7 to 13 were in school--95.5 and 91.2, respectively. By 1959, virtually all of both groups were in school (table 19). Thus, future generations of high school and college age will not show the discrepancies that have characterized whites and nonwhites in the past. From age 14 on, the percent of nonwhites in school is somewhat smaller than the percent of whites; but this percentage rose very greatly from 1940 to 1959.

Table 19.--Percent of whites and nonwhites enrolled in school, by age, 1940, 1956, and 1959

Age	April 1940		October 1956		October 1959	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
Total, 7-24.....	59.7	55.3	73.8	69.9	74.9	72.3
7-13.....	95.5	91.2	99.4	98.4	99.5	99.0
14-17.....	80.7	68.2	89.2	81.2	90.8	85.3
18-24.....	13.8	9.1	20.1	15.8	20.6	16.1
18-19.....	29.8	21.1	35.9	31.8	37.3	33.6
20-24.....	6.9	3.8	13.4	8.7	13.4	8.5

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

The narrowing gap between white and nonwhite is further reflected in the average number of years of school completed (table 20). Nonwhite men aged 25 and over averaged less than 8 years' schooling in 1959, compared with an average of 11 years for whites. But the younger nonwhite men, age 25 to 29, had averaged nearly 11 years' schooling, to 12-1/2 years for whites. The 25- to 29-year-old nonwhite men in 1959 had 4.4 years more schooling than those of the same age in 1940; for whites, the average was 2 years higher.

In the South, in 1950, 1 out of 5 Negro men reaching the age of 20 or 21 had left school before completing the fifth year, compared with 1 out of 20 Negro men of this age elsewhere in the country. The 1950 southern rate, however, represented a notable improvement in basic literacy in a generation. Of the southern Negro men aged 40 to 45 years in 1950, only half had completed as much as 5 years of school. Since farm children have traditionally spent fewer years at school than city children, the comparatively high school-leaving rate in the South, and the improvement recorded, may reflect in part both the extent to which Negroes are still concentrated in rural areas of the South (table 5), and the movement of large numbers into southern cities.

Table 20.--Median years of school completed by persons 25 years old and over, and 25 to 29 years old, by color and sex, 1940 to 1959

Date and age	Male		Female	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
<u>25 years and over</u>				
April 1940.....	8.7	5.4	8.8	6.1
April 1947.....	9.0	6.6	9.7	7.2
October 1952.....	10.1	6.8	10.8	7.4
March 1957.....	10.7	7.3	11.3	8.1
March 1959.....	11.1	7.6	11.6	8.4
Increase, 1940 to 1959.....	2.4	2.2	2.8	2.3
<u>25 to 29 years</u>				
April 1940.....	10.5	6.5	10.9	7.5
March 1957.....	12.3	9.4	12.3	10.3
March 1959.....	12.5	10.9	12.4	11.0
Increase, 1940 to 1959.....	2.0	4.4	1.5	3.5

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

Thus, as indicated in the accompanying tables, progress, especially in the South, has brought the Negro level of literacy, school attendance, and expenditure per pupil ever closer to that of whites.

School Expenditures

Many of the Southern States, which have proportionately large numbers of Negro children, maintain two sets of schools, one for each race. These States also, in many cases, have incomes below the national average. Thus, although many of the Southern States have for years expended a larger share of their incomes on education than have many Northern States, southern expenditure per pupil has generally remained below the national average.

The efforts made by Southern States to raise the level of education for both white and Negro children is reflected in the increasing expenditures for instruction made in the States shown in table 21. Between the school years 1939-40 and 1953-54, each of these States increased its expenditure per pupil by a percentage well over the U.S. average increase of 179 percent, and the increase was greater for Negro than for white schools. (Office of Education surveys since 1953-54 have not obtained data by race.) While expenditure per white pupil rose by 204 to 298 percent in the various States, expenditure per Negro pupil rose from 402 to 728 percent. In North Carolina, Florida, and Alabama, the effect was to raise the average instruction expenditure per pupil in Negro public schools to more than 90 percent of the rate in white schools. In Mississippi, on the other hand, a very large percentage increase brought the average expenditure per pupil in Negro schools up to no more than 44 percent of the rate for whites. In none of the States listed did 1953-54 expenditures for either Negro or white children reach as high as the national average, \$177.52 per year.

Table 21.--Expenditure for instruction per pupil in average daily attendance in white and Negro public elementary and secondary schools, United States and selected States, school years 1939-40 and 1953-54

State	1939-40 ¹			1953-54			Percent Increase 1939-40 to 1953-54	
	White	Negro	Negro as percent of white	White	Negro	Negro as percent of white	White	Negro
United States.....		\$63.66		\$177.52			178.9	
North Carolina.....	\$34.27	\$24.89	72.6	\$132.46 (¹)	\$124.85 (¹)	94.3 (¹)	286.5	401.6
Georgia.....	42.34	15.98	37.7	175.92	160.61	91.3	--	--
Florida.....	51.80	23.09	44.6	111.99	105.02	93.8	239.6	595.6
Alabama.....	34.90	12.68	36.3	98.15	43.17	44.0	220.9	728.2
Mississippi.....	31.24	6.66	21.3	99.08	71.78	72.4	214.2	548.2
Arkansas.....	24.87	12.18	49.0	165.08	122.07	73.9	298.4	489.3
Louisiana.....	54.37	16.13	29.7				203.6	656.8

¹ Not available.

Note: The cost of instruction includes salaries, free text books, teaching supplies, school library books, and other instructional supplies and expenses. United States figures cover the 48 States and the District of Columbia.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Data for 1953-54 are from Statistics of State School Systems, Organization, Staff, Pupils, and Finances, 1953-54. (Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1952-54, ch. 2. p. 114, table 48.)

Desegregation of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools

States that maintained segregated public elementary and high schools were affected by Supreme Court decisions of 1954 holding that "in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal;" and that "segregation in public education is not reasonably related to any proper governmental objective."¹ In 1955, the Supreme Court further held that "a prompt and reasonable start" must be made on the process of desegregation; but that once such a start had been made, in good faith, additional time to carry out the ruling might be allowed if the courts considered it necessary. Desegregation was to proceed, the Court ordered, "with all deliberate speed."²

In effect, every variety of compliance and noncompliance with these decisions can be found in 1960. (See table 16, pp. 21-22, for overall view. The District of Columbia is counted in the following paragraphs as a State.) Thirty-three of the 51 States have long had integrated public schools, though before the Supreme Court decisions 4 States--Kansas, Arizona, New Mexico, and Wyoming--had permitted segregation on an optional basis. These statutes have since been repealed or locally ruled invalid. Since the Supreme Court decisions, West Virginia and Washington, D. C., have completely desegregated their schools. Six other States have integrated a substantial portion of the schools (table 16); five have made a small beginning; in five others, no public school desegregation has occurred. Despite State laws to the contrary, some schools in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, California, and perhaps other Northern and Western States were still kept segregated within recent years. Most such practices are believed to have been stopped, but perhaps not all. By the end of 1959, four States (Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Washington) had established administrative agencies to enforce laws against discrimination in education; a number of States had passed laws of more limited scope.

In the 1959-60 school term, about 17 percent of the Negro public school children in 17 Southern and border States were in school districts that had been desegregated (table 22). Only 6 percent were actually at school with whites, however, partly because many children lived in virtually all-Negro districts, and partly for other reasons. A school in an entirely Negro or an entirely white residential area, though in principle desegregated, may actually serve only Negro or only white children. There are many such cases; see, e. g., figures for the District of Columbia, columns 7 and 8, table 22. The degree of integration in districts in which both races live is therefore of special significance (columns 2 and 3 of table 22).

The half-million children living in districts that have been desegregated are largely in the border States, and particularly in the cities, such as Wilmington, Del., Baltimore, Washington, Louisville, St. Louis, and Kansas City.

More than 200 anti-desegregation laws have been adopted by southern legislatures since 1954. Such laws provide among other things for closing public schools, if necessary, to prevent their integration (and some schools were closed in 1959-60); for assignment of pupils to specific schools as directed by the school board or other authority, with an apparent view to enabling school boards to maintain segregation; and for abolition of compulsory attendance requirements. It is considered likely that court tests of such laws will be numerous,

¹Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 347 U.S. 495 (1954); Bolling v. Sharpe, 347 U.S. 497 (1954).

²Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 349 U.S. 294, 295 (1955).

Table 22.--Number of public school districts and public elementary and secondary school enrollment in Southern and Border States, school year 1959-60

State	School districts			Enrollment				
	Total (1)	Biracial (2)	Deseg- regated (3)	Total (4)	Negroes			
					Total (5)	As percent of total enrolled (6)	In deseg- regated districts (7)	In schools with whites (8)
Total.....	7,018	2,849	748	12,940,353	3,039,043	23.5	524,425	182,104
Missouri.....	2,143	214	200	820,000	1 82,000	10.0	1 74,480	1 35,000
Delaware.....	94	51	19	77,761	14,277	18.4	7,576	6,328
Maryland.....	24	23	23	581,092	126,678	21.8	1 118,500	28,072
District of Columbia.....	1	1	1	117,884	90,403	76.7	90,403	74,242
Virginia.....	129	128	6	820,578	203,229	24.8	21,743	103
West Virginia.....	55	43	43	451,874	24,010	5.3	24,010	1 12,000
North Carolina.....	174	174	7	1,118,742	302,060	27.0	43,506	34
South Carolina.....	108	108	0	600,509	255,616	42.6	0	0
Georgia.....	198	196	0	978,534	310,753	31.8	0	0
Florida.....	67	67	1	919,491	192,093	20.9	25,881	512
Kentucky.....	215	172	123	611,138	42,778	7.0	1 32,000	1 12,000
Tennessee.....	153	142	4	815,000	146,700	18.0	13,576	169
Alabama.....	113	113	0	790,000	292,300	37.0	0	0
Mississippi.....	151	151	0	555,173	271,671	48.9	0	0
Arkansas.....	422	228	9	420,011	104,205	24.8	9,750	98
Louisiana.....	67	67	0	674,054	261,491	38.8	0	0
Oklahoma.....	1,323	251	187	525,401	39,405	7.5	1 30,000	1 10,246
Texas.....	1,581	720	125	2,063,111	1 279,374	13.5	1 33,000	1 3,300

¹ Estimated.

Source: Southern School News, February and April 1960. Totals and percentages calculated by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

possibly for several years. The grade-a-year desegregation plan of some States was also attacked, as in Delaware in 1959, as being too slow.

Higher Education

After a series of lawsuits in Southern States, Negroes began to be admitted to formerly all-white institutions of higher education in all except four. Integration at the college level began before the U. S. Supreme Court's 1954 decision, and has proceeded faster than desegregation in the lower schools. In several States, a court order granting the petition of a Negro student for admittance to the previously all-white State university was followed by quick desegregation of other tax-supported institutions. In some States, private institutions had taken action first; in others, they slowly followed the lead of the public schools. In most States, desegregation began at the graduate level and was extended later to undergraduates.

Some institutions have remained all-white or all-Negro despite the State's policy of integration, having received no applications from members of the other race. This occurs chiefly at colleges located in an all-white or all-Negro area.

Segregation was ended in all District of Columbia colleges and universities by 1954. It has ended also in Oklahoma. Both the colleges in Delaware, originally for whites and Negroes respectively, now accept students of either race. In Maryland, all except a few private commercial colleges had been desegregated by 1959. In West Virginia and in Missouri, all of the public and all or nearly all the private colleges are open to Negroes as well as whites. In Kentucky and Arkansas, public institutions are open to both races. Eight of Louisiana's 18 public and private universities and colleges were desegregated by 1959. Half the Texas colleges have desegregated, but actual integration is limited. In Virginia, North Carolina, Florida, and Tennessee, though some Negro students have been admitted to white institutions of higher learning, the number is still very small. In South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, all State institutions and virtually all the private colleges are still completely segregated.

Negroes have taken increasing advantage of growing opportunities for higher education. From 1930 to 1956, the number of nonwhites in colleges or professional schools rose at a much faster rate even than the number of whites (table 23). The rate of increase slowed in 1956-58.

In spite of growing opportunity, it is still true that proportionately fewer Negroes than whites go on to advanced university study. The reasons, which are many, include the poorer economic status of Negro families; family influence; lack of motivation; inadequate counseling; and also the poorer primary and secondary schools usually maintained for Negroes in States having segregated systems, schools which do not offer adequate preparation for college.

For current data on education in southern States, see: Southern School News, published monthly in Nashville. For statistics covering chiefly 1952-57, see: Southern Education Reporting Service, Southern Schools: Progress and Problems, Nashville, Tennessee Book Co., 1959.

Table 23.--Enrollment in college or professional school,
1930-58

Year	Total	Nonwhite
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
	Percent increase	
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 non-white college enrollment not available for 1930.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.