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WHITE-NONWHITE DIFFERENTIALS IN HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE

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THIS COLLECTION CONTAINS SEVEN PAPERS OF ANALYSES OF WHITE-NONWHITE DIFFERENTIALS IN HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. NONWHITES MAKE UP ALMOST 12 PERCENT OF THE POPULATION, 92 PERCENT OF WHOM ARE NEGROES. THE FERTILITY OF NONWHITES IS HIGHER, ESPECIALLY AMONG THE RURAL, LESS EDUCATED GROUP, BUT THE BIRTH RATE SEEMS TO BE FALLING FASTER, MOST NOTICEABLY IN URBAN AREAS. THERE IS A RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXTENT OF EDUCATION AND BIRTH RATE AMONG BOTH RACES, WHO HAVE COMPARABLE RATES WHEN THEIR EDUCATIONAL STATUS IS THE SAME. THE GAP BETWEEN NONWHITE AND WHITE LIFE EXPECTANCY HAS NARROWED TO 10 PERCENT, ALTHOUGH THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MATERNAL AND INFANT DEATH RATES REMAIN QUITE HIGH. THIS DIFFERENTIAL MAY BE EXPLAINED BY HEREDITARY FACTORS, THE AVAILABILITY AND UTILIZATION OF MEDICAL SERVICES, WHICH IN TURN IS RELATED TO SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS, AND PERSONAL MOTIVATION. DATA ALSO SHOW THAT THE RATE OF MEDICAL SERVICES AMONG NONWHITES IS LOWER THAN AMONG WHITES AND THAT FAMILY INCOME HAS A SIGNIFICANT ROLE. MORE NONWHITES THAN WHITES ARE BELOW GRADE LEVEL, DROP OUT MORE FREQUENTLY, ACHIEVE LESS ACADEMICALLY, AND COMPLETE FEWER YEARS OF SCHOOLING. NEGROES ARE ONLY 5.7 PERCENT OF THOSE RECEIVING HIGHER EDUCATION. THREE TIMES AS MANY NONWHITES AS WHITES HAVE AN INCOME LESS THAN \$3,000 ANNUALLY. HOUSING CONDITIONS ARE TWICE AS GOOD FOR WHITES THAN FOR NONWHITES. THIS REPRINT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE INDICATORS, FEBRUARY-OCTOBER, 1965 IS AVAILABLE FROM SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, WASHINGTON, D.C., 20402 FOR \$0.50. (NH)

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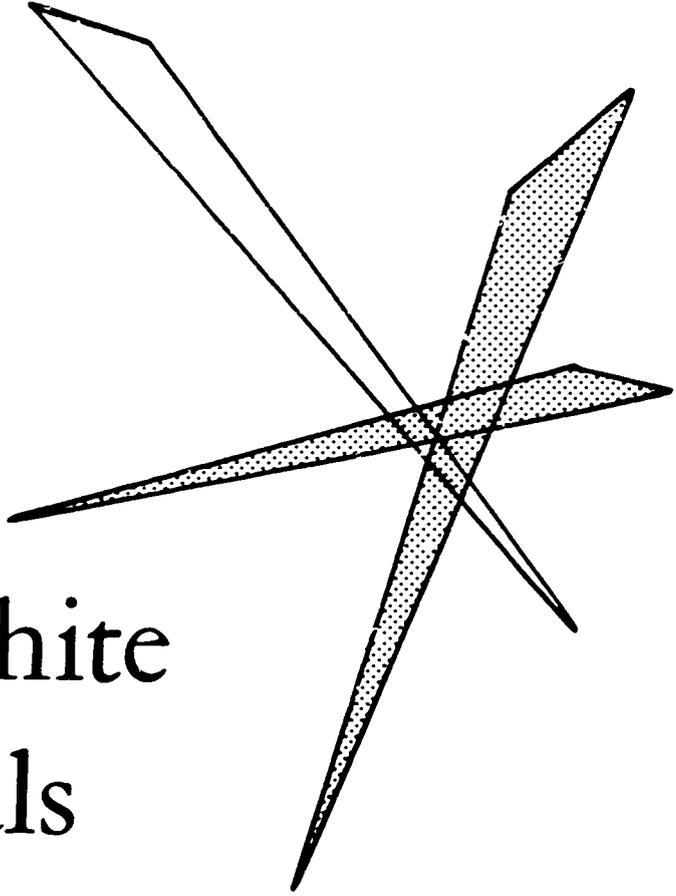
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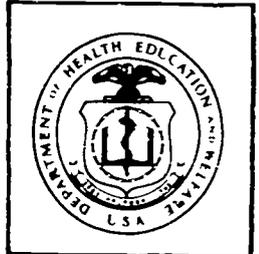
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White-Nonwhite Differentials in Health, Education, and Welfare

UD 004 976



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of the Under Secretary



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WHITE-NONWHITE DIFFERENTIALS IN HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Table of Contents

	Page
PREFACE	i
HIGHLIGHTS OF WHITE-NONWHITE DIFFERENTIALS.	iii
HEALTH	
White-Nonwhite Fertility Differentials in the United States	1
White-Nonwhite Mortality Differentials in the United States	16
Disability and Medical Care Among Whites and Nonwhites in the United States	27
EDUCATION	
Faculty in White and Negro Colleges	37
Library Resources and Services in White and Negro Colleges	52
WELFARE	
Levels of Living Among Whites and Nonwhites	56
CIVIL RIGHTS	
The Civil Rights Act of 1964	66

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PREFACE

Data that are analyzed along the lines of "white-nonwhite differentials" can: (1) indicate the general situation in health, education, and welfare in the United States today, (2) identify areas for public and private actions to rectify imbalances, and (3) provide benchmarks for ascertaining degrees of progress toward achieving political, economic, and social goals for all regardless of "color or race."

Within this framework, the Office of Program Analysis about 18 months ago began to bring together and analyze available white-nonwhite data. Resulting articles have been published in HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE INDICATORS and are now compiled in this publication. Wherever possible, data were sought by education and income--as indicators of socioeconomic status. Moreover, data have been age-adjusted to permit more accurate comparisons.

The data spelled out in the pages that follow, point out that in the total U.S. population white-nonwhite differentials do exist. They also suggest that differentials decrease with increasing education and income. A brief summary of the seven papers in this compilation is contained in the "Highlights" that follow.



Wilbur J. Cohen,
Under Secretary

HIGHLIGHTS OF WHITE-NONWHITE DIFFERENTIALS

Earl E. Huyck

Measurable white-nonwhite differentials in the broad areas of health, education, and welfare are the "outwards and visibles" of underlying human problems which are more concentrated and of greater intensity among nonwhites than among whites.

No amount of statistical analyses can provide answers in the civil rights field. Only changed attitudes and the willingness to undertake constructive and enduring action can bring about change. Statistical data within this framework can then be useful measures in determining where and to what degree progress--or the lack of progress--has occurred.

Some of the differentials, presented in greater detail in the articles, are highlighted here to show their extent and degree:

Population

- . In 1964 the 22.6 million nonwhites comprised 11.8 percent of the total resident population of the United States. Negroes account for about 92 percent of the nonwhite population.

Births

- . While nonwhite fertility continues to exceed that of whites, it is the rural, less educated group which has contributed, and continues to contribute, disproportionately to fertility. There is some evidence that nonwhite birth rates are falling somewhat faster than white rates. The adjustment to urban life, currently in process, has been marked by lower fertility and more sophisticated and effective patterns of fertility control. For nonwhites the decline in births will continue along with the general improvement in social conditions and the impact of urban living.
- . With nonwhites, as with whites, the higher the education, the fewer the births. Nonwhites with four years of high school completed have the same number of births as comparably educated whites, and nonwhites with four years of college completed have fewer babies than have whites of the same educational attainment.

Dr. Huyck, on the Staff of the Under Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, is Editor of *Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators*.

Deaths and Life Expectancy

- Life expectancy for the nonwhite population has been invariably shorter than that for the white population, but the gap has decreased. In 1960 life expectancy among nonwhites was 31 percent less (33.0 years and 47.6 years, respectively). In 1963, this relative difference was only 10 percent, and the life expectancy was 63.6 years for the nonwhite population and 70.8 years for the white population.
- Maternal and infant death rates are sensitive socioeconomic indicators. In 1963 white and nonwhite rates were respectively:
 - 24.2 and 98.1 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births;
 - 16.7 and 26.1 neonatal (under 28 days) deaths per 1,000 live births; and
 - 5.5 and 15.4 postneonatal (28 days through 11 months) deaths per 1,000 live births.
- The proportion of births delivered in hospitals has been rising; by 1963 seven out of eight nonwhite mothers were attended at birth by physicians in hospitals. The greater postneonatal differential than neonatal differential reflects, among other factors, poor conditions among nonwhites in the home environment.
- Over the years mortality among the nonwhite population has been consistently higher for most causes of death. Among the highest ratios of nonwhite to white mortality are found tuberculosis, influenza and pneumonia, and vascular lesions affecting the central nervous system.
- The differentials in mortality between the white and nonwhite populations are the end product of a multi-dimensional problem. The many facets include hereditary factors, the distribution and availability of medical facilities and services, socioeconomic factors which affect the utilization of available medical services, and the personal motivation to achieve a state of positive health.

Health Services

- Data collected in the Health Interview Survey of the U.S. Public Health Service show that the rates of physician visits, dental visits, and hospital services are lower in the nonwhite population than in the white population. However, within specific income groups in the two populations, differences between the white and nonwhite populations tend to decrease.
- One in three visits among nonwhites--but only one in ten visits among whites--occurred in a hospital outpatient clinic. As family income increased there was a consistent increase for both groups in the proportion of visits occurring in the doctor's office.

School Retardation, Dropouts, and Educational Attainment as of 1960

- . Nonwhites have tended to be below grade level for their age in school, to drop out of school more frequently, and to have lower educational attainment than whites.
- . Among 14 and 15 year olds, 12 percent of whites and 30 percent of nonwhites were in grades below the normal span for their age.
- . Among males 16-24 years of age, 26 percent of whites and 44 percent of nonwhites were school dropouts.
- . Among males 25-29 years of age, 60 percent of whites and 36 percent of nonwhites had completed 12 or more years of school.

Higher Education

- . To place in perspective the data appearing in "Faculty in White and Negro Colleges," Census Bureau estimates indicate that in 1964 nonwhites comprised 12.0 percent of the population in the college age group 20-24. In the somewhat broader 18-24 age group, nonwhites comprised only 5.7 percent of the 3.57 million persons enrolled in colleges or professional schools.
- . Two-thirds of Negro college students attend predominantly Negro institutions. By most indices--including faculty qualifications, subject matter taught, degrees conferred, and libraries--predominantly Negro colleges and universities fall below predominantly white institutions in academic standards.

Income and Levels of Living

- . Of total households in 1960, 12 percent of white households and 37 percent of nonwhite households had a 1959 family income of less than \$3,000. At the other end of the income scale, 43 percent of white households and only 15 percent of nonwhite households had a family income of \$7,000 or more.
- . Housing in sound condition, hot piped water inside the structure, availability of an automobile, and availability of a telephone are measures of the U.S. level of living. In 1960 twice as many white households as nonwhite households--72 percent and 35 percent--had these items.

WHITE-NONWHITE FERTILITY DIFFERENTIALS IN THE UNITED STATES

Anders S. Lunde

Of the over 4 million total births in the United States in 1963, one out of every six was nonwhite (Table 1). The overwhelming proportion of nonwhite births, 90.9 percent, was Negro. Of the remaining nonwhites, 3.5 percent were American Indian; 1.7 percent, Japanese; about 0.9 percent, Chinese; and the remaining 2.9 percent included all other races or non-specified groups. Because of the large proportion of Negro births, for statistical purposes the term "nonwhite" refers mainly to Negroes. There were, however, more American Indian births than Negro births in 10 States (Alaska, Arizona, Idaho, Minnesota, Montana, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah and Wyoming). And in Hawaii there were relatively more births to parents of Japanese and Chinese ancestry.

The nonwhite proportion of total births has increased gradually during the last five decades, from 13 percent in 1920 to 16 percent in 1963. In 1960 the nonwhite population accounted for 11.4 percent of the total population but 15.8 percent of all births (Table 2).

The Higher Nonwhite Fertility

All fertility measures in which whites and nonwhites are compared indicate consistently higher rates for nonwhites than for whites. The nonwhite crude birth rate in 1963 was 29.7 births per 1,000 population as compared to 20.7 for whites. The nonwhite fertility rate was then 144.8 births per thousand nonwhite women aged 15-44 years--40 percent higher than the 103.7 births per 1,000 white women in this age group.

That the nonwhite group in the population is reproducing itself at a higher rate is illustrated by the white-nonwhite differences in the gross reproduction rate, a measure of the extent to which a group replaces itself representing the average number of daughters that a hypothetical cohort of women starting life together would bear if they experienced the age-specific fertility rates of a given year and all survived from birth to the end of the childbearing period. In 1963, the nonwhite gross repro-

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Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators, Sept. 1965

Table 2
Births (Thousands)

Year	Total Births ^{1/}	White		Nonwhite	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1920	2,950	2,566	87.0	383	13.0
1930	2,618	2,274	86.9	344	13.1
1940	2,559	2,199	85.9	360	14.1
1950	3,632	3,108	85.6	524	14.4
1960	4,307	3,625	84.2	682	15.8
1961	4,316	3,625	84.0	691	16.0
1962	4,213	3,530	83.8	683	16.2
1963	4,142	3,462	83.6	679	16.4

^{1/}Frequencies for 1960-1963 differ from published data, because births here have been adjusted (a) for underregistration and (b) for estimated number of births for New Jersey, which made no provision for white-nonwhite distinction on the birth certificate in 1962 and 1963.

Table 1
LIVE BIRTHS, BIRTH RATES, AND FERTILITY RATES, UNITED STATES

Year	Births								
	Number ^{1/} (in thousands)			Per 1,000 population ^{2/}			Per 1,000 females 15-44		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
1909...	2,718	2,344	---	30.0	29.2	---	126.8	123.6	---
1910...	2,777	2,401	---	30.1	29.2	---	126.8	123.8	---
1911...	2,809	2,435	---	29.9	29.1	---	126.3	123.6	---
1912...	2,840	2,467	---	29.8	29.0	---	125.8	123.3	---
1913...	2,869	2,497	---	29.5	28.8	---	124.7	122.4	---
1914...	2,966	2,588	---	29.9	29.3	---	126.6	124.6	---
1915...	2,965	2,594	---	29.5	28.9	---	125.0	123.2	---
1916...	2,964	2,599	---	29.1	28.5	---	123.4	121.8	---
1917...	2,944	2,587	357	28.5	27.9	32.9	121.0	---	---
1918...	2,948	2,588	360	28.2	27.6	33.0	119.8	---	---
1919...	2,740	2,387	353	26.1	25.3	32.4	111.2	---	---
1920...	2,950	2,566	383	27.7	26.9	35.0	117.9	115.4	137.5
1921...	3,055	2,657	398	28.1	27.3	35.8	119.8	117.2	140.8
1922...	2,882	2,507	375	26.2	25.4	33.2	111.2	108.8	130.8
1923...	2,910	2,531	380	26.0	25.2	33.2	110.5	108.0	130.5
1924...	2,979	2,577	401	26.1	25.1	34.6	110.9	107.8	135.6
1925...	2,909	2,506	403	25.1	24.1	34.2	106.6	103.3	134.0
1926...	2,839	2,441	398	24.2	23.1	33.4	102.6	99.2	130.3
1927...	2,802	2,425	377	23.5	22.7	31.1	99.8	97.1	121.7
1928...	2,674	2,325	349	22.2	21.5	28.5	93.8	91.7	111.0
1929...	2,582	2,244	339	21.2	20.5	27.3	89.3	87.3	106.1
1930...	2,618	2,274	344	21.3	20.6	27.5	89.2	87.1	105.9
1931...	2,506	2,170	335	20.2	19.5	26.6	84.6	82.4	102.1
1932...	2,440	2,099	341	19.5	18.7	26.9	81.7	79.0	103.0
1933...	2,307	1,982	325	18.4	17.6	25.5	76.3	73.7	97.3
1934...	2,396	2,058	338	19.0	18.1	26.3	78.5	75.8	100.4
1935...	2,377	2,042	334	18.7	17.9	25.0	77.2	74.5	98.4
1936...	2,355	2,027	328	18.4	17.6	25.1	75.8	73.3	95.9
1937...	2,413	2,071	342	18.7	17.9	26.0	77.1	74.4	99.4
1938...	2,496	2,148	348	19.2	18.4	26.3	79.1	76.5	100.5
1939...	2,466	2,117	349	18.8	18.0	26.1	77.6	74.8	100.1
1940...	2,559	2,199	360	19.4	18.6	26.7	79.9	77.1	102.4
1941...	2,703	2,330	374	20.3	19.5	27.3	83.4	80.7	105.4
1942...	2,989	2,605	384	22.2	21.5	27.7	91.5	89.5	107.6
1943...	3,104	2,704	400	22.7	22.1	28.3	94.3	92.3	111.0
1944...	2,939	2,545	394	21.2	20.5	27.4	88.8	86.3	108.5
1945...	2,858	2,471	388	20.4	19.7	26.5	85.9	83.4	106.0
1946...	3,411	2,990	420	24.1	23.6	28.4	101.9	100.4	113.9
1947...	3,817	3,347	469	26.6	26.1	31.2	113.3	111.8	125.9
1948...	3,637	3,141	495	24.9	24.0	32.4	107.3	104.3	131.6
1949...	3,649	3,136	513	24.5	23.6	33.0	107.1	103.6	135.1
1950...	3,632	3,108	524	24.1	23.0	33.3	106.2	102.3	137.3
1951...	3,823	3,277	546	24.9	23.9	33.8	111.5	107.7	142.1
1952...	3,913	3,358	555	25.1	24.1	33.6	113.9	110.1	143.3
1953...	3,965	3,389	575	25.1	24.0	34.1	115.2	111.0	147.3
1954...	4,078	3,475	603	25.3	24.2	34.9	118.1	113.6	153.2
1955...	4,104	3,488	617	25.0	23.8	34.7	118.5	113.8	155.3
1956...	4,218	3,573	645	25.2	24.0	35.4	121.2	116.0	160.9
1957...	4,308	3,648	660	25.3	24.0	35.3	122.9	117.7	163.0
1958...	4,255	3,598	657	24.5	23.3	34.3	120.2	114.9	160.5
1959...	4,295	3,622	673	24.3	23.1	34.2	120.2	114.0	162.2
1959...	4,245	3,597	647	24.0	22.9	32.9	118.8	113.9	156.0
1960...	4,258	3,601	657	23.7	22.7	32.1	118.0	113.2	153.6
1961...	4,268	3,601	667	23.3	22.2	31.6	117.2	112.2	153.5
1962 ^{3/} ...	4,167	3,394	642	22.4	21.4	30.5	112.1	107.5	148.7
1963 ^{3/} ...	4,098	3,326	639	21.7	20.7	29.7	108.4	103.7	144.8

^{1/} Births adjusted for underregistration 1909-1955, registered births 1959 to present. Data for 1951-1963, except for 1955, are based on a 50-percent sample of births. Limited to births occurring within the United States; Alaska included beginning 1959, and Hawaii, 1960. ^{2/} For 1917-1919 and 1941-1946, based on population including Armed Forces abroad. ^{3/} Figures by color exclude data for residents of New Jersey.

duction rate of 2,102 girls per 1,000 nonwhite women was 35 percent higher than the white rate of 1,556. Despite a greater nonwhite loss through mortality of both mothers and children, the nonwhite population has been replacing itself at a higher rate than the white population.

Data from the 1960 Census on children ever born to all women 15 years of age and over also indicate the greater fertility of the nonwhites. There were 2,339 children reported for every 1,000 nonwhite women and 2,041 children reported for every 1,000 white women. The white-nonwhite differences were least for urban women and greatest for rural farm women (Table 3).

The higher level of fertility of the nonwhites, together with a decline in nonwhite mortality, produced an unusually high rate of growth in the total nonwhite population in the last two decades. A preponderantly white immigration was a major factor in the greater growth of the white population prior to 1930. After 1930, with immigration a minor factor in population growth, the emphasis was reversed. Between 1940 and 1950, the nonwhite population increased by 17.2 percent as compared to 14.2 percent for the whites. Between 1950 and 1960, the two populations increased 26.7 percent and 17.5 percent, respectively (Table 4).

The difference in growth is illustrated by the excess of births over deaths (natural increase) for whites and nonwhites (Figure 1 and Table 5).

Table 3
Children Ever Born, 1960

Area	Total	White	Nonwhite
UNITED STATES	2,072	2,041	2,339
Urban.....	1,896	1,874	2,077
Rural Nonfarm.	2,456	2,400	3,028
Rural Farm....	2,755	2,672	3,492

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of the Population, Detailed Characteristics, PC (1)-1-D, Table 190.

Table 4
Intercensal Population Increase

	White		Nonwhite	
	Total (thousands)	Intercensal increase (percent)	Total (thousands)	Intercensal increase (percent)
1900.	66,869		9,344	
1910.	81,812	22.3	10,416	11.5
1920.	94,904	16.0	11,118	6.7
1930.	110,396	16.3	12,807	15.2
1940.	118,358	7.2	13,807	7.6
1950.	135,150	14.2	16,176	17.2
1960.	158,832	17.5	20,491	26.7

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of the Population, General Characteristics, PC (1)-1-B, Table 47.

Table 5
Rates of Births, Deaths, and Natural Increase^{1/}

Year	White rates			Nonwhite rates		
	Births	Deaths	Natural increase	Births	Deaths	Natural increase
1920..	26.9	12.6	14.3	35.0	17.7	17.3
1930..	20.6	10.8	9.8	27.5	16.3	11.2
1940..	18.6	10.4	8.2	26.7	13.8	12.9
1950..	23.0	9.5	13.5	33.3	11.2	22.1
1951..	23.9	9.5	14.4	33.8	11.1	22.7
1952..	24.1	9.4	14.7	33.6	11.0	22.6
1953..	24.0	9.4	14.6	34.1	10.8	23.3
1954..	24.2	9.2	15.1	34.9	10.1	24.8
1955..	23.8	9.2	14.6	34.7	10.0	24.7
1956..	24.7	9.3	14.7	35.4	10.1	25.3
1957..	24.0	9.5	14.5	35.3	10.5	24.8
1958..	23.3	9.4	13.9	34.3	10.3	24.0
1959..	22.9	9.3	13.6	32.9	9.9	23.0
1960..	22.7	9.5	13.2	32.1	10.1	22.0
1961..	22.2	9.3	12.9	31.6	9.6	22.0
1962..	21.4	9.4	12.0	30.5	9.8	20.7
1963..	20.7	9.5	11.2	29.7	10.1	19.6

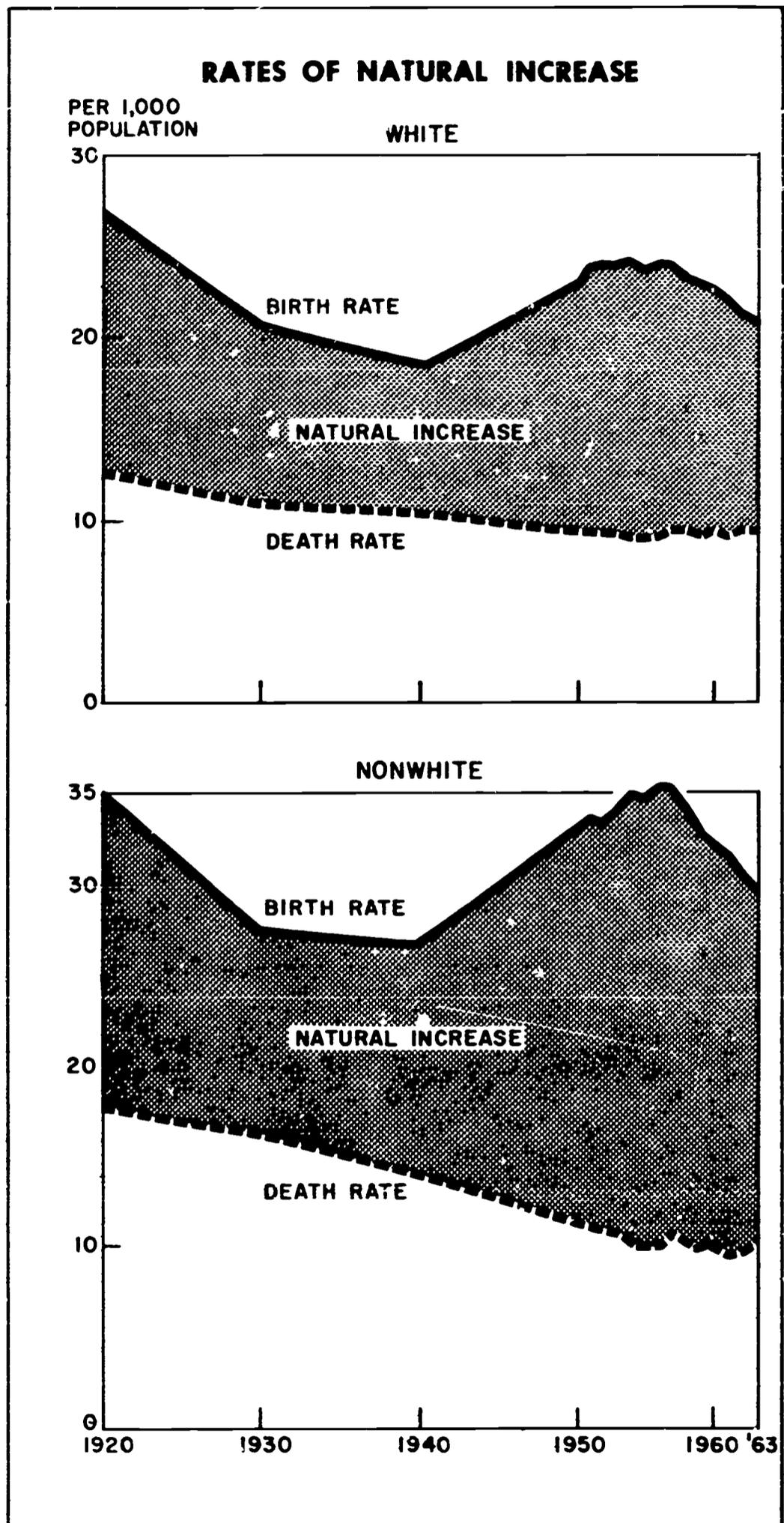
^{1/} 1920-1958 birth rates based on births adjusted for underregistration.

During the period 1951-60 the average annual rate of natural increase was 65.5 percent greater for nonwhites. The white rate declined after 1954 when the rate of natural increase was 15.1 per 1,000 population, and the nonwhite rate declined after 1956 when the rate was 25.3 per 1,000 population. The subsequent decline has also been greater for whites than for nonwhites. In 1963, the rate of natural increase was 11 per 1,000 population for whites as compared to 20 per 1,000 for nonwhites. The death rates for both groups have tended to converge, placing the emphasis on the birth rates for the rapid increase of the nonwhite population.

White-Nonwhite Trends in Births

The trend of both white and nonwhite births was remarkably parallel in the 20th Century until after World War II, with nonwhite crude rates about 6 points higher than white rates. After the peak year of 1947 the white rate declined-- but the nonwhite rate continued to rise. Between 1947 and 1957 the

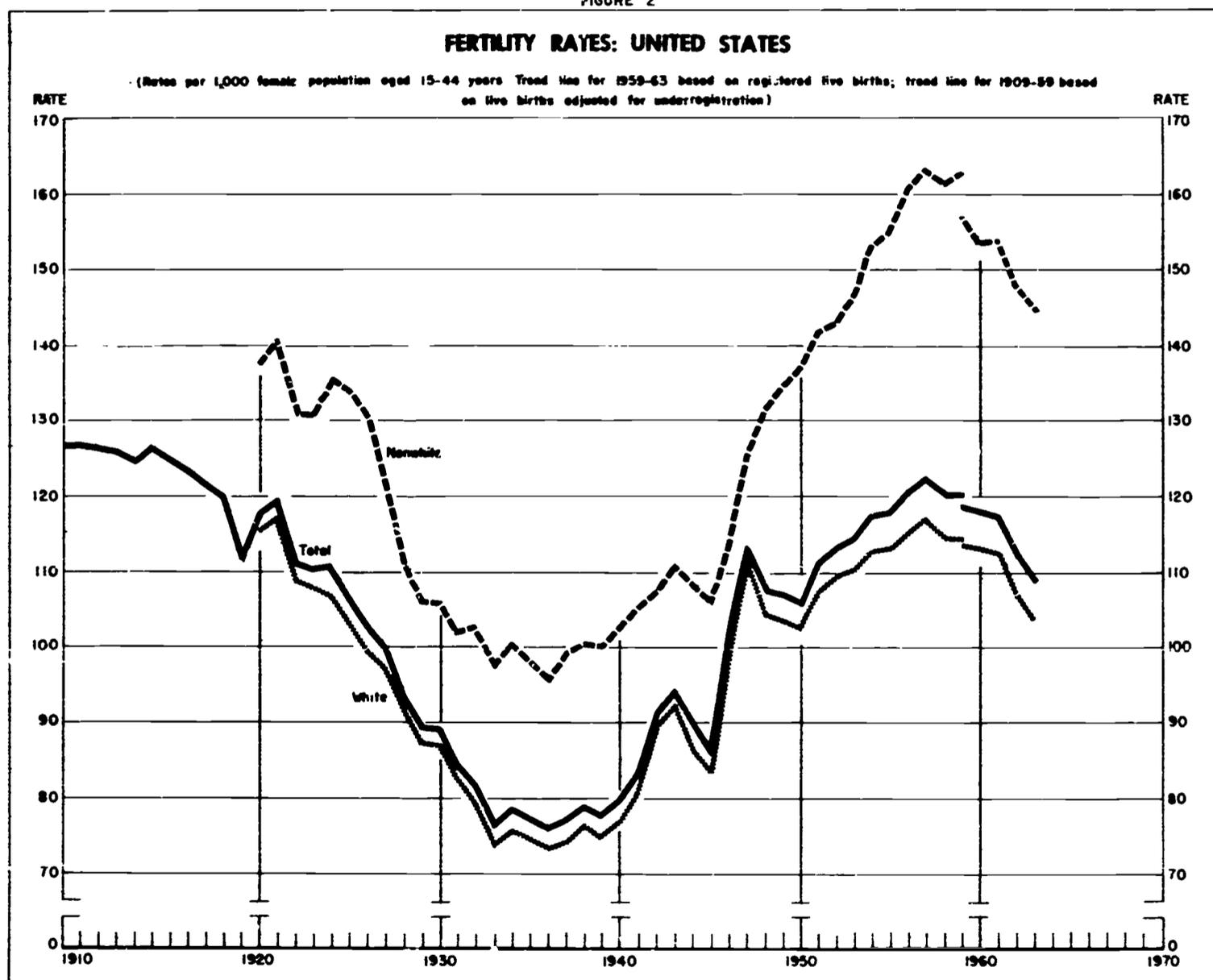
FIGURE 1



white rate dropped 2 points while the nonwhite rate increased by 4 points. After 1957 crude rates for both groups declined; by 1963 the white rates had dropped 3 points while the nonwhite rates had dropped 6 points.

The general fertility rates followed the same pattern (Figure 2). The white rate rose to a peak of 111.8 births per 1,000 women aged 15-44 years in 1947 and then fell to 102.3 births in 1950. The fertility rate for this group subsequently increased to a high of 117.7 births in 1957 and thereafter declined. The nonwhite rate, however, continued to rise after 1947, moving from 125.9 births per 1,000 women 15-44 in that year to a high of 163.0 in 1957. Since 1957 the fertility rates for both groups have declined, with those of nonwhites falling faster than those of whites; the drop between 1957 and 1963 was 14 births per 1,000 white women as compared to 18 births per 1,000 nonwhite women aged 15-44.

FIGURE 2



Factors in the Trend of Nonwhite Fertility

It is not possible to determine all the factors involved in the radical divergence of nonwhite rates from white rates between 1947 and 1957. The increase occurred under circumstances that might better have explained

a decline in fertility, because the period was characterized by a continuing urbanization of the nonwhites, advancement in educational attainment, and improvement in health and general social conditions. One major factor in the increase of the nonwhite rate was a remarkable decline in childlessness among ever-married women. In 1940 the proportion of nonwhite women who were childless was extremely high, especially in urban areas. This was undoubtedly related to the considerable Negro migration to urban centers, both north and south, involving large numbers of single persons and childless couples. Adjustment of the lower socio-economic classes to urban life created some personal and family disorganization as evidenced by various health problems including widespread venereal disease. The increased control of venereal disease after World War II and the improvement in the general physical health of nonwhites was a factor in the reduction of childlessness and in the related increase in fertility of young couples.

The proportions childless were consistently larger in 1940 than in 1910, but between 1940 and 1950 there was a sharp drop in this proportion among younger women (Table 6). By 1960 the drop was quite pronounced, and the proportion of childless women under 35 years of age was considerably below those in 1910. A significant but less pronounced decrease in the proportion of young childless white women also took place between 1940 and 1960.

Table 6
Percent Childless Among Ever-Married Women

Age of woman	White				Nonwhite			
	1910	1940	1950	1960	1910	1940	1950	1960
15-19	43.5	56.2	55.4	46.0	39.5	47.0	38.1	26.7
20-24	24.2	40.1	34.0	25.0	24.1	38.3	28.6	17.7
25-29	16.8	29.5	20.1	12.3	19.5	34.1	29.6	14.4
30-34	13.4	22.4	15.8	9.7	16.4	30.8	30.2	15.6
35-39	11.5	18.7	17.5	10.2	13.2	28.6	31.9	18.9
40-44	10.4	16.5	18.9	13.0	10.4	25.4	29.6	23.6
45-49	9.6	16.1	19.5	17.1	8.7	23.4	28.1	26.7
50-54	9.0	16.3	18.0	20.0	7.8	19.4	25.1	28.1
55-59	8.4	16.5	16.9	20.0	7.0	19.1	24.1	27.0

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population: Differential Fertility, 1940 and 1910*, "Fertility by States and Large Cities," Table 3, *Fertility--Special Report*, P-E, No. 5-C, Tables 4 and 6, 1950, and 1960 *Census of the Population, Detailed Characteristics*, PC (1)-1-D.

Factors in the decline of nonwhite fertility since 1957 are also difficult to determine with precision. The Negro migration to urban centers reduced the rural agricultural Negro population--by 1960, some 58 percent of the southern Negroes lived in cities and 73 percent of all Negroes were urban residents. Moreover, the character of Negro migration has changed; today the movement is that of a highly urbanized population redistributing itself. The Negro has moved from areas of high fertility to areas of low fertility and has become involved to a greater degree than in past years with those urban influences which tend to produce smaller families.

Improvements in Negro education in both the south and north have tended to reduce fertility. With nonwhites, as with whites, the higher the education, the fewer the births. Nonwhites with four years of college completed have fewer babies than whites, and nonwhites with four years of high school completed have about the same number of babies as whites,

according to Census data (Table 7). It is the rural, less educated group which has contributed, and continues to contribute, excessively to fertility. The adjustment to urban life, currently in process, has included the adoption of white standards of lower fertility and more sophisticated and effective patterns of fertility control.

Table 7
Number of Children by Completed Education of Mother, 1960

Age of mother	Rates per 1,000							
	Total women				Ever-married women			
	Elementary school	High school	College		Elementary school	High school	College	
			4 years	5 or more			4 years	5 or more
White								
15-19 .	154	121	--	--	965	470	--	--
20-24 .	1,581	912	306	216	1,891	1,202	543	456
25-29 .	2,371	1,894	1,194	689	2,563	2,064	1,445	1,039
30-34 .	2,677	2,294	2,008	1,342	2,829	2,435	2,244	1,798
35-39 .	2,750	2,320	2,212	1,558	2,892	2,450	2,445	2,072
40-44 .	2,636	2,148	2,044	1,477	2,769	2,275	2,278	1,969
45-49 .	2,475	1,879	1,679	1,201	2,601	2,013	1,900	1,652
Nonwhite								
15-19 .	202	193	--	--	1,368	917	--	--
20-24 .	1,768	954	334	257	2,451	1,530	738	746
25-29 .	2,843	1,904	953	613	3,311	2,249	1,264	974
30-34 .	3,148	2,309	1,492	1,103	3,468	2,574	1,691	1,400
35-39 .	3,042	2,280	1,675	1,227	3,271	2,457	1,877	1,461
40-44 .	2,835	2,117	1,567	1,113	3,004	2,252	1,733	1,267
45-49 .	2,626	1,870	1,255	877	2,767	2,021	1,394	966

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; 1960 Census of the Population, Women by Number of Children Ever Born; PC (2)-3A, Table 25. Based on 5 percent sample.

While nonwhite fertility continues to exceed that of whites, present indications are that rates will resume the parallel course maintained prior to 1947--both groups will tend to respond to similar social experiences. There is some evidence that nonwhite birth rates are falling somewhat faster than white rates. If this trend continues, the nonwhite and white rates may eventually converge. Increased educational and occupational opportunity, stabilization of the family with a decrease in illegitimacy, the development of the small family ideal, and a limitation of births through birth control are factors which would play a major role in this development.

Table 8
Children Ever Born Per 1,000 Mothers by Occupation of Husband, 1960

Lower fertility has been associated with higher occupational status and higher income among nonwhites as well as among whites (Tables 8 and 9). In families in which the father was a laborer, there was a pattern of early

Occupation of husband	Number of children ever born per 1,000 mothers					
	Mothers aged 20-24			Mothers aged 45-49		
	White	Nonwhite	Percent difference	White	Nonwhite	Percent difference
Professional, technical, and kindred workers....	1,580	1,781	12.7	2,446	2,932	19.9
Managers, officials, and proprietors (excluding farm).....	1,774	2,097	18.2	2,488	3,101	24.6
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	1,976	2,618	32.5	3,453	4,244	22.9
Farm laborers and foremen.....	2,129	2,974	39.7	4,605	5,570	21.0

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; 1960 Census of the Population, "Women by Number of Children Ever Born," PC (2)-3A, Tables 31 and 32. Based on 5 percent sample.

family formation for both groups as of 1960; fertility for mothers aged 20-24 was 33 percent to 40 percent higher for nonwhites than for whites. Wives of professional and technical workers and of managers, officials,

and proprietors had children somewhat later in life. By age 45-49, the end of the reproductive period, nonwhite fertility was still one-fifth to one-fourth higher than white fertility.

Income data show a similar pattern. Nonwhite mothers aged 45-49

with husbands in the under \$2,000 income cate-

gory had one-third more children, and those in the \$2,000 to \$3,000 bracket, more than one-fifth more children than white mothers. But in income brackets above \$3,000, nonwhite fertility dropped to 17-19 percent above white fertility. (The only exception was in the \$10,000 to \$15,000 bracket where the fertility differential was greater but the number of nonwhites was relatively small as of 1959.)

However, the influence of occupational and income factors is likely to be mitigated by the sheer weight of the numbers of nonwhites added to the population during the past two decades. The increase of nonwhite births since 1947 will add a continuing number of persons of marriageable age to the population. The increase of the nonwhite population of women in the younger childbearing ages may tend to maintain a high birth rate.

Women of all ages contributed to the decline after 1957 (Table 10). Both white and nonwhite age-specific rates followed the same declining pattern in all age classes.

For mothers aged 15-19, the decline between 1957 and 1963 was 20 percent; for mothers aged

20-24, the decline was 11 per-

cent for whites and 9 percent for nonwhites; and for mothers aged 25-29 the decline was around 7.5 percent for both groups.

Table 9
Children Ever Born Per 1,000 Mothers by Income of Husband in 1959

1959 income of husband (in dollars)	Number of children ever born per 1,000 mothers					
	Mothers aged 20-24			Mothers aged 45-49		
	White	Nonwhite	Percent difference	White	Nonwhite	Percent difference
None	1,795	2,320	29.2	3,447	4,614	33.9
\$1 - 1,999	1,824	2,605	42.8	3,624	4,840	33.6
\$2,000 - 2,999 ..	1,809	2,452	35.5	3,331	4,073	22.3
\$3,000 - 3,999 ..	1,809	2,349	29.9	3,086	3,612	17.0
\$4,000 - 4,999 ..	1,811	2,343	29.4	2,869	3,349	16.7
\$5,000 - 6,999 ..	1,862	2,308	24.0	2,671	3,174	18.8
\$7,000 - 9,999 ..	1,894	2,174	14.8	2,522	2,992	18.6
\$10,000-14,999 ..	1,879	--	--	2,490	3,344	34.3
\$15,000 and over	1,869	--	--	2,513	2,943	17.1

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of the Population, "Women by Number of Children Ever Born," Table 37. Based on 5 percent sample.

Table 10
Percent Decline in Birth Rates by Age of Mother, 1957-1963

Age of mother	White			Nonwhite		
	1957	1963	Decline (percent)	1957	1963	Decline (percent)
15-44	117.7	103.7	11.9	163.0	144.8	11.2
15-19	85.2	68.2	20.0	172.8	139.9	19.0
20-24	253.8	224.9	11.4	307.0	278.1	9.4
25-29	195.8	181.2	7.5	228.1	211.2	7.4
30-34	115.9	102.3	11.7	143.5	128.9	10.2
35-39	57.4	48.8	15.0	78.7	68.9	12.5
40-44	15.4	13.4	13.0	23.5	21.0	10.6

WHITE-NONWHITE DIFFERENCES BY CHARACTERISTICS AT BIRTH

Age of Mother

Nonwhite mothers are younger than white mothers, on the average. In 1963 the median age for white mothers was 25.1; for nonwhite mothers, 24.4. Nonwhite mothers having their first child averaged 19.5 years of age as compared to 21.6 years of age for white mothers. A similar difference in ages pertains through all distributions by live-birth order.

Age-specific rates for nonwhites exceeded whites in every category, particularly in the youngest age class, 10-14, where fertility was 10 times higher for nonwhite mothers. It was more than twice as high in ages 15-19. While most births occurred to women aged 20-29, nonwhite mothers had 53 more births per 1,000 at ages 20-24 and 30 more births per 1,000 at ages 25-29.

FIGURE 3

Birth Order

Among white mothers, first, second, and third births accounted for 72 percent of all white births in 1963, and only 57 percent of all births to nonwhite women. Fifth and higher order births totaled almost one-third of all non-white births—almost twice the proportion for white women. In other words, nonwhite women bore proportionally more children in the higher-order groups than white women. Particularly after the fourth child, the white and nonwhite rates varied greatly (Figure 3 and Table 11). The nonwhite rates for fifth order births were almost twice as high as white rates; for sixth and seventh order births, almost three times as high; and for eighth and over, more than five times as high. Specifically, the white rate for sixth and seventh order births was 6.1 per 1,000 female population aged 15-44 and for nonwhites was 16.6 per 1,000. The rates for eighth and higher order births was 2.9 for whites and 15.1 for nonwhites.

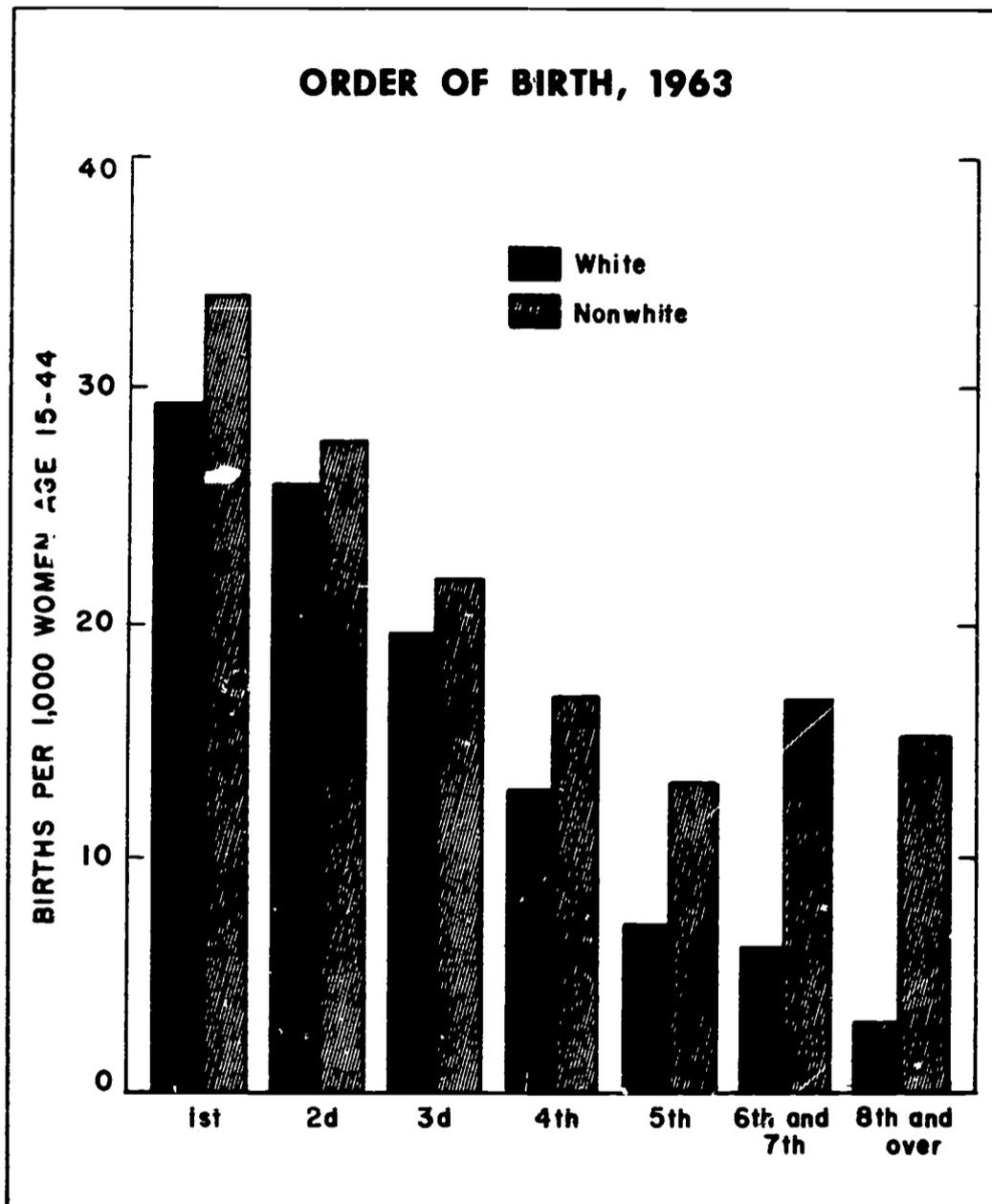


Table 11
Birth Rates by Live Birth Order, 1963
(Per 1,000 females aged 15-44 years)¹

Birth order	White	Nonwhite
All	103.7	144.8
First	29.4	33.8
Second	25.9	27.6
Third	19.6	21.8
Fourth	12.6	16.9
Fifth	7.1	13.1
Sixth and seventh ..	6.1	16.6
Eighth and over	2.9	15.1

¹ Excludes New Jersey, since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on birth certificate.

Nevertheless, live birth order fertility rates in recent years have dropped more precipitously for nonwhites than for whites in the higher birth orders. Since 1960, the white

rate for fifth order births has fluctuated and dropped slightly, and for sixth and seventh order births has changed somewhat. But nonwhite births in these categories show a distinct decline. While white rates for eighth births and over have remained the same since 1960, nonwhite rates have declined.

Birth Weight

On the whole, white babies are heavier at birth--in 1963 an average of 180 grams (6.3 ounces) more than nonwhite babies. The great majority of children born in 1963 (92 percent) weighed over 2,500 grams (5 lbs., 9 oz.). The remaining 8 percent, classed as immature births, represents special health problems, since a large number of infants dying within 28 days of births are immature at birth.

Twice as many nonwhite babies (14 percent) as white babies (7 percent) fell into the immature category. The percent of immature births was highest among very young mothers, under 20 years of age. About 37 percent of all births to nonwhite mothers under 20 were immature as compared to only 12 percent of all births to white mothers.

Since 1950, when birth weight statistics became available for the Nation as a whole, the proportion of immature live births has gradually increased, due primarily to the changing weight among nonwhite births. The proportion of all white babies that is immature has been fairly stable, between 6.8 and 7.1 percent. The proportion immature among nonwhite babies, however, rose from 10.4 percent in 1950 to 13.6 percent in 1963.

Factors directly related to this increase are difficult to assess. The rural-urban movement of the nonwhite population may be related, because the proportion of immature births increases from rural to urban residence, and also according to size of place. Childbearing at younger ages and shorter intervals between births are possible factors. There is also a high rate of immaturity among younger mothers having births of high order.

As there is a large difference in immaturity between legitimate and illegitimate births, the rise in illegitimacy would be a factor. Between 1950 and 1963 the illegitimacy ratio among white births increased from 17.5 to 30.7 illegitimate live births per 1,000 total live births. Among nonwhites in the same period the ratio increased from 179.6 to 235.9.

The Sex Ratio at Birth

The sex ratio at birth indicates the number of males born alive per 1,000 live-born females. The nonwhite sex ratio at birth in 1963 was 1,030 males per 1,000 females, as compared to 1,057 for whites (Table 12). More males than females are

Table 12
Sex Ratio at Birth

Year	Males per 1,000 females at birth		
	Total	White	Nonwhite
1940.	1,054	1,060	1,019
1950.	1,054	1,058	1,025
1960.	1,049	1,055	1,018
1963.	1,053	1,057	1,030

conceived but more die before birth. The lower sex ratio of live births for nonwhites has been associated with a higher sex ratio among fetal deaths. The sex ratio of nonwhite fetal deaths of 20 weeks or more gestation in 1963 was 1,184 as compared with 1,134 for white male fetal deaths. The lower nonwhite male survival rate has been attributed to a less favorable socio-economic environment of the nonwhites.

Plural Births

Of the 4,098,000 live births in 1963, about 81,200--or one in 50--were from plural deliveries. The plural birth ratios were 18.6 per 1,000 white births and 26.1 per 1,000 nonwhite births (Table 13).

Table 13
Plural Birth Ratios

Year	Total	White	Nonwhite
1958	20.6	19.5	27.0
1959	20.6	19.5	27.0
1960	20.4	19.3	26.3
1961	20.2	19.0	26.6 ^{1/}
1962	19.5	18.5 ^{1/}	25.0 ^{1/}
1963	19.8	18.6 ^{1/}	26.1 ^{1/}

^{1/} Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on birth certificate.

There was a decline in plural birth ratios for some years prior to 1963. Since the chances of producing twins increases both with advancing parity and with mother's age, as very large families become relatively fewer and the average age of mothers at childbearing becomes younger, the incidence of twinbearing declines. The decline in nonwhite ratios reflects the decline in average family size and the concentration of childbearing in the younger ages. The relative frequency of multiple births increases with age of mother up to ages 35-39. The chances of plural births are almost 2-1/2 times as great at ages 35-39 as at 15-19. This situation holds for both white and nonwhite mothers, except that differences by age among the nonwhites are even greater. At ages 35-39 the white ratio in 1963 was 27.8 per 1,000 as compared to 38.7 per 1,000 for nonwhites (Table 14).

Table 14
Plural Birth Ratios by Age of Mother
1963

Age of mother	Total	White	Nonwhite
15-44 .	19.8	18.6 ^{1/}	26.2 ^{1/}
15-19 .	12.0	11.4	14.0
20-24 .	16.6	15.4	23.3
25-29 .	21.6	20.2	30.5
30-34 .	26.4	24.7	36.3
35-39 .	29.4	27.8	38.7
40-44 .	23.8	22.7	30.6

^{1/} Excludes New Jersey, since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on birth certificate.

Illegitimate Births

There were an estimated 259,400 illegitimate births in the United States in 1963 (Table 15). Of these, 102,200, or 39 percent, were births to white mothers and 150,700, or 58 percent, were to nonwhite mothers. Of the total births, 3.1 percent of all white births and 23.6 percent of all nonwhite births were reported as illegitimate. Caution must be exercised in interpreting data on illegitimacy. No allowance is made for misstatements of legitimacy status on birth records or for failure to register illegitimate births.

There has been a more or less consistent increase in illegitimate births since they were first reported in the United States in 1917. In that year 20 out of every 1,000 babies born alive were born out of wedlock. In 1950 the figure was 40; in 1960, 53; and in 1963, 60.

The increase has been substantial for both whites and nonwhites. Between 1940 and 1963, white illegitimate births increased by 154 percent, and nonwhite illegitimate births, by 206 percent.

The trend of the white and nonwhite illegitimacy ratios (the number of illegitimate births per 1,000 live births) followed the same pattern. Both increased during World War II; in 1945 the white ratio was 23.6 and

Table 15
Illegitimate Live Births and Ratios

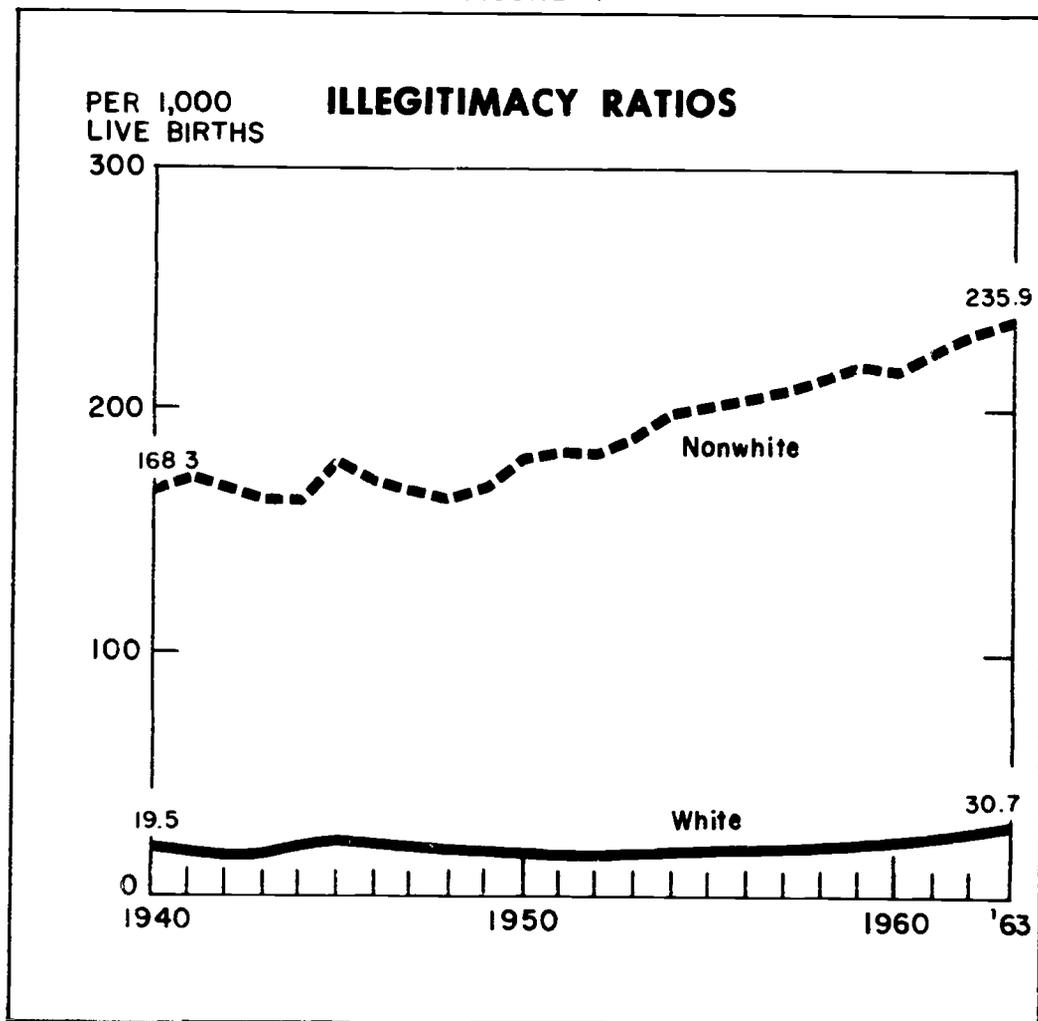
Year	Illegitimate live births ^{1/}					
	Number (in thousands)			Per 1,000 total live births		
	Total	White	Nonwhite	Total	White	Nonwhite
1940...	89.5	40.3	49.2	37.9	19.5	168.3
1941...	95.7	41.9	53.8	38.1	19.0	174.5
1942...	96.5	42.0	54.5	34.3	16.9	169.2
1943...	98.1	42.8	55.4	33.4	16.5	162.8
1944...	105.2	49.6	55.6	37.6	20.2	163.4
1945...	117.4	56.4	60.9	42.9	23.6	179.3
1946...	125.2	61.4	63.8	38.1	21.1	170.1
1947...	131.9	60.5	71.5	35.7	18.5	168.0
1948...	129.7	54.8	74.9	36.7	17.8	164.7
1949...	133.2	53.5	79.7	37.4	17.3	167.5
1950...	141.6	53.5	88.1	39.8	17.5	179.6
1951...	146.5	52.6	93.9	39.1	16.3	182.8
1952...	150.3	54.1	96.2	39.1	16.3	183.4
1953...	160.8	56.6	104.2	41.2	16.9	191.1
1954...	176.6	62.7	113.9	44.0	18.2	198.5
1955...	183	64.2	119.2	45.3	18.6	202.4
1956...	193.5	67.5	126.0	46.5	19.0	204.0
1957...	201.7	70.8	130.9	47.4	19.6	206.7
1958...	208.7	74.6	134.1	49.6	20.9	212.3
1959...	220.6	79.6	141.1	52.0	22.1	218.0
1960...	224.3	82.5	141.8	52.7	22.9	215.8
1961...	240.2	91.1	149.1	56.3	25.3	223.4
1962 ^{2/}	245.1	93.5	147.5	58.8	27.5	229.9
1963 ^{2/}	259.4	102.2	150.7	63.3	30.7	235.9

^{1/} Births occurring within the United States; Alaska included beginning 1959, and Hawaii, 1960. Data for 1951-1963, except for 1955, are based on a 50-percent sample of births. ^{2/} Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on birth certificate.

the nonwhite, 179.3. Following the war both declined, the white ratio to 16.3 per 1,000 in 1951 and 1952 and the nonwhite to 164.7 per 1,000 in 1948. Subsequently the ratios increased considerably for both groups; in 1963 the white ratio was 30.7, and the nonwhite, 235.9 (Figure 4).

The great proportion of illegitimate births was to mothers under 20. Over 40 percent of both white and nonwhite unwed mothers were teenagers in 1963. A larger pro-

FIGURE 4



portion of these younger nonwhite mothers had babies at earlier ages than white mothers. For white mothers 15 to 19 years of age the illegitimacy ratio was 89.8 per 1,000 total live births and for nonwhite mothers of the same age was 454.4 per 1,000.

Because of the high rate of illegitimacy among nonwhites, a reduction in nonwhite illegitimacy would have the effect of lowering total nonwhite fertility. For example, eliminating 1963 illegitimate births would reduce the nonwhite birth rate from 29.7 to 22.7 births per 1,000 population, bringing it much closer to the white birth rate of 20.7 (or to the rate of 20.1 births per 1,000 population with white illegitimate births eliminated). This reduction is seen as a distinct possibility under conditions of increased family stability.

Attendant at Birth

An index of maternal and child institutional care is provided by data on attendant at birth--whether a birth was attended by a physician in or outside a hospital, or by a midwife or other person. Today the great majority of all births in the United States (97.4 percent in 1963) takes place in hospitals with a physician present (Table 16). In 1940, only 56 percent of all births took place under these circumstances.

All but three States today report that 98 percent or more of all white babies born in the States are delivered in hospitals with physicians present. Institutional care at childbirth has continued to favor white mothers, although the improvement for nonwhite mothers has shown the greatest gains in the past quarter century. The proportion of nonwhite mothers attended by physicians in hospitals was 26.7 percent in 1940 and 87.9 percent in 1963 (Figure 5). In actual numbers, the increase was seven-fold (620 percent) for nonwhite mothers and more than double (166 percent) for white mothers during this period.

The proportion of nonwhites attended by a physician outside an institution has decreased as hospital care has been extended. In 1940, 24 percent of the nonwhite mothers and 37 percent of the white mothers were attended by physicians outside of a hospital. In 1963, after some 20 years of improved care facilities, the proportion of those cared for by physicians outside hospitals was 0.5 percent for white mothers, and 2.4 percent for nonwhite mothers.

But perhaps the most significant change is represented by the proportion of nonwhite births attended by midwives or other persons. In 1940, about half of all nonwhite births were in this category. By 1963, the proportion had declined to 9.7 percent. Over the same period, the proportion for white mothers had declined from 4 percent to less than one-half of 1 percent. Only three States report a slightly higher proportion of white mothers delivered by midwives.

Several States reported a large proportion of nonwhite deliveries by midwives. Over a quarter of all nonwhite babies in 1963 were attended by midwives in Mississippi (42.1 percent), Alabama (35.4 percent), and Arkansas (25.5 percent). Midwife deliveries comprising between 10 and 25

FIGURE 5

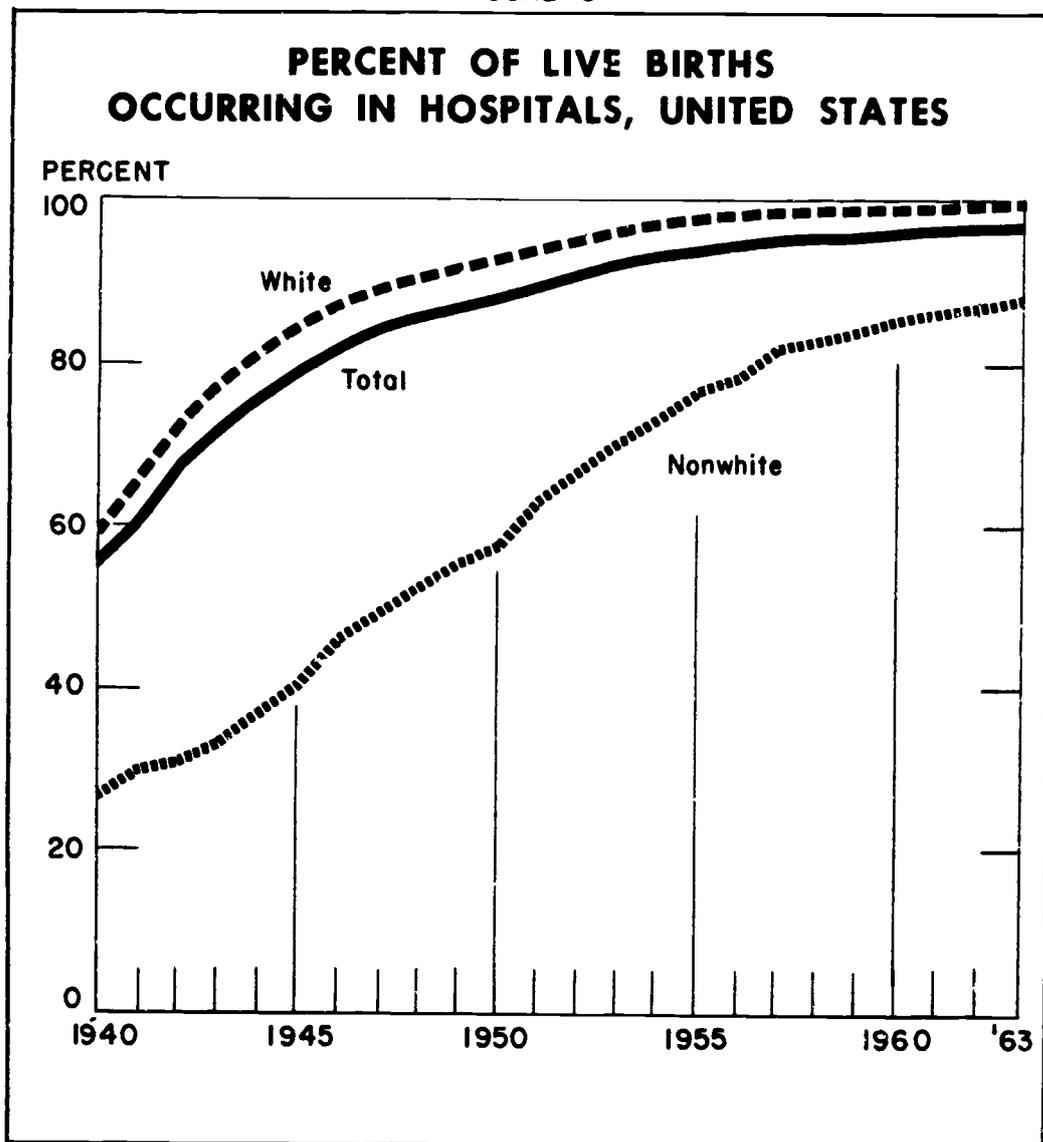


Table 16
Percent Distribution of Live Births by Attendant

Year	White			Nonwhite		
	Percent of births attended by Physician			Percent of births attended by Physician		
	In hospital	Outside hospital	Midwife or other	In hospital	Outside hospital	Midwife or other
1940	59.9	36.5	3.6	26.7	24.1	49.2
1950	92.8	5.9	1.3	57.9	14.3	27.8
1960	98.8	0.7	0.5	85.0	3.5	11.5
1963	99.1	0.5	0.4	87.9	2.4	9.7

percent of all nonwhite babies were reported by five other contiguous States: Virginia (13.0 percent), North Carolina (12.6 percent), South Carolina (23.8 percent), Georgia (21.2 percent), and Florida (12.3 percent). However, in these States as in all other States, the proportion of midwife deliveries continues to decline.

Implications

Nonwhite fertility increased rapidly after World War II, but declined along a path parallel to white fertility in the late 1950's and the first

half of the 1960's. Thus, it resumed a course characteristic of the prewar period. The fertility increase of "baby boom" proportions was the product of social, economic, and cultural conditions not likely to recur in the near future. Other factors in the rise in fertility, such as the improvement in physical health and the decline in childlessness, had their greatest effect in the 1950's.

At present there is a declining trend in both white and nonwhite births. For nonwhites this decline will be encouraged by the general improvement in social conditions. The increase in educational opportunities alone points to a lowering of fertility. The full effect of living in low-fertility urban areas, yet to be felt for many nonwhites, can only tend toward smaller families eventually. The process of family stabilization, as the outcome of adjustment following the many social changes of the past two decades, will probably be accompanied by increased family planning. A significant decline in nonwhite illegitimacy will, when it occurs, be an index of such stabilization.

Factors associated with the decline in fertility, such as education, higher level of living, and generally improved social conditions, are linked with economic factors. Therefore, employment itself and opportunities for economic advancement are conditions which will have a bearing on future fertility.

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WHITE-NONWHITE MORTALITY DIFFERENTIALS IN THE UNITED STATES

Helen C. Chase

The level and trend of mortality, and in particular of maternal and infant mortality, are indicators of underlying social and economic conditions and of changes in these conditions over time. After presenting base population data of the Bureau of the Census, this paper focuses on mortality differentials between the "white and nonwhite" groups of the U.S. population with respect to age, life expectancy, maternal and infant mortality, and deaths by cause. These data have been brought together by the National Center for Health Statistics from the annual *Vital Statistics of the United States*.

WHITE-NONWHITE POPULATIONS

The total resident population of the United States grew from 76.0 million in 1900 to 188.5 million in 1963 (Chart 1). The percent "white" increased from 87.9 percent in 1900 to 89.8 percent in 1940 and declined slightly thereafter to 88.3 percent in 1963 (Table 1). In mid-1963 the white and nonwhite populations numbered 166.5 million and 22.1 million, respectively. The 18.9 million Negroes enumerated at the census of April 1, 1960 accounted for 92.1 percent of the nonwhite population. The remaining 1.6 million persons classified under "nonwhite races" were: 524,000 Indians,

Chart 1

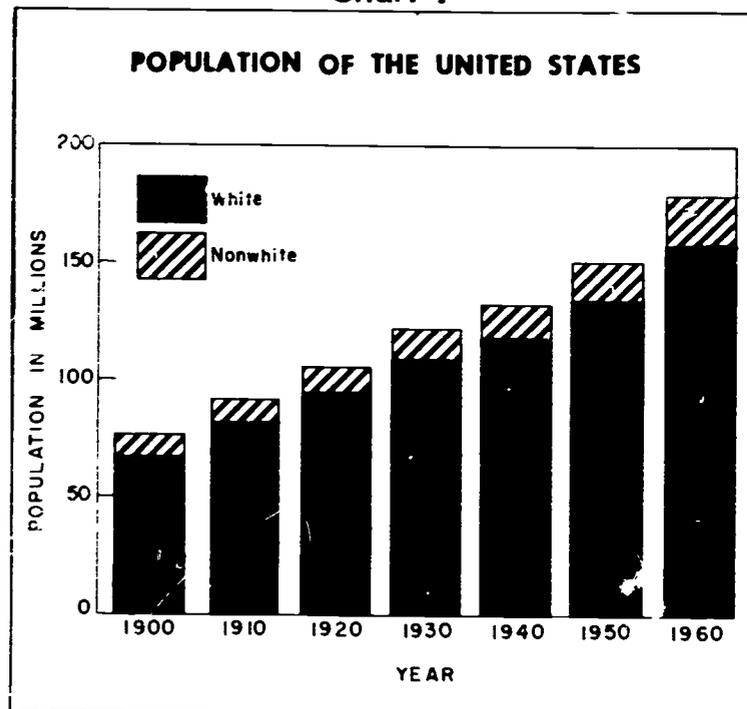


Table 1

Year	Population (In millions)			Percent of total population	
	Total	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
1900	76.0	66.8	9.2	87.9	12.1
1910	92.0	81.8	10.2	88.9	11.1
1920	105.7	94.8	10.9	89.7	10.3
1930	122.8	110.3	12.5	89.8	10.2
1940	131.7	118.2	13.5	89.8	10.2
1950	150.7	134.9	15.8	89.5	10.5
1960	179.3	158.8	20.5	88.6	11.4
1963	188.5	166.5	22.1	88.3	11.7

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464,000 Japanese, 237,000 Chinese, 176,000 Filipinos, and 218,000 under "other" races. For analytical purposes this paper classifies mortality data into two groups--white and nonwhite--the rubrics in which the basic vital statistics have been gathered over time.

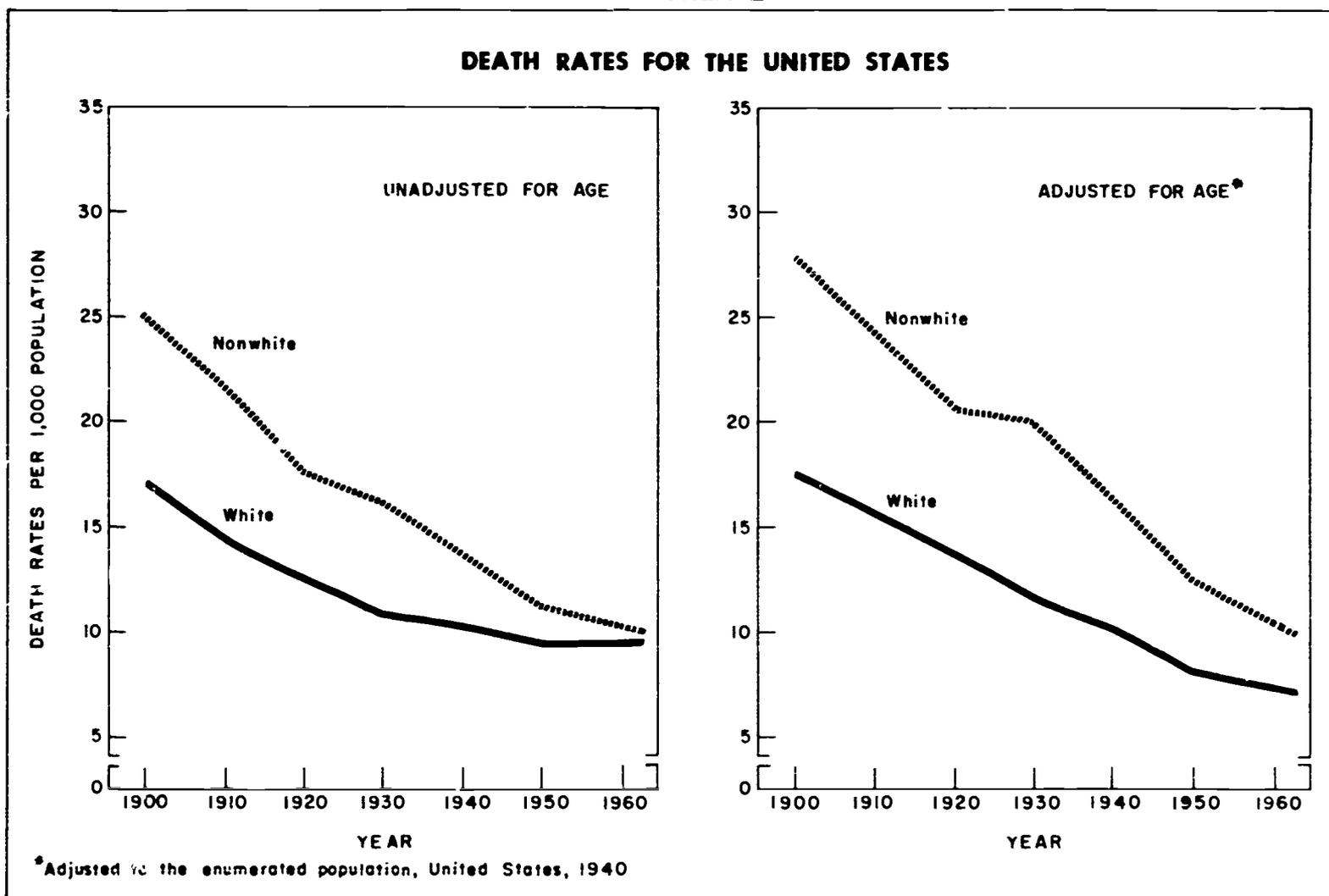
WHITE-NONWHITE MORTALITY DIFFERENTIALS

In the United States, over-all mortality has been consistently higher in the nonwhite population. In 1900, the death rate for the white population was 17.0 per 1,000; the death rate for the nonwhite population, 25.0 per 1,000. In this century, the death rates for both groups have declined markedly. By 1963, the rates for the white and nonwhite segments of the population had declined to 9.5 and 10.1, respectively. The relative difference between the two groups--47 percent in 1900--had been reduced to only 6 percent by 1963 (Chart 2).

At first glance, the wide differential in mortality between the white and nonwhite groups which existed in 1900 has been largely eliminated. But such is not the case. Death rates are affected by two important factors: the mortality prevailing at specific ages and the age distribution of the populations for which they are computed.

1/ The Death Registration States did not cover the entire continental United States until 1933. In 1900, for example, it included only 10 States and the District of Columbia.

Chart 2



Mortality by Age

Mortality at specific ages varies significantly (Table 2). Between 1900 and 1963, mortality declined at every age among both the white and nonwhite populations. The relative declines appear greater among the nonwhite groups for the young (under 25 years of age) and the aged (75 years of age and older). For the major span of adult life (25-74 years of age), the relative decline in mortality was more pronounced for the white race.

Table 2
AGE-SPECIFIC DEATH RATES
(Rates per 1,000 population in each age group)

Age	1900 ^{1/}		1963 ^{2/}		Percent decrease 1900-1963 ^{2/}	
	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white
All ages	17.0	25.0	9.5	10.1	44.1	59.6
Under 1	159.4	333.9	22.3	41.7	86.0	87.5
1-4	19.4	43.5	0.9	1.8	95.4	95.9
5-14	3.8	9.0	0.4	0.6	89.5	93.3
15-24	5.7	11.5	1.0	1.6	82.5	86.1
25-34	8.1	12.1	1.3	3.2	84.0	73.6
35-44	10.1	14.8	2.6	6.5	74.3	56.1
45-54	14.8	24.3	6.8	13.2	54.1	45.7
55-64	27.0	42.1	16.2	27.9	40.0	33.7
65-74	56.2	68.9	37.5	52.9	33.3	23.2
75-84	123.3	120.9	85.8	74.6	30.4	38.3
85 & over	262.0	215.2	215.6	145.7	17.6	32.3

^{1/} Death Registration States included 10 States and the District of Columbia. ^{2/} Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on death certificate.

By age, the ratios between the mortality rates reflect the considerably higher mortality among nonwhite individuals except for the aged, 75 years or older. In 1963, the excess was near or above 100 percent for a number of age groups. The notable exceptions to the general pattern are the age groups 75-84 and 85 years and over, which appeared in the 1900 data also.

Certain technical problems are encountered in mortality data for white-nonwhite groups by age. Basic differences in the age distributions of the white and nonwhite populations, changes in their age distributions over time, and possible errors in reported age in census returns and on death records are factors to be considered. To facilitate comparisons, age-adjusted rates have been derived by applying age-specific rates for the population group in question to the population of the United States in 1940 (Chart 2). The resulting theoretical rates represent mortality in a constant population subjected to the age-specific mortality rates which were actually observed over a number of years. In the present instance, adjusting the death rates for age broadens the mortality differential between the white and nonwhite populations--from 47 to 58 percent in 1900 and from 6 to 47 percent in 1963.

Life Expectancy

The twentieth century has witnessed a significant increase in life expectancy which, in the United States, increased from 47.3 years in 1900 to 69.9 years in 1963. For each newborn infant, this represents an expected increase in longevity of 22.6 years.

During this period, life expectancy for the nonwhite population was invariably shorter. However, the gap between the two major population components has decreased. In 1900, life expectancy among nonwhite individuals was 31 percent less than among white individuals (33.0 years and 47.6 years, respectively). In 1963, this relative difference was only 10 percent and

the life expectancy was 63.6 years for the nonwhite population and 70.8 years for the white population. In this century, the increased life expectancy represents an additional 23.2 years of life for a newborn white infant, and 30.6 years for a nonwhite infant.

Maternal and Infant Mortality

A significant reduction in maternal and infant mortality has been achieved for the nonwhite as well as the white group (Table 3). Since 1915, maternal mortality declined over 90 percent. Neonatal mortality (first four weeks of life) declined over 50 percent and postneonatal mortality (remainder of the first year) declined over 80 percent. The greatest declines were in the earlier part of the century. For infant mortality--both neonatal and postneonatal--progress since 1950 has been relatively slow.

Despite the declines, the relative differences between white and non-white groups have generally increased. Prior to the onset of World War II, maternal mortality among nonwhite mothers was generally less than double the rate among white mothers. Since 1955, the rates among nonwhite mothers have been approximately four times those among white mothers.

Similar trends are observed in neonatal and postneonatal mortality although the differentials are not so great as for maternal mortality. Mortality during the first four weeks of life has shown the least change in relative mortality. Prior to 1952, the rate for nonwhite infants under 28 days was 30-45 percent higher than among white infants. In more recent years, this relative difference has more generally been in the range of 55 to 60 percent.

Mortality during the last eleven months of the first year of life declined more rapidly than during the first month. Mortality of infants during the remainder of the first year is now less than half that during the first four weeks of life. In this postneonatal period, as well as in the neonatal period, the differential in mortality between nonwhite and white infants has increased. In earlier years, postneonatal mortality among nonwhite infants was approximately twice that among white infants. In recent years,

Table 3
MATERNAL AND INFANT MORTALITY

Period	Mortality					
	Maternal ^{1/}		Infant			
	White	Non-white	Neonatal ^{2/}		Postneonatal ^{3/}	
		White	Non-white	White	Non-white	
1915-19	700.3	1,253.5	42.3 ^{4/}	58.1 ^{4/}	49.6 ^{4/}	89.5 ^{4/}
1920-24	649.2	1,134.3	38.7	51.1	34.5	64.2
1925-29	615.0	1,163.7	36.0	47.9	29.1	57.6
1930-34	575.4	1,080.7	32.5	48.2	22.9	47.5
1935-39	439.9	875.5	29.5	41.4	19.7	39.9
1940-44	238.0	596.4	24.9	35.6	14.1	31.3
1945-49	110.8	328.4	21.8	30.3	9.2	19.1
1950-54	48.9	182.7	18.6	27.4	6.8	17.3
1955-59	28.2	112.4	17.6	27.7	5.8	15.9
1960	26.0	97.9	17.2	26.9	5.7	16.4
1961	24.9	101.3	16.9	26.2	5.5	14.5
1962 ^{5/}	23.8	95.9	16.9	26.1	5.5	15.5
1963 ^{5/}	24.2	98.1	16.7	26.1	5.5	15.4

^{1/} Deaths per 100,000 live births. ^{2/} Deaths under one month (or 28 days) per 1,000 live births. ^{3/} Deaths from one month (or 28 days) through 11 months of age per 1,000 live births. ^{4/} Average for 1916-19. 1915 data not available by age. ^{5/} Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on birth and death certificates.

the differential has been approaching a ratio of 3:1.

Thus, despite improvements which have been achieved in both population groups, the differentials in mortality between white and nonwhite infants appear to be increasing, even after making allowance for deficiencies in birth and death registration which were greater at the beginning of the century, and greater among the nonwhite segment of the population.

DIFFERENTIALS IN DEATHS BY CAUSE

Statistical trends in mortality by cause are affected by many factors including the level of diagnostic acumen, the care with which the death records are completed, and the classification used to code causes of death for tabulation. With regard to these data, the same classification was used for all records in any given year, and therefore should not introduce any statistical bias between the two population groups from this source. However, this consistency does not apply invariably in considering mortality trends which involve more than one revision of the International Statistical Classification. There are no comprehensive measures of the level of diagnostic acumen and completeness of records over a period of decades. Presumably diagnosis and registration have improved, but the relative degree of improvement for the white and nonwhite populations remains unknown. The data are therefore presented for broad diagnostic categories rather than for specific conditions.

Communicable Diseases

One of the major health accomplishments during the twentieth century has been the notable decline in mortality from communicable diseases. Tuberculosis, syphilis and its sequelae, typhoid fever, dysentery, diphtheria, whooping cough, meningococcal infections, acute poliomyelitis, and measles have all shown marked declines. Of these communicable diseases, tuberculosis had the highest death rates at the turn of the century (Table 4). As recently as 1930, the age-adjusted death rate for tuberculosis was 74.5 per 100,000--a rate which exceeded the total of all of the other diseases mentioned. Of this

Table 4
AGE-ADJUSTED DEATH RATES FOR SELECTED COMMUNICABLE DISEASES
(Rates per 100,000, adjusted to 1940 population)

Cause of death	1930		1940		1950		1960		1963 ^{1/}	
	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white
Tuberculosis, all forms	60.6	199.4	36.1	132.9	16.6	67.5	4.4	15.1	3.4	12.8
Syphilis and its sequelae	12.5	60.2	9.7	61.6	3.3	18.3	1.0	5.2*	0.9	4.3
Typhoid fever	3.6	14.0	0.8	3.0	0.0*	0.3*	0.0*	0.0*	0.0*	0.0*
Dysentery, all forms	2.4	7.6	1.6	4.2	0.4	1.2*	0.1*	0.5*	0.1*	0.5*
Diphtheria	4.4	3.8*	1.0	1.5*	0.2*	0.4*	0.0*	0.1*	0.0*	0.1*
Whooping Cough	3.6*	8.6*	1.8*	4.9*	0.4*	1.6*	0.0*	0.2*	0.0	0.2
Meningococcal infections	3.0	6.2	0.5	0.6*	0.5	0.7*	0.3*	0.5*	0.3*	0.5*
Acute poliomyelitis	1.1	1.0*	0.8	0.5*	1.4	0.5*	0.1*	0.1*	0.0*	0.0*
Measles	2.9	2.6*	0.5*	0.7*	0.2*	0.4*	0.1	0.3	0.1*	0.2*
Influenza and pneumonia, except pneumonia of newborn	99.1	194.3	63.0	138.1	22.9	56.9	24.6	55.2	24.4	55.4

*More than half of the age-specific rates are based on frequencies of less than 20 deaths. ^{1/} Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on death certificate.

group of diseases, only tuberculosis and syphilis had rates of 1.0 or more per 100,000 in 1963. For these two diseases, mortality among the nonwhite races has consistently been several times the rate for the white race. In 1963, the ratios were 3.8 (tuberculosis) and 4.8 (syphilis and its sequelae).

Influenza and pneumonia, even without these diseases in the newborn, now occupy a more prominent position than tuberculosis in the hierarchy of communicable diseases. Mortality from influenza and pneumonia increases sharply with epidemics, affecting both the nonwhite and white population groups. As with other communicable diseases, mortality from influenza and pneumonia has been consistently higher among nonwhite individuals: the ratios have equalled or exceeded 2.0 in each year since 1936.

Major Cardiovascular-renal Diseases

These diseases represent the major cause of mortality in the white population as well as in the nonwhite population. Age-adjusted death rates for the total population have exceeded 400 per 100,000 since the turn of the century. As the total death rate has declined, major cardiovascular-renal diseases, as a group, have assumed increasing importance. The relative positions of the nonwhite and white populations have not shown pronounced changes in the past four decades; since 1920, nonwhite mortality has been between 25 and 57 percent higher. However, variations are notable for the components of this cause group.

Deaths due to diseases of the heart represent about 70 percent of the total mortality in the cardiovascular-renal group (Table 5). Mortality has been consistently higher among the nonwhite population for the past four

Table 5
AGE-ADJUSTED DEATH RATES FOR MAJOR CARDIOVASCULAR-RENAL DISEASES
(Rates per 100,000, adjusted to 1940 population)

Cause of death	1940		1950		1960		1963 ^{1/}	
	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white
Major cardiovascular-renal diseases	468.9	669.1	424.3	602.2	786.8	513.6	380.1	521.8
Diseases of cardiovascular system	396.6	510.4	411.7	565.0	381.9	499.0	375.8	508.6
Vascular lesions affecting central nervous system	85.7	151.8	83.2	148.	14.2	134.8	71.3	133.4
Diseases of heart	289.4	333.4	301.7	377.3	281.5	324.2	277.9	333.9
Other hypertensive diseases	0.8	3.3	6.2	17.2	4.5	14.3	4.2	13.3
General arteriosclerosis	17.3	16.8	16.2	15.8	13.1	13.8	12.5	13.4
Other diseases of circulatory system	3.4	5.2	4.3	5.9	8.7	12.0	10.0	14.6
Chronic and unspec. nephritis and other renal sclerosis	72.3	158.6	12.6	37.2	4.9	14.6	4.3	13.2

^{1/} Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on death certificate.

decades, and the relative excess has generally been about 20 percent.

Second in order of magnitude are the vascular lesions affecting the central nervous system, which account for about one fifth of the cardiovascular deaths. Mortality has been declining more rapidly in the white population with the result that the differential between white and nonwhite groups has been increasing. In recent years, mortality among nonwhite individuals has been about 80 percent higher than among white individuals.

Chronic and unspecified nephritis, one of the lesser cardiovascular-renal diseases in terms of numbers of deaths, is showing increasing ratios due to a more rapid decline in white than nonwhite mortality. At present, mortality from chronic and unspecified nephritis as well as acute nephritis (which is not included in the cardiovascular diseases) is about three times as high among nonwhites as among whites.

Mortality due to hypertension without mention of heart disease represents only about one percent of the major cardiovascular-renal group and appears to be decreasing slightly. Mortality from this cause has been about three to five times higher for the nonwhite than for the white population over the past three decades.

General arteriosclerosis, which represents about three percent of the mortality due to major cardiovascular-renal diseases, has shown some decline in the past three decades for both the nonwhite and white populations. The relative ratios fluctuated, but have clustered near 100, ranging from 90 to 112. In the past decade, there has been a shift toward slightly higher rates among nonwhites with ratios over 100. With the exception of general arteriosclerosis, mortality for other major cardiovascular-renal diseases has been consistently higher among the nonwhite group.

Malignant Neoplasms

Malignant neoplasms constitute the second leading cause of death for the white population as well as the nonwhite population. In recent years, the over-all rates for all forms of malignant neoplasms have varied little (Table 6).

The digestive system has been predominant among deaths due to neoplasms. Over time, a reversal in the relative positions of the white and nonwhite groups has taken place; for each year since 1950, the nonwhite population has experienced higher mortality from neoplasms of the digestive system in contrast to earlier years when the reverse was true. In 1963, this excess mortality among nonwhite individuals due to malignant neoplasms of the digestive system was 26 percent. This large excess in the predominant site of malignant neoplasms represents a significant difference between the two populations.

Mortality due to neoplasms of the buccal cavity and pharynx and of the respiratory system have also demonstrated reversals, and are now consistently higher among the nonwhite population. While the buccal cavity and pharynx

Table 6
AGE-ADJUSTED DEATH RATES FOR MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS
(Rates per 100,000, adjusted to 1940 population)

Cause of death	1940		1950		1960		1963 ^u	
	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white
Malignant neoplasms	121.3	101.5	124.7	128.6	124.2	139.3	123.7	145.2
Buccal cavity and pharynx	3.2	2.2*	3.0	2.9*	2.9	3.1*	2.9	3.4
Digestive organs and peritoneum	56.1	41.8	47.3	49.8	40.3	48.1	38.0	47.9
Respiratory system	7.5	4.3*	13.0	10.6	19.1	20.1	21.2	23.5
Breast	12.0	9.2	11.7	9.7	11.8	10.9	11.8	11.2
Genital organs	22.8	30.8	19.7	31.3	17.0	28.1	16.4	27.8
Urinary organs	5.9	3.7*	5.9	4.8	5.8	5.2	5.7	5.1
Leukemia and aleukemia	4.1	2.1	5.6	3.3	6.3	4.2	6.2	5.0
Lymphosarcoma and other neoplasms of lymphatic and hematopoietic tissues	---	---	5.0	3.9	6.7	5.2	6.9	6.2

*More than half of the age-specific rates are based on frequencies of less than 20 deaths. ^u Excludes New Jersey since no provision was made for white-nonwhite distinction on death certificate.

have remained among the less important sites of fatal malignant neoplasms, the respiratory system has assumed increasing importance. In 1963, mortality from malignant neoplasms of the respiratory system for the nonwhite population was 11 percent higher than for the white population, with rates of 23.5 and 21.2, respectively.

Mortality due to neoplasms in the genital system is apparently decreasing slowly and consistently. Nevertheless, it has been higher among the nonwhite races for each year since 1939, and the relative difference between the white and nonwhite populations is increasing.

Four categories of neoplasms show consistently more favorable mortality experience among the nonwhite population: breast, urinary organs, leukemia and aleukemia, and lymphosarcoma and neoplasms of the lymphatic and hematopoietic tissues. In each instance, however, the relative differential has decreased.

Diabetes Mellitus

Revisions in the International Statistical Classification of Causes of Death have had a marked effect on the death rates from this cause. Comparisons must therefore take into account changes in the classification as well as changes in the age distribution of the populations. Nevertheless, it appears that mortality due to diabetes mellitus has been higher among the nonwhite population for at least several decades, and that the reported relative excess is increasing. Since 1950, mortality from this cause among the nonwhite population is apparently increasing slightly while mortality among the white population is declining. Between 1950 and 1963 the excess mortality among the nonwhite group increased from approximately 20 percent to 70 percent.

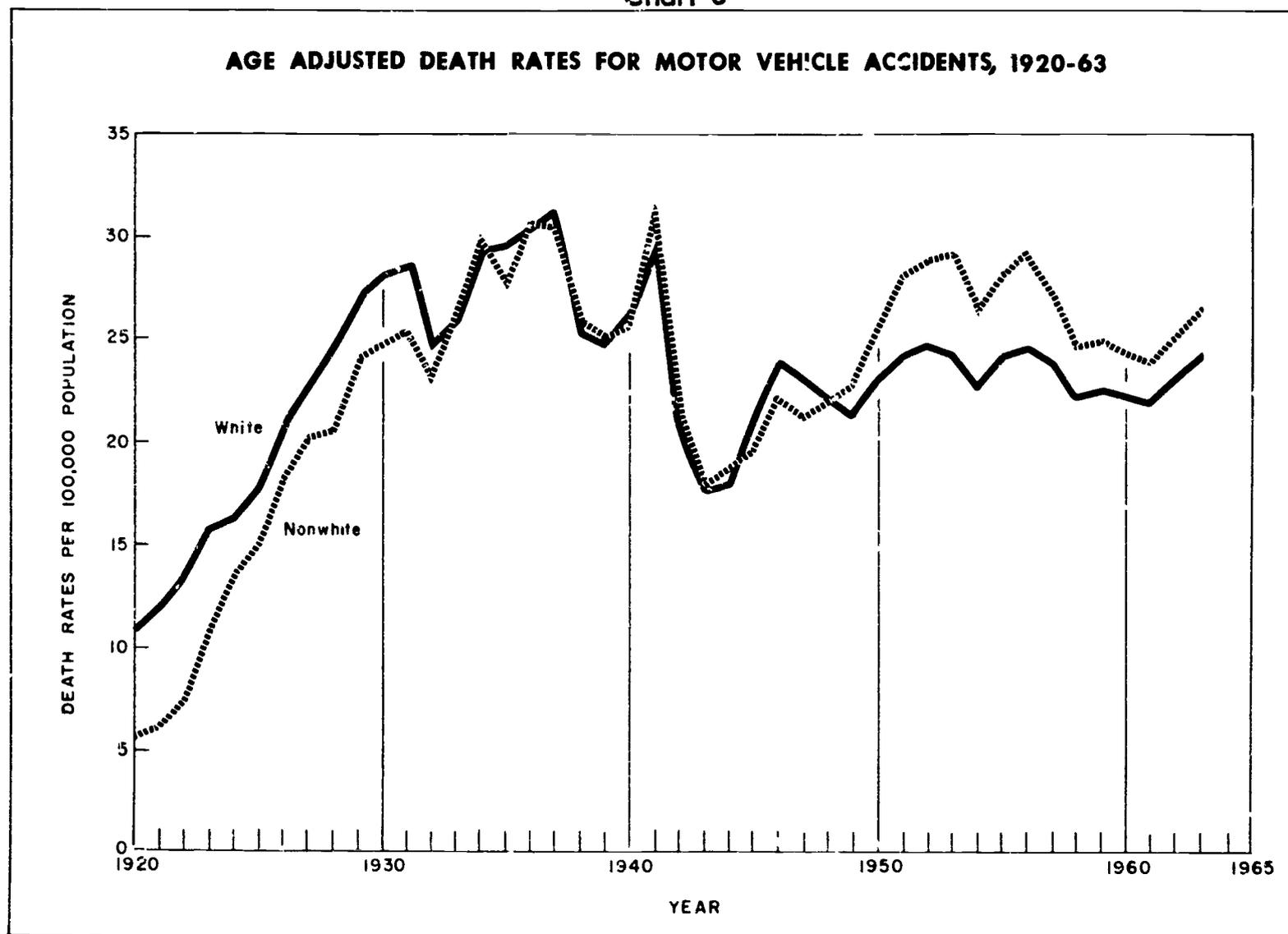
Mortality due to Violence

Three major categories are generally included under deaths due to violent causes: accidents, suicide, and homicide. Accidents are further subdivided into motor vehicle accidents and all other accidents.

Accidents are among the leading causes of death: in 1963 they ranked 4th for the white population and 5th for the nonwhite population. Motor vehicle fatalities constitute 44.7 percent of accidental deaths for the white population and 35.8 percent for the nonwhite population. Mortality due to motor vehicle accidents increased markedly with the wider use of motor-driven vehicles. The age-adjusted rate for the total population, 10.6 in 1920, by 1931 had risen to 28.3. Since then, the rates have generally fluctuated between 20 and 30 per 100,000 population except for a marked drop during World War II when tires and gasoline were severely rationed.

The relative positions of the white and nonwhite groups have reversed (Chart 3). Until 1932, mortality from motor vehicle accidents was higher for the white than for the nonwhite population. For a number of years

Chart 3



thereafter (1933-1948) the relative positions of the two groups changed a number of times. For some of these years mortality from this cause was higher for the white population; at other times, higher for the nonwhite population. Beginning with 1949, however, mortality due to motor vehicle accidents has been consistently higher in the nonwhite population, the excess varying from 8 percent to 21 percent.

Deaths from all other accidents are larger in number and show a more consistent pattern than deaths due to motor vehicle accidents. Mortality from these residual accidental causes has been higher for the nonwhite group in each year, and the relative differential is increasing. In the period 1920-1945, the rates for the nonwhite group were about 4 to 34 percent higher than for the white group. In the 1960's, the excess has grown to 60 to 70 percent.

Suicide and homicide are less important numerically as causes of death. Suicide is a greater hazard among the white population--their death rates have been approximately 2 to 3 times the rates among the nonwhite population. Homicides, on the other hand, present a greater hazard to the nonwhite population. In the 1920's, the death rate due to homicide for nonwhites was approximately 6 times the rate for whites, and by the late 1950's and 1960's this differential had increased to about 10:1.

DECLINING LEVELS BUT INCREASING DIFFERENTIALS IN MORTALITY

Over the years, mortality among the nonwhite population has been consistently higher for most causes of death. Among the causes considered in this review, the highest ratios of nonwhite to white mortality are found for maternal and postneonatal mortality, tuberculosis, influenza and pneumonia, vascular lesions affecting the central nervous system, and homicides. For each of these, the ratios are 2:1 or higher. Only for suicides is the rate for the white population more than double the rate for the nonwhite counterpart.

The differentials in mortality between the white and nonwhite populations are the end-product of a multi-dimensional problem. The many facets include hereditary factors, the distribution and availability of medical facilities and services, socioeconomic factors which affect the utilization of available medical services, and the personal motivation to achieve a state of positive health.

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DISABILITY AND MEDICAL CARE AMONG WHITES AND NONWHITES IN THE UNITED STATES

Geraldine A. Gleeson and Elijah L. White

Disability associated with illness and the use of health services are two factors which can be used to measure the differences in the health status of the white and nonwhite segments of the population. But these measurements of health are valid only when considered within the matrix of the social and economic characteristics of the two groups. Family income has been used, not as a precise description of social environment, but as a means of classifying persons into groups of roughly comparable economic status.

Marked differences in the distribution of the white and nonwhite populations by family income (Table 1) indicate the need for comparing persons of similar economic status if meaningful health measures are to be obtained.

Table 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE WHITE AND NONWHITE
POPULATION, BY FAMILY INCOME, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Family income	Percent distribution of persons with known family income		
	All persons	White	Nonwhite
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than \$4,000...	29.3	25.2	60.9
Less than \$2,000..	12.2	9.7	30.8
\$2,000-3,999.....	17.2	15.5	30.1
\$4,000 or more.....	70.7	74.8	39.1
\$4,000-6,999.....	33.5	34.5	26.0
\$7,000-9,999.....	20.7	22.4	8.0
\$10,000 or more...	16.4	17.9	5.1

Three-fifths of the nonwhite population--and one-fourth of the white population--are living in families with income less than \$4,000. With this disparity, a comparison of the two groups without regard to economic status becomes a measure of the ability to pay for medical services rather than the need for such services. Likewise, disability becomes more closely associated with the economic status of individuals than with their health.

Because of the high proportion of the nonwhite population in the low income groups, the rates for all of the measures of utilization of health services by the total nonwhite population are heavily weighted by the low

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This article is based on data collected in the Health Interview Survey. During a typical year, interviews are conducted on some 42,000 households comprising about 134,000 persons. The interviewer determines by observation whether the respondent is white or nonwhite and assumes, unless otherwise informed, that all related persons are the same.

Some data are collected each year; other data, on a recurring or one-time basis. Information relating to a number of health items may therefore be collected during different periods of time. Furthermore, the exclusion of institutionalized and deceased persons tends to understate all estimates of disability and of utilization of services. Hospital discharge data, for example, do not assess the total amount of care provided by hospital facilities.

Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators, Oct. 1965

rates in those income groups. Since the corresponding rates in the total white population are more heavily influenced by the rates for persons with family income in excess of \$4,000, the difference between total rates for the two groups is maximized in most instances.

Nonwhites constitute about 12 percent of the total civilian, noninstitutional population. The white and nonwhite populations are similarly distributed by sex, with females representing slightly more than one-half of each of the population groups. Due to their higher birth rate and shorter life expectancy, nonwhites are proportionately younger with a median age of 22.1

years as compared to 29.3 years for whites. Approximately 30 percent of whites and 22 percent of nonwhites are 45 years or older (Table 2). This difference in age is particularly significant in the lower income groups. Among whites, about 55 percent of those living in families with less than \$2,000 annual income are 45 years or older as compared to 29 percent of nonwhites. In the \$2,000-3,999 income group, the proportion of whites 45 years or older (38 percent) is twice that for nonwhites. Because of this age disparity, age-adjusted, as well as unadjusted, rates are shown.

Table 2
DISTRIBUTION OF THE WHITE AND NONWHITE POPULATIONS
BY AGE AND FAMILY INCOME, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Family income	White			Nonwhite		
	Total population	Under 45	45+	Total population	Under 45	45+
	Number (in thousands)					
All incomes ^{1/}	163,966	114,214	49,752	21,831	16,959	4,872
Under \$2,000	15,141	6,789	8,353	6,288	4,444	1,845
\$2,000-3,999	24,020	14,905	9,114	6,150	4,975	1,174
\$4,000-6,999	53,639	41,151	12,487	5,317	4,349	969
\$7,000-9,999	34,843	26,971	7,873	1,632	1,314	289
\$10,000 and over	27,781	19,497	8,284	1,044	824	220
	Percent					
All incomes ^{1/}	100.0	69.7	29.3	100.0	77.7	22.3
Under \$2,000	100.0	44.8	55.2	100.0	70.7	29.3
\$2,000-3,999	100.0	62.1	37.9	100.0	80.9	19.1
\$4,000-6,999	100.0	76.7	23.3	100.0	81.8	18.2
\$7,000-9,999	100.0	77.4	22.6	100.0	82.4	17.7
\$10,000 and over	100.0	70.2	29.8	100.0	78.9	21.1

^{1/} Includes unknown income.

DISABILITY DUE TO ILLNESS

In the Health Interview Survey the two basic measures of disability are: (1) limitation of activity due to chronic illness, i.e., inability to carry on the major activity for one's age-sex group (working, keeping house, or going to school), limitation in amount or kind of such activity, and limitation in other activities; and (2) disability days due to chronic or acute illness, including days of restricted activity, bed-disability, and work or school loss.

Limitation of Activity Due to Chronic Illness

Based on data collected from July 1961 through June 1963, approximately 45 percent of the white population reported one or more chronic conditions as compared to 36 percent of the nonwhite population (Table 3). But the percentage with limitation due to chronic illness was about the same--12.3 percent and 11.9 percent, respectively. Since the white-nonwhite differences in the reporting of chronic illness are confined to conditions causing no limitation, the higher rate of chronic illness in the white population may be largely due to early diagnosis of conditions or to response differences. By income status, however, the major differences, particularly in limitation of activity, are in the lower income groups.

Table 3
CHRONIC ILLNESS AND LIMITATION STATUS, JULY 1961-JUNE 1963

Color and Family income	Total population	Persons with no chronic conditions	Persons with 1+ chronic conditions			Persons with no chronic conditions	Persons with 1+ chronic conditions		
			Total	With no limitation	With limitation		Total	With no limitation	With limitation
Percent distribution (unadjusted)					Percent distribution (age-adjusted ^{2/})				
White									
All incomes ^{1/}	100.0	54.8	45.2	32.9	12.3	55.3	44.7	32.7	12.0
Under \$2,000	100.0	39.2	60.8	30.6	30.2	43.2	56.8	29.8	26.9
\$2,000-3,999	100.0	51.7	48.3	31.3	16.9	53.5	46.4	30.7	15.7
\$4,000-6,999	100.0	58.7	41.3	32.3	9.0	58.8	41.2	32.2	8.8
\$7,000-9,999	100.0	57.7	42.3	34.7	7.6	57.7	42.3	34.7	7.6
\$10,000+	100.0	54.9	45.1	37.4	7.6	55.0	45.0	37.4	7.6
Nonwhite									
All incomes ^{1/}	100.0	64.1	35.9	24.0	11.9	60.0	40.0	25.4	14.7
Under \$2,000	100.0	56.2	43.8	24.1	19.7	44.6	55.4	25.6	29.8
\$2,000-3,999	100.0	66.3	33.7	23.5	10.2	58.8	41.2	25.4	15.8
\$4,000-6,999	100.0	68.6	31.4	24.4	7.0	67.0	33.0	25.1	8.0
\$7,000-9,999	100.0	69.8	30.2	24.7	5.5	68.7	31.3	25.2	6.2
\$10,000+	100.0	66.6	33.4	26.4	7.1	65.0	34.6	26.4	8.2

^{1/} Includes unknown income. ^{2/} Age-adjusted to the civilian, noninstitutional population within income groups.

Since the presence of chronic illness and the development of activity limitation are closely related to the aging process, age-adjustment of data associated with those factors in populations of differing age distribution results in marked changes (Charts 1 and 2). This indicates that one of the chief sources of variation in the amount of chronic illness and its associated disability in the two groups is their respective age compositions.

Chart 1

Percent of Persons with One or More Chronic Conditions, July 1961-June 1963

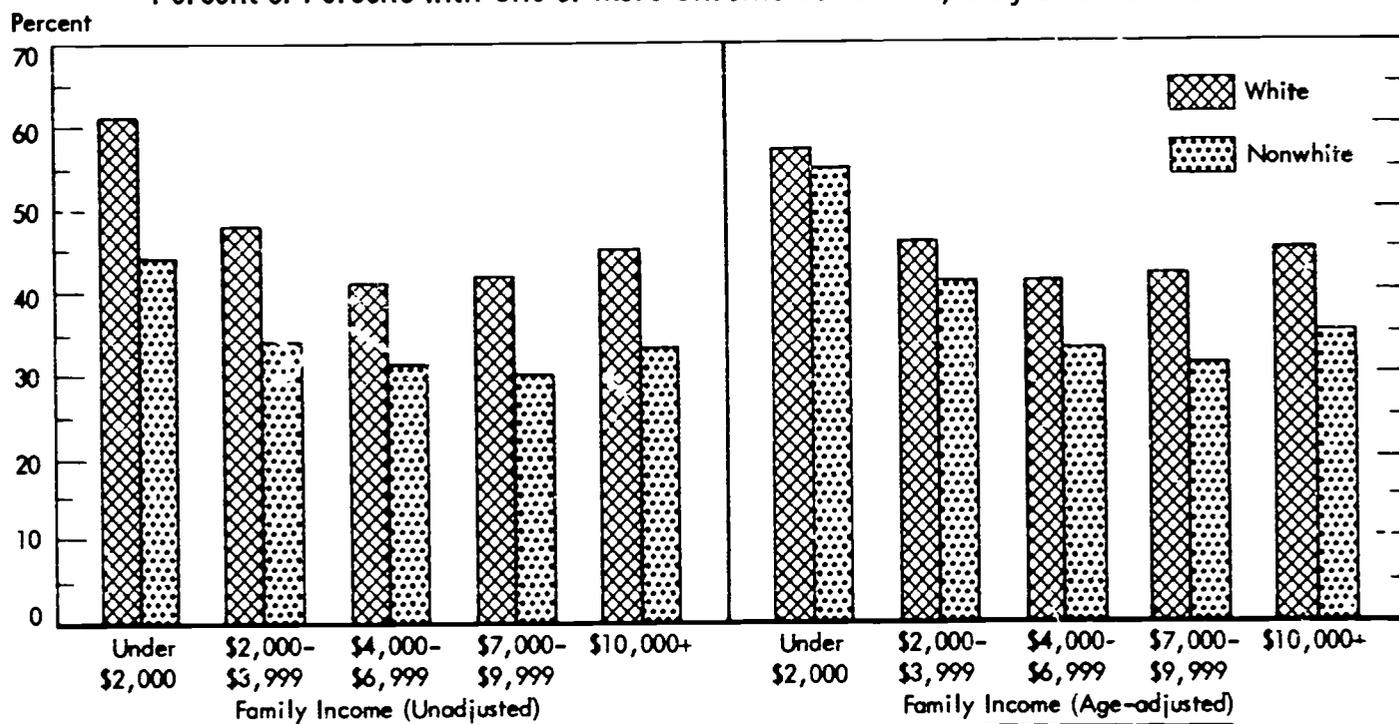
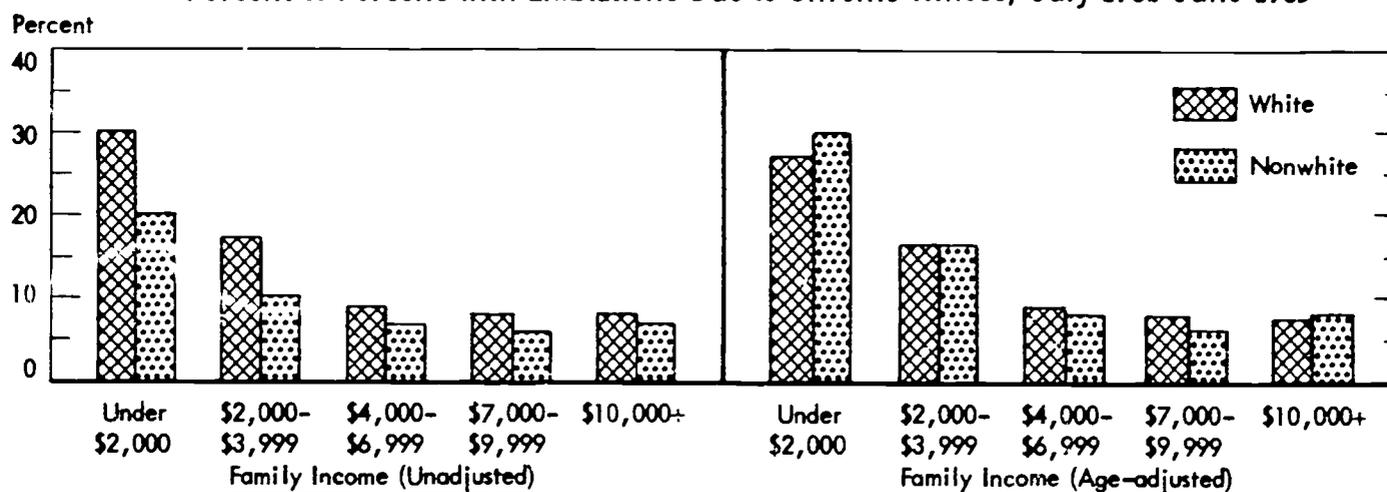


Chart 2

Percent of Persons with Limitations Due to Chronic Illness, July 1961-June 1963

Disability Days

Restricted activity days--those days on which illness causes persons to cut down on the things they usually do--represent the broadest measure of disability used in the Health Interview Survey. This measure refers not only to the disability associated with acute and chronic illness in all segments of the population, but also to any reduction of activity that interferes with a person's routine for as much as a day. Included are: (1) days on which persons stayed in bed all or most of the day, (2) days of work loss for currently employed persons 17 years and older, and (3) days lost from school for persons 6-16 years of age.

Even though the overall rates of restricted activity and bed disability in the nonwhite population exceeded those in the white population during the year June 1962-June 1963, most of the income-specific rates were higher in the white population (Table 4). This apparent anomaly is due to the differential age distributions in the white

and nonwhite populations. The overall rate for all nonwhites is heavily weighted by the rates for the low income groups, which comprise a high proportion of the nonwhite population. The total rate for whites is more heavily influenced by the rates in the high income groups, which comprise a relatively high proportion of the white population.

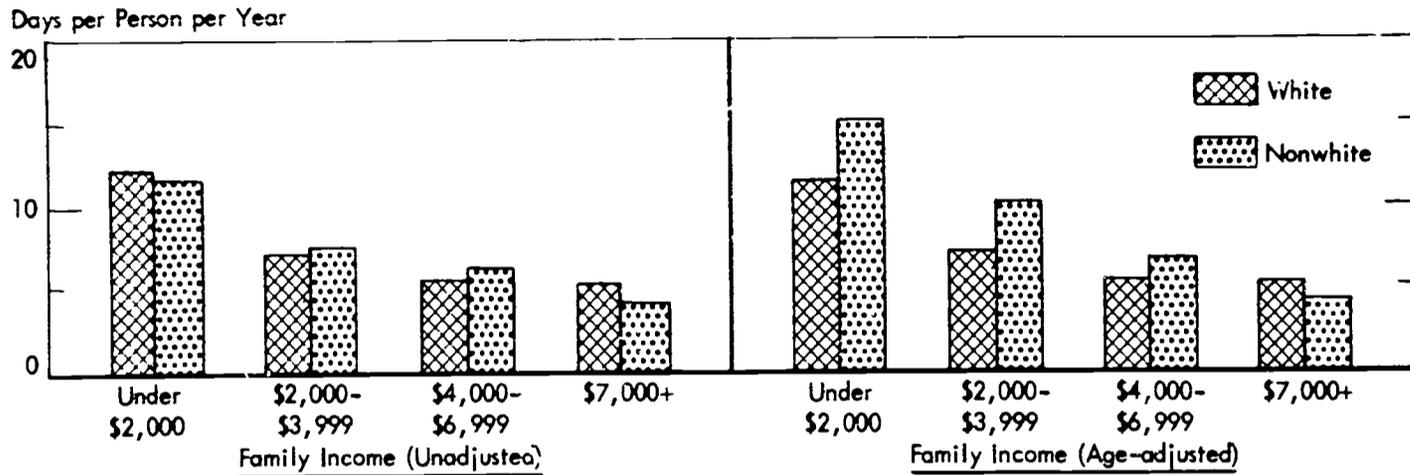
When the rates of restricted activity and bed disability are adjusted to eliminate the influence of age, the rates among the nonwhite population living in families with less than \$4,000 income are significantly higher than those for the comparable white population (Chart 3).

Table 4
DISABILITY DAYS, JULY 1962-JUNE 1963

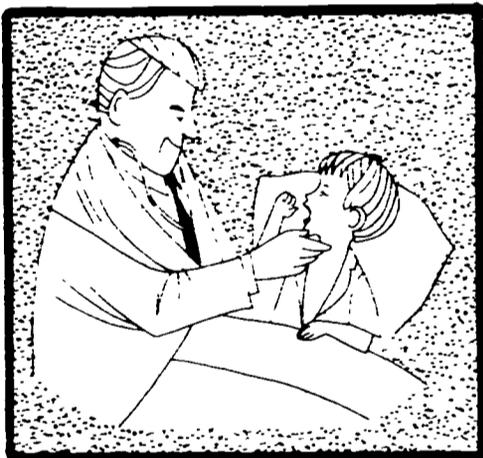
Family income	Restricted activity days		Bed disability days		Work-loss days among currently employed	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
Days (in millions)						
All incomes ^{1/}	2,579.1	389.9	1,040.2	172.7	351.5	63.9
Under \$2,000	493.2	165.1	198.2	73.3	32.8	22.3
\$2,000-3,999	463.2	113.2	192.0	47.7	61.1	17.8
\$4,000-6,999	780.4	67.0	311.2	32.7	115.8	14.8
\$7,000+	718.7	27.3	288.3	9.8	125.0	7.5
Unadjusted days per person per year						
All incomes ^{1/}	15.9	18.2	6.4	8.1	5.8	8.7
Under \$2,000	30.2	26.4	12.1	11.7	7.5	12.3
\$2,000-3,999	17.7	17.8	7.3	7.5	7.0	8.8
\$4,000-6,999	13.8	12.7	5.5	6.2	5.6	7.2
\$7,000+	13.1	11.7	5.3	4.2	5.3	6.9
Age-adjusted ^{2/} days per person per year						
All incomes ^{1/}	15.8	20.8	6.4	9.1	5.8	8.9
Under \$2,000	28.1	34.7	11.4	14.9	7.5	12.1
\$2,000-3,999	17.1	23.2	7.1	10.2	7.0	8.6
\$4,000-6,999	13.8	13.7	5.5	6.8	5.6	7.3
\$7,000+	13.1	12.3	5.3	4.3	5.3	7.3

^{1/} Includes unknown income. ^{2/} Age-adjusted to the civilian, noninstitutional population within income groups.

Chart 3
Bed Disability Days, July 1962-June 1963



The rate of work loss was higher in the nonwhite population than in the white population among all currently employed persons, as well as for those in each of the income groups shown in Table 4. Age-adjustment does not change the rates of work loss materially, since the under 15 and over 65 age groups responsible for the white-nonwhite differences in the age distribution constitute a very low proportion of the working population. The high rate of work loss associated with illness or injury among the nonwhite population may be related to the high proportion of nonwhites who are working in occupations that permit little or no latitude in rearranging work schedules and that allow no provision for reduced physical activity on the job.



There was no appreciable difference in the rate of school-loss days in the two groups. White children 6-16 years had a rate of 5.6 per child per year as compared to 5.4 days for nonwhite children.

USE OF HEALTH SERVICES

Health services providing the most comprehensive measures of utilization in a population are those which a high proportion of the population have occasion to use. With the current emphasis on preventive care, the volumes of physician and dental visits are appropriate indexes of health status for a population because both the sick and the well use such services.

In the Survey, a physician visit is defined as consultation with a physician (or a nurse or technician acting under his supervision) in person or by telephone, for examination, diagnosis, treatment, or advice, exclusive of inpatient hospital care. Each visit to a dentist's office for treatment or advice is considered a dental visit. The visit may involve services provided directly by the dentist or by a technician or hygienist acting under a dentist's supervision.

From July 1963 through June 1964, the 164 million persons in the white population had an average of 4.7 physician visits as compared to 3.3 visits per person among the 22 million members of the nonwhite group. Dental visits in the white population averaged 1.7 per person per year and in the nonwhite population, 0.9 per year. The difference between the rates of physician visits for the white and nonwhite groups decreased consistently as family income increased (Chart 4). However, for dental visits the disparity between the groups was greatest at the two extremes of the income scale.

Chart 4

Physician and Dental Visits, July 1963-June 1964

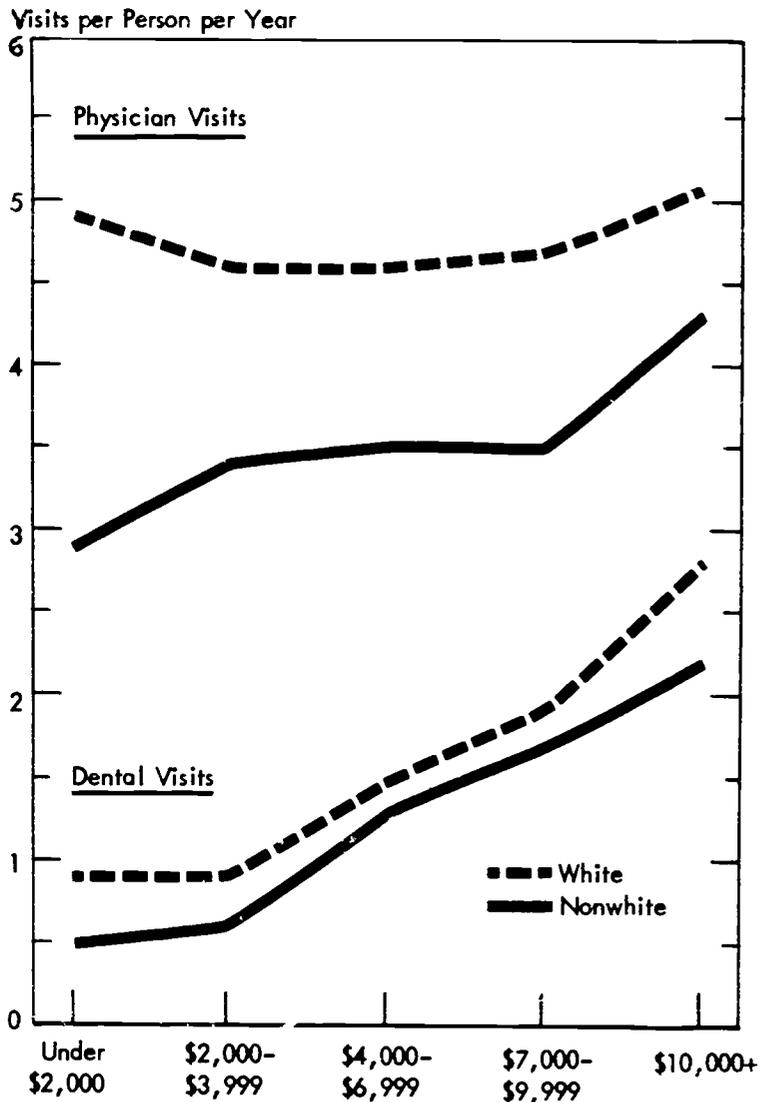


Table 5
PHYSICIAN AND DENTAL VISITS, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Type of visit and family income	Visits (in millions)		Visits per person per year ^{1/}			
	White	Nonwhite	(unadjusted)		(age-adjusted)	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
Physician visits						
All incomes ^{1/}	771.7	72.7	4.7	3.3	4.7	3.5
Under \$2,000	74.3	18.5	4.9	2.9	4.6	3.5
\$2,000-3,999	109.5	21.0	4.6	3.4	4.5	3.9
\$4,000-6,999	244.3	18.8	4.6	3.5	4.5	3.7
\$7,000-9,999	164.2	5.7	4.7	3.5	4.7	3.6
\$10,000+	142.5	4.4	5.1	4.3	5.1	4.1
Dental visits						
All incomes ^{2/}	273.9	19.8	1.7	0.9	1.7	0.9
Under \$2,000	13.3	3.3	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.6
\$2,000-3,999	22.3	3.8	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.6
\$4,000-6,999	78.5	6.7	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.3
\$7,000-9,999	67.4	2.8	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.7
\$10,000+	79.0	2.3	2.8	2.2	2.8	2.1

^{1/} Age-adjusted to the civilian noninstitutional population within age groups. ^{2/} Includes unknown income.

Age-adjustment of the rates of physician visits to the total population within each of the income groups reduces the difference between the white and nonwhite groups (Table 5). This reduction is particularly noticeable at the lower income levels where the disparity in age distribution is greatest. On the other hand, the effect of age-adjustment on the rates of dental visits is negligible. This differential effect of age-adjustment on physician and dental visits is due to the peculiar age distribution of the populations in the lower

income groups (Table 6). The marked differences in age distribution of the white and nonwhite populations are in age groups under 15 years and 65+ years--groups for whom rates of physician visits are highest and dental visits are especially low, because the need for dental services in these age-groups is less critical. Therefore, the adjustment of the data to produce similar age distributions would markedly influence rates of physician visits but would not noticeably affect rates of dental visits.

Table 6
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE WHITE AND NONWHITE POPULATION IN FAMILIES WITH LESS THAN \$4,000 INCOME, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Age	Persons with known family income less than \$4,000	
	White	Nonwhite
All Ages	100.0	100.0
Under 15	23.4	40.5
15-44	32.0	35.2
45-64	20.7	16.2
65+	23.9	8.0

Physician Visits

About 67 percent of the white population and 56 percent of the non-white population saw a doctor at least once during the year prior to interview (Table 7). Again, the differential in rates decreased as family income rose, with the rate for whites ranging from 62 percent among those with income less than \$2,000 to 73 percent for those with income of \$10,000 or more, while the comparable range for nonwhites was 51 percent to 67 percent.

Table 7
PERCENT OF THE POPULATION MAKING ONE OR MORE PHYSICIAN OR DENTAL VISITS DURING THE PAST YEAR, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Family income	Percent of population making			
	1+ physician visits		1+ dental visits	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
All incomes ^{1/}	67.4	56.2	44.6	22.7
Under \$2,000	62.4	51.4	25.8	15.3
\$2,000-3,999	63.5	55.6	30.5	19.9
\$4,000-6,999	67.0	58.8	41.0	27.4
\$7,000-9,999	70.1	63.7	52.1	32.5
\$10,000+	73.1	66.6	65.1	43.3

^{1/} Includes unknown income.

The distribution of physician visits by type of service was quite similar for the two groups, with diagnosis or treatment of disease accounting for four out of five visits in each group. However, by place of visit the distribution varied considerably (Table 8). One in three visits among nonwhites--but only one in ten visits among whites--occurred in a hospital outpatient

clinic. As family income increased there was a consistent increase for both groups in the proportion of visits occurring in the doctor's office. A high proportion of the visits classified in the "other" category were telephone consultations.

From July 1963 through June 1964, 22 percent of the white population, and 13 percent of the nonwhite population, received the services of one or more medical specialists (Table 9). Included in the selected list of

specialists were pediatricians, gynecologists or obstetricians, otolaryngologists, ophthalmologists, psychiatrists, dermatologists, and orthopedists.

Table 8
PHYSICIAN VISITS BY PLACE OF VISIT, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Family income	Percent distribution of visits							
	White				Nonwhite			
	Total	Office	Hospital clinic	Other	Total	Office	Hospital clinic	Other
All incomes ^{1/}	100.0	71.0	10.0	18.9	100.0	57.0	31.8	11.2
Under \$2,000	100.0	67.9	15.1	16.9	100.0	54.3	36.2	9.5
\$2,000-3,999	100.0	68.3	16.8	14.9	100.0	56.3	34.7	9.0
\$4,000-6,999	100.0	70.8	9.7	19.5	100.0	57.0	29.9	13.0
\$7,000-9,999	100.0	72.5	7.3	20.2	100.0	66.0	15.9	18.0
\$10,000+	100.0	73.6	6.2	20.2	100.0	68.9	22.4	8.7

^{1/} Includes unknown income.

Table 9

PERCENT OF THE POPULATION MAKING ONE OR MORE VISITS
TO SELECTED MEDICAL SPECIALISTS OR PRACTITIONERS
DURING THE PAST YEAR, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Family income	Percent of population making one or more visits to			
	Medical specialists ^{1/}		Medical practitioners ^{2/}	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
All incomes ^{3/}	21.6	12.9	12.7	6.0
Under \$2,000	13.6	8.6	12.5	4.5
\$2,000-3,999	14.4	1.9	11.9	5.4
\$4,000-6,999	20.2	15.1	11.8	6.1
\$7,000-9,999	25.2	19.5	13.1	10.3
\$10,000+	32.1	26.4	15.2	12.5

1/ Medical specialists include pediatricians, gynecologists and obstetricians, ophthalmologists, dermatologists, otolaryngologists, psychiatrists, and orthopedists. 2/ Medical practitioners include chiropractors, optometrists, and podiatrists. 3/ Includes unknown income.

Approximately 13 percent of whites, compared to 6 percent of nonwhites, received the services of an optometrist, a chiropractor, or a podiatrist at least once during the year prior to interview. The rate of visits to medical practitioners, as well as to medical specialists, increased with family income for both the white and nonwhite groups (Table 9).

Dental Visits

The proportion of whites who visited a dentist at least once during the year prior to interview (45 percent) was approximately twice that for nonwhites (23 percent). Unlike the pattern noted for the percentage of persons visiting a doctor during the year, the difference in the proportions for the white and nonwhite groups increased as the amount of family income increased (Table 7). Also the pattern of dental visits differed from that for physician visits in terms of type of service received. The proportion of visits for fillings, the most frequent type of service for both groups, was higher for the whites than for the nonwhites except for those with family income of \$10,000 or more. Marked differences between the white and nonwhite groups were noted for extractions and other surgery, with 30 percent of all dental visits for this type of service among nonwhites as compared to 14 percent among whites. The higher proportion of visits for extractions among nonwhites was maintained for all income groups, but the differential decreased with increasing amount of income. With few exceptions the proportions of visits for straightening, cleaning, and denture work were higher among the whites than among the nonwhites regardless of family income.

Hospital Discharges

Based on data collected from July 1963 through June 1964, the annual rate of hospital discharges was 132 per 1,000 in the white population and 96 per 1,000 in the nonwhite group (Table 10). Discharge rates in the white population exceeded those for the nonwhite population in all income groups under \$10,000. The high rate of discharges among nonwhites with family

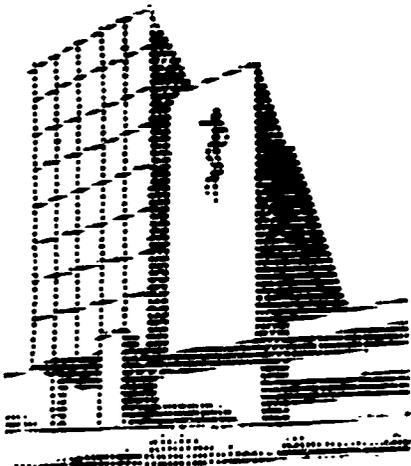


Table 10
DISCHARGES FROM SHORT-STAY HOSPITALS, JULY 1963-JUNE 1964

Family income	Discharges from short-stay hospitals					
	Number (in thousands)		Rate per 1,000 population			
	White	Nonwhite	White (unadjusted)	Nonwhite (unadjusted)	White (age-adjusted) ^{2/}	Nonwhite (age-adjusted) ^{2/}
All incomes ^{1/}	21,695	2,104	132.3	96.4	131.3	103.4
Under \$2,000	2,286	637	151.0	101.3	145.0	125.1
\$2,000-3,999	3,786	608	157.6	98.9	153.8	113.0
\$4,000-6,999	7,097	451	132.3	84.8	131.9	89.1
\$7,000-9,999	4,277	162	122.8	99.3	122.7	100.4
\$10,000+	3,228	131	116.2	125.5	116.1	125.7

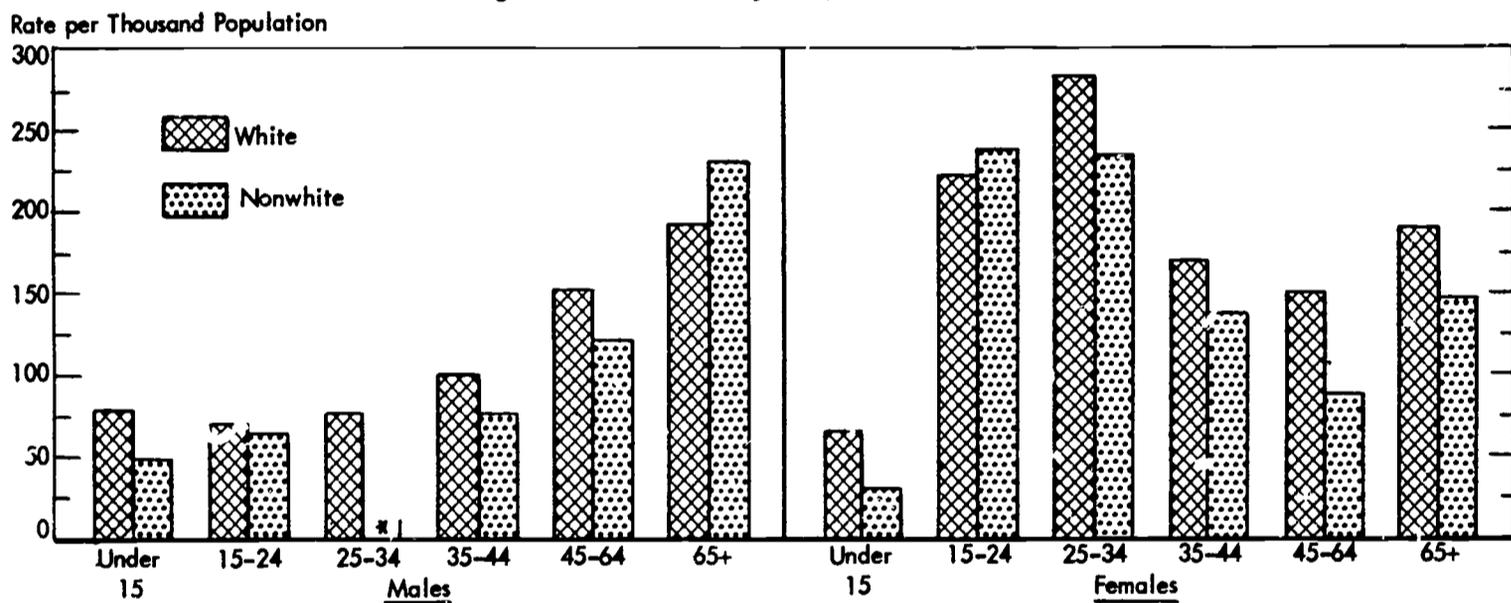
1/ Includes unknown income. 2/ Age-adjusted to the civilian, noninstitutional population within income groups.

income of \$10,000 or more (126 per 1,000 population) may be related to the comparatively high proportion of nonwhites with hospital insurance coverage in this income group, 81 percent, as compared to 46 percent with coverage among nonwhites regardless of income status.

Age-adjustment of the discharges per 1,000 population results in a significant decrease in the differential between the two groups, particularly in the lower income groups.

Conditions for which persons are hospitalized differ markedly by sex as well as age (Chart 5). Among males, the hospital discharge rate in the white population exceeds that for the nonwhite population for all age groups except those 65 years and older. Among females, the discharge rate in both the white and nonwhite groups is highest among those 15-34 years, the ages during which hospitalization for having babies is most frequent. For these age groups the rates for the two groups are quite similar, but in all other age groups the discharge rate among females is consistently higher in the white population.

Chart 5
Discharges from Short-Stay Hospitals, July 1963-June 1964



*Estimate does not meet standards of reliability.

The average length of hospital stay for persons hospitalized, however, is longer among nonwhites (10.3 days) than among whites (7.9 days). In general, the length of stay grew shorter in both groups as the amount of family income increased. The differential between the groups remained fairly consistent, with the exception of persons in families with incomes between \$7,000 and \$10,000.

These facts, taken in conjunction with increases in physician visits with rising income, suggest that higher income groups give more attention to preventive medicine. The lower income person, having delayed medical care or having been employed in a more physically demanding job, is likely to have to remain longer in the hospital once he is hospitalized.

SUMMARY

Data collected in the Health Interview Survey provide evidence that there is a marked difference in the health measures of the white and non-white populations. The rates of physician visits, dental visits, and hospital services are lower in the nonwhite population. Nonwhites report fewer chronic conditions than do whites, but the limitation of activity in the two groups occurs at about the same rate. The average number of restricted activity and bed disability days is higher in the white population, but the rate of work loss is higher among nonwhites.

Several factors have emerged that account for parts of these differences. The differential distribution of the two white-nonwhite groups by economic status, measured in terms of family income, tends to maximize the difference in rates of physician visits, dental care, hospital discharges, presence of chronic illness, and temporary disability due to illness. However, within specific economic groups in the two populations, differences between the white and nonwhite populations tend to decrease.

Another factor accounting for much of the white-nonwhite differential in health measures, particularly in the lower income groups, is the contrasting age composition of the two groups. The combined influence of a high fertility rate and a low life expectancy rate in the nonwhite population, in comparison to the white population, has resulted in a much higher proportion of young persons in the nonwhite group. For example, among persons living in families with less than \$4,000 annual income, 76 percent of the nonwhites are under 45 years of age, as compared to 55 percent of whites.

Advancing age, with increasing illness and certain kinds of disability, requires greater need for medical services. Whites, being older and having generally higher incomes, use more medical services and have a greater ability to pay for them.

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Table 1
Teaching Faculty in Four-Year Colleges and Universities According to Predominant Race of Students

Characteristics	Percent distribution of teaching faculty in institutions with predominantly:		Median total earnings in 1961-62 of faculty in institutions with predominantly:			Median contract salary for 9-10 months in 1962-63 of faculty with predominantly:		
	White students	Negro students	White students	Negro students	Difference	White students	Negro students	Difference
Number	134,005	4,198	114,040	3,731		81,971	2,813	
Total	100	100	\$ 9,251	\$6,886	\$-2,365	\$ 7,863	\$6,316	\$-1,547
Institutional characteristics								
Geographical regions*								
North Atlantic	29	16	9,609	7,811	-1,798	8,135	7,170	-965
Great Lakes & Plains	30	1	9,338	L	NA	7,902	L	NA
Southeast	17	77	8,635	6,465	-2,170	7,194	5,990	-1,204
West & Southwest	22	6	9,234	7,680	-1,554	7,992	L	NA
Universities	100	100	10,303	8,559	-1,744	8,641	6,924	-1,717
Control								
Public	65	35	10,227	L	NA	8,602	L	NA
Private	35	65	10,483	L	NA	8,724	L	NA
Size								
750 faculty or more	42	0	11,337	0	NA	9,502	0	NA
Under 750 faculty	58	100	9,676	8,559	-1,117	8,139	6,924	-1,215
Colleges & Technological institutions	100	100	8,373	6,671	-1,702	7,447	6,233	-1,214
Control								
Public	48	60	8,891	6,912	-1,979	7,735	6,244	-1,491
Private	52	40	7,795	6,237	-1,558	7,167	6,222	-945
Size								
200 faculty or more	25	11	9,684	6,222	-3,462	8,258	L	NA
Under 200 faculty	75	89	7,904	6,712	-1,192	7,237	6,262	-975
Primary assignment								
Teaching	90	93	9,110	6,850	-2,260	7,840	6,325	-1,515
Other	10	7	10,537	L	NA	8,638	L	NA
Student level taught most								
Freshmen & sophomores	41	53	7,889	6,472	-1,417	7,165	5,915	-1,250
Juniors & Seniors	40	42	9,443	7,105	-2,338	8,322	6,663	-1,659
Graduates	19	5	12,333	L	NA	10,582	L	NA
Other	0	0	7,535	L	NA	7,295	L	NA
Primary teaching area								
Agriculture & related fields	2	2	9,930	L	NA	7,089	L	NA
Biological sciences	8	5	10,128	L	NA	8,478	L	NA
Business & Commerce	5	5	9,549	L	NA	8,025	L	NA
Education & related fields	8	11	9,527	7,070	-2,457	8,152	6,148	-2,004
Engineering	7	2	11,009	L	NA	8,894	L	NA
English & Journalism	8	12	7,846	6,196	-1,650	7,237	6,470	-767
Fine Arts	10	11	8,059	6,204	-1,855	7,334	5,873	-1,461
Foreign Languages & Literature	5	6	8,055	L	NA	7,542	L	NA
Health Fields	5	5	10,975	L	NA	7,047	L	NA
Home Economics	1	4	7,258	L	NA	7,170	L	NA
Law	1	1	13,710	L	NA	12,265	L	NA
Mathematics	6	4	9,213	L	NA	7,832	L	NA
Philosophy	2	2	8,825	L	NA	7,795	L	NA
Physical & Health Education	4	8	7,894	6,998	-896	7,131	L	NA
Physical Sciences	9	7	10,415	7,494	-2,921	8,753	L	NA
Psychology	3	2	10,134	L	NA	8,512	L	NA
Religion & Theology	2	2	7,828	0	NA	7,497	L	NA
Social Sciences	12	11	9,071	7,712	-1,359	7,985	6,645	-1,340
All Other Fields	2	2	9,427	L	NA	8,322	L	NA
Personal characteristics								
Sex								
Men	83	65	9,664	7,414	-2,250	8,179	6,788	-1,391
Women	17	35	7,268	5,694	-1,574	6,918	5,603	-1,315
Age								
Under 30	8	7	6,430	L	NA	6,093	4,934	-1,159
30-39	33	29	8,202	6,127	-2,075	7,281	5,751	-1,530
40-49	30	30	9,943	6,999	-2,944	8,672	6,729	-1,943
50-59	19	25	10,352	7,265	-3,087	9,170	6,770	-2,400
60-64	6	5	10,355	L	NA	9,259	8,210	-1,049
65 and over	4	5	10,395	L	NA	9,283	7,176	-2,207
Highest educational level								
Doctorates	51	28	10,428	9,077	-1,351	9,122	8,070	-1,052
Nondoctorates	49	72	7,731	6,126	-1,605	6,967	5,655	-1,312
Rank								
Professor	27	25	12,687	9,382	-3,305	11,065	8,311	-2,754
Associate Professor	24	19	9,906	7,349	-2,557	8,775	7,000	-1,775
Assistant Professor	20	27	8,254	6,453	-1,801	7,196	6,206	-990
Instructor	16	26	6,593	4,134	-2,459	5,818	5,092	-726
Other	4	2	7,303	L	NA	6,975	0	NA
Mobility								
Not in higher education 1961-62	10	9	NA	NA	NA	6,794	L	NA
Not at same institution 1961-62	12	5	10,326	L	NA	8,659	L	NA
At same institution 1961-62	78	87	9,114	6,931	-2,183	8,010	6,350	-1,660

*Excl. faculty in the U.S. service schools and outlying areas. L-Less than 100 cases; therefore median not computed.

The Office of Education (*Education Directory, 1962-63, Part 3, Higher Education*) includes 109 institutions of higher education that are "predominantly Negro," i.e., 50 percent or more of the students attending are Negroes. These universities and four-year colleges are: (a) accredited institutions, or (b) institutions whose credits have been, and are, accepted by accredited institutions.

In the four-year period 1957-58 to 1961-62 the number of Negro institutions increased from 98 to 105, and the professional staff increased 15 percent from about 8,100 to 9,300. The major growth in number of professional staff occurred in one private university (from less than 600 to more than 1,100 persons). Theological and religious schools doubled in number (two to four) and tripled in staff. Public junior colleges increased in number from four to twelve, and the professional staffs of both public and private junior colleges showed a growth of over 80 percent. Liberal arts and teachers colleges remained relatively stable in numbers and showed modest growth in numbers of professional staff.

Quantitative Changes in Negro Institutions and Staffs, 1958-1962

Negro institutions in 1962-63 comprised only 6 percent of the total--a slightly higher proportion than in 1961-62 and 1957-58 (approximately 5 percent, Table 2). Although the number of Negro institutions and the number of faculty in these institutions are increasing, growth is not as great as it is for all institutions of higher education.

Institutions with predominantly Negro students generally are small in size and are located in the Southeast. Therefore, statistics collected from these institutions reflect these characteristics.

Level of Students

Among the predominantly Negro institutions granting first professional degrees are Howard University in Washington, D.C. (law, medicine, dentistry,

Table 2
Institutions and Professional Staff in Institutions with Predominantly Negro Students:
Fall Term, 1957-58 and 1961-62

Institutional type and control	Number of institutions		Professional staff		
	1961-62	1957-58	Number		Percent Change
			1961-62	1957-58	1957-58 to 1961-62
Total	105	98	9,310	8,081	15.21
Universities					
Public	1	1	273	264	3.41
Private	1	1	1,114	599	85.98
Liberal Arts Colleges					
Public	21	20	3,447	3,121	10.44
Private	45	47	2,783	2,621	6.18
Teachers Colleges					
(all public)	12	12	964	838	15.04
Theological and Religious					
(all private)	4	2	94	32	193.75
Other Professional Schools					
(all private)	1	2	186	262	-70.99
Junior Colleges					
Public	12	4	289	157	84.08
Private	8	9	160	187	85.56
Total of all Higher Education	2,044	1,940	427,833	348,509	22.76
Negro education as a percent of all higher education	5.14	5.05	2.17	2.32	

and theology); Meharry Medical College in Nashville, Tennessee (medicine and dentistry); and North Carolina College at Durham (law). Few Negro institutions have graduate programs in other fields. For example, Howard University confers Ph.D.s in English, history, and government; chemistry and physics; and pharmacology, physiology, and zoology; N.C.C. also confers Ph.D.s, and Atlanta University can confer doctorates in biology and in guidance and counseling. It is not surprising, therefore, that a higher proportion of faculty in Negro institutions (53 percent) than in white institutions (41 percent) is involved primarily in teaching freshmen and sophomores (Table 1).

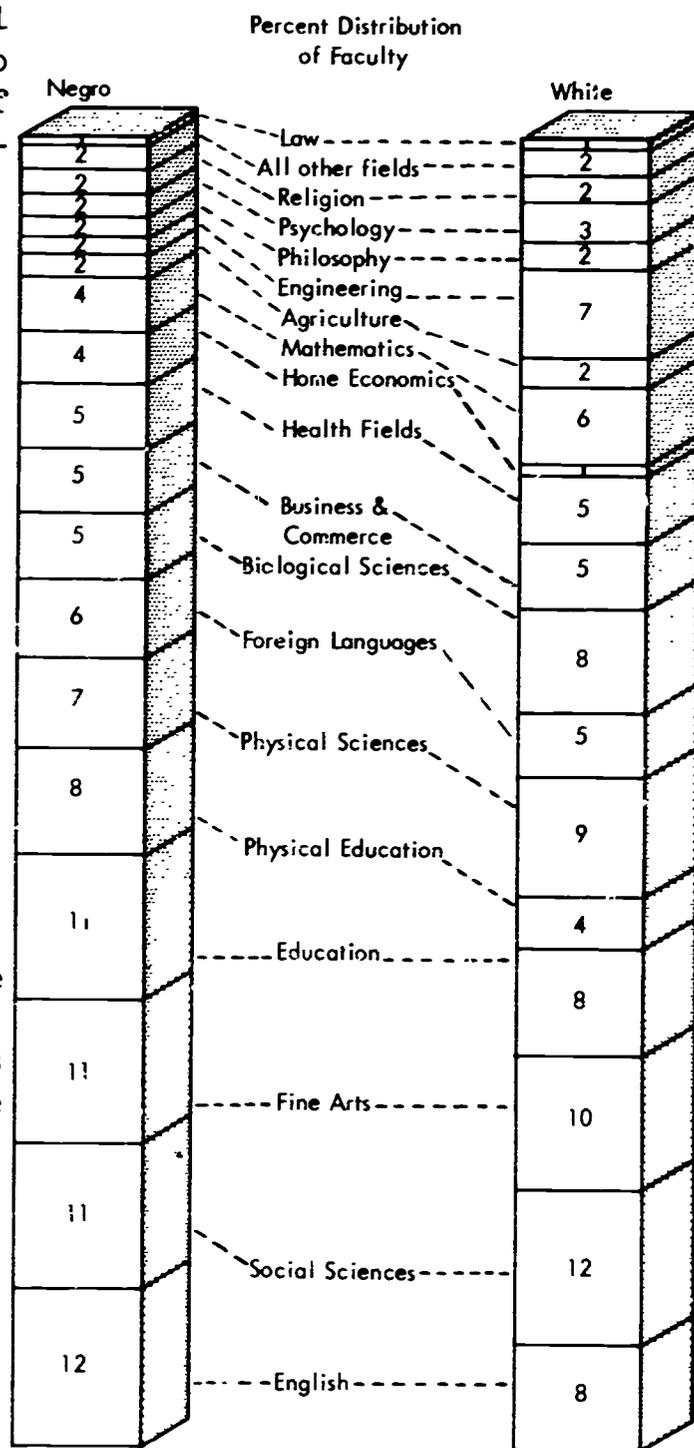
About two-fifths of the faculty in both white and Negro institutions primarily teach upperclassmen. But the contrast is sharply drawn at the graduate level--19 percent of the faculty in white institutions but only five percent of the faculty in Negro institutions are primarily concerned with teaching graduate students. The extent of terminal programs in four-year colleges and the economic status of students are contributing factors to the differences between lower-level and upper-level of enrollments and of faculty assigned to teaching at these levels. In the fall of 1962 there were about 4,600 students pursuing advanced degrees in predominantly Negro institutions. The bulk of these students were working toward a master's degree in education. Of these 4,600 only 14 were reported as enrolled either full-or part-time in the terminal year of doctoral programs.

Primary Teaching Area of Faculty

Thirty percent of faculty in white institutions--as contrasted with 18 percent in Negro institutions--are teaching engineering, mathematics, and the biological and physical sciences (Chart 1). Conversely, 36 percent of faculty in Negro colleges, and only 21 percent of faculty in white colleges, are teaching education courses, English, physical education, and home economics. There are few, if any, differences in proportions of faculty teaching agriculture, business and commerce, and the health fields; fine arts and foreign languages, social sciences, philosophy, psychology, religion, and the law.

The fiscal policies of States and philanthropic organizations have encouraged the training of Negro elementary school teachers and teachers of home

Chart 1
Primary Teaching Area of Faculty in Predominantly White and Predominantly Negro Colleges and Universities, Spring 1963



economics, physical education, and industrial arts. The extensive programs of predominantly white land grant colleges can be contrasted with the very limited programs in Negro land grant colleges.

Proportion of Women among Students and Faculty

Negro women in the South have played a significant role in Negro education. Two-thirds of Negro college students are women--just the reverse of the white college population. In universities and four-year colleges (1962-63) with white students, 17 percent of the total teaching faculty were women; twice this proportion of women (35 percent) were employed in institutions with Negro students.

Age Structure of Faculty

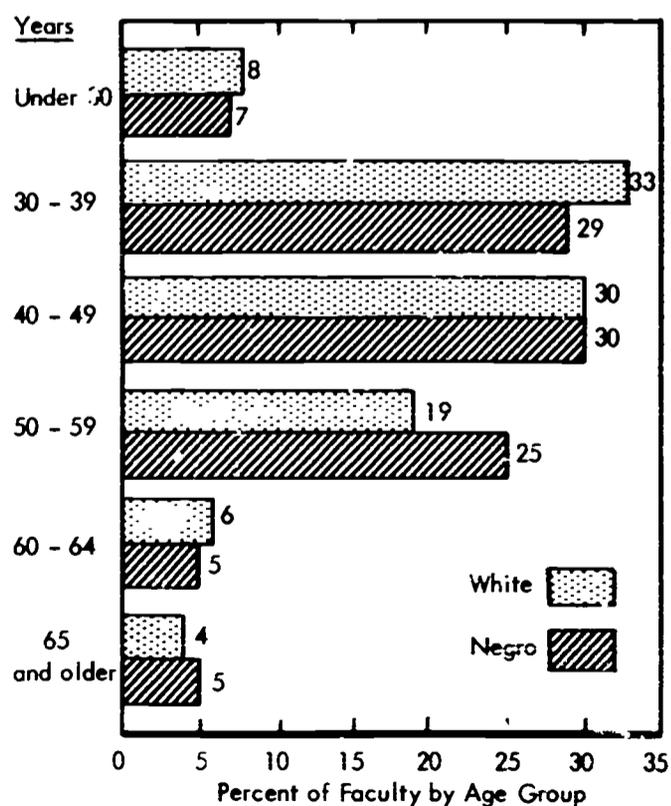
Although the median age of faculty in Negro institutions (44 years) is almost the same as that in white institutions (43 years), more faculty members in Negro institutions are in their fifties (25 percent vs. 19 percent), and fewer are in their thirties (29 percent vs. 33 percent).

These age differences may be partly the result of the demand-supply equation related to highly skilled manpower. The newly-minted Ph.D. who took his undergraduate work in a Negro college and his graduate work in a large research-oriented northern university is in demand for teaching and governmental positions outside the South--and can command a higher salary than if he returned to his home school. *Science* (July 1964) states: "The fact that many of the talented faculty members and administrators of the top Negro schools are clearly exhausted from the demands now being made on their experience, knowledge, and advice underscores the gross inadequacies of the system from which they came, as much as it highlights the relative successes achieved by a few."

Level of Degrees Awarded

In 1960 Negroes comprised 11 percent of the total number of persons in the United States in the college-and-graduate school age group 20-24. But Negroes have disproportionately small numbers of degree holders--and the disproportion widens with advancing level of education. Negro institutions in 1963 awarded about 12,300 four-year bachelor's and first professional degrees, 600 five-or-more year first professional degrees, 1,300 second-level (master's except first professional) degrees, and only seven doctor's degrees (Ph.D., Ed.D, etc.)

Chart 2
Age of Faculty in Predominantly White and Predominantly Negro Colleges and Universities, Spring 1963



In relation to the total number of degrees awarded in the United States in 1963, the percentage of degrees awarded by Negro institutions declined steadily from 3.0 percent at the B.A. level to 1.5 percent at the next two levels, to only 0.1 percent at the doctoral level.

The Office of Education data on degrees conferred in 1962-63 show relative concentrations in education and library science, home economics, trade and industrial training, and, at the extended first-professional degree level, in social sciences and the health professions.

Education of Teaching Faculty

The inadequacies of past training are reflected in the faculties of today. Fifty-one percent of the faculty in institutions with white students have earned a Ph.D., Ed.D., or equivalent, compared with 28 percent in institutions with Negro students. Furthermore, the professor in the Negro college frequently must devote more time bringing his students to college-level work than he can devote to pushing them to the frontiers of knowledge.

In these circumstances the quality of faculty instruction cannot help but be impaired. A professor is a prism through which the light of the past is refracted to the present; rare is the person who can give in his teaching a quality of instruction that he himself has not been given.

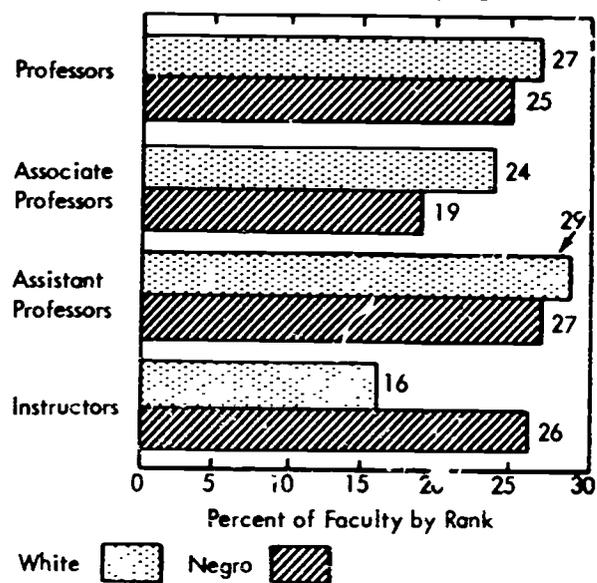
The total number of Negroes with doctorates is thought to be between 1,200 and 1,500. The principal field in which these degrees were conferred has been education.

Rank of Faculty

Faculty in Negro institutions have markedly lower ranks than their comparable numbers in white institutions (Chart 3). Assistant, associate, and full professor were the ranks held by 80 percent of faculty members in white institutions but by only 71 percent of the faculty in Negro schools.

Negro institutions rely more heavily on teaching faculty at the instructor level (26 percent) than do the white institutions (16 percent).

Chart 3
Rank of Faculty in Predominantly White and Predominantly Negro Colleges and Universities, Spring 1963



Contract Salaries and Total Earnings of Faculty

Faculty in Negro institutions receive substantially less than faculty in white institutions. In terms of 1962-63 median salaries, Negro institutions paid \$1,547 less than white institutions for nine-ten month contracts (Table 1).

Chart 4
Earnings of Faculty in Predominantly White and Predominantly
Negro Colleges and Universities, Spring 1963

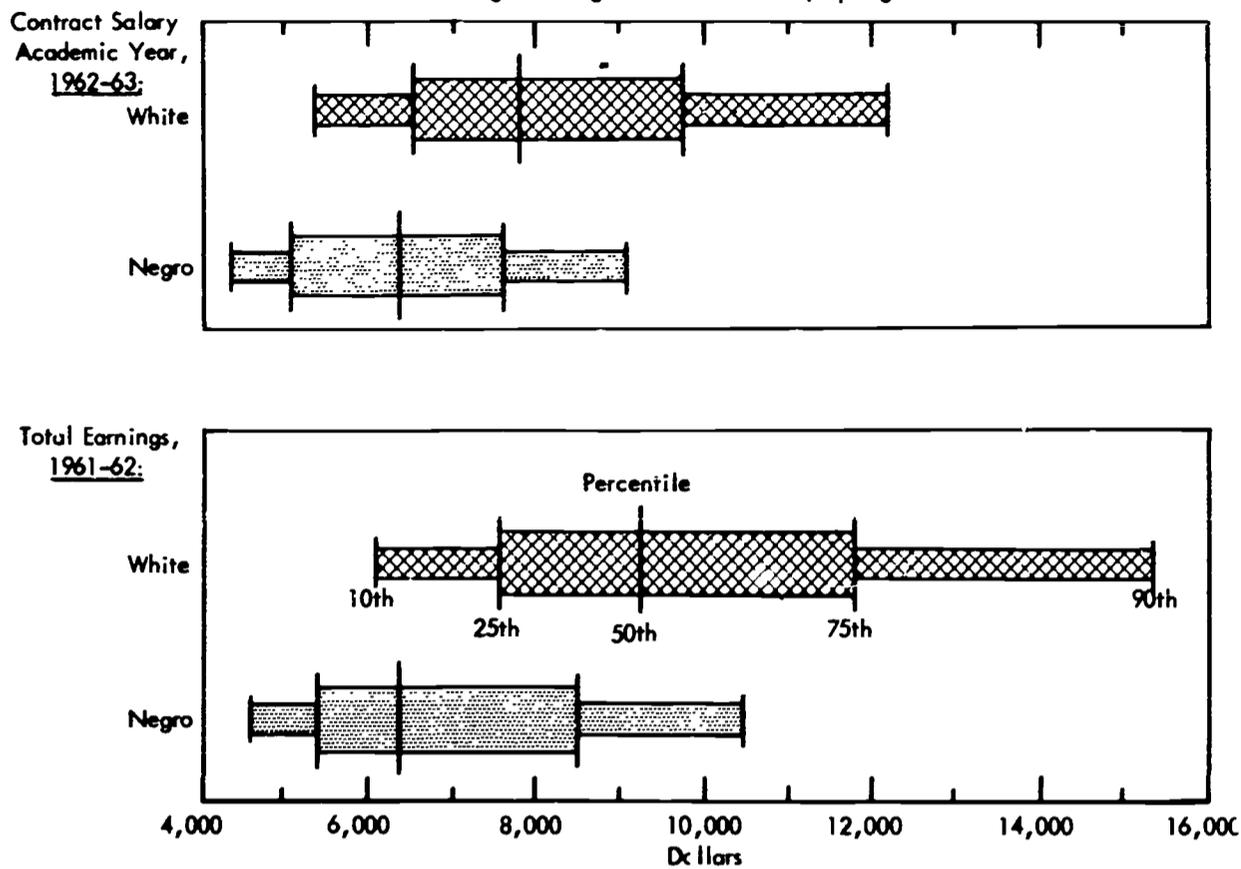
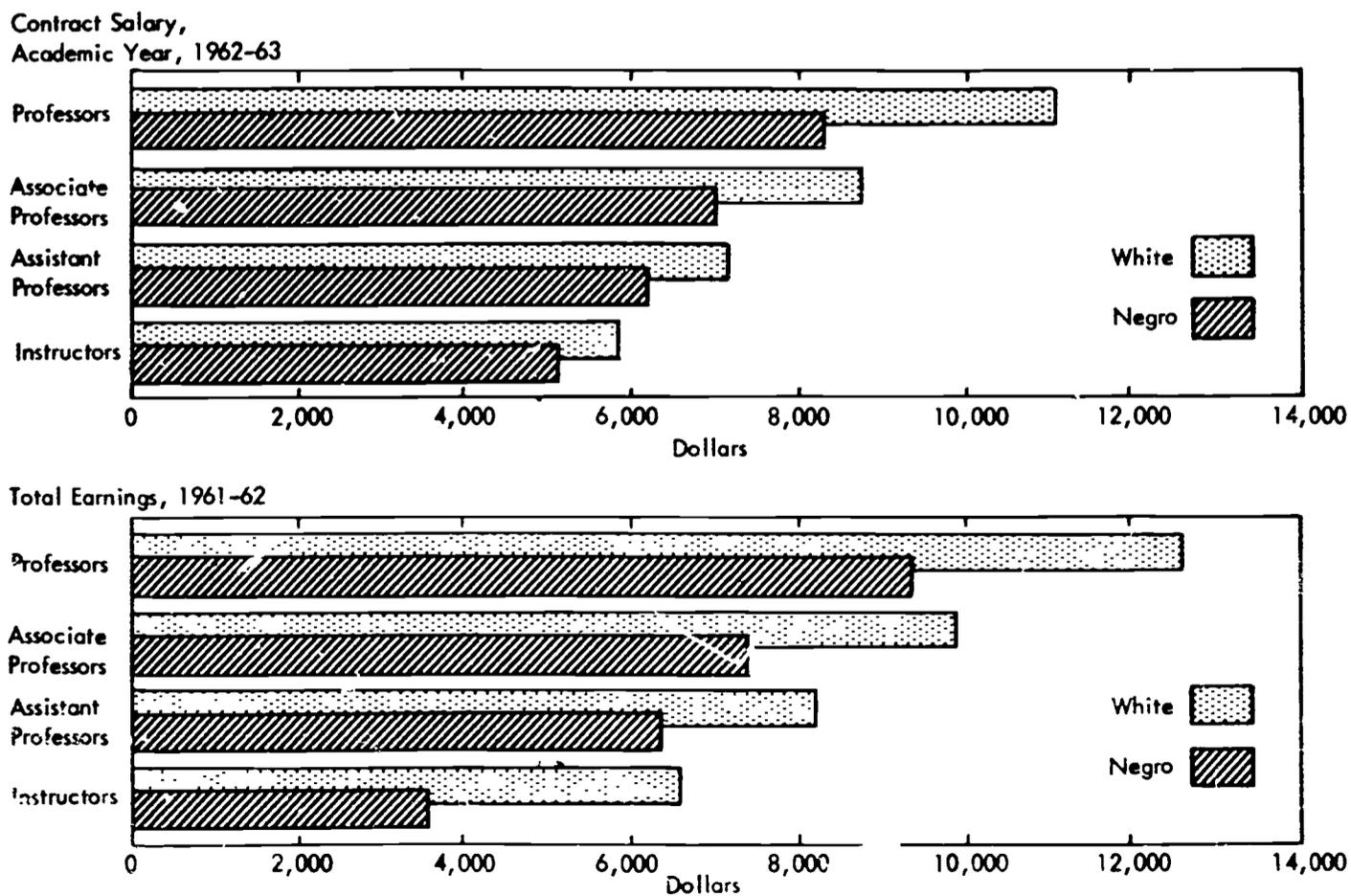


Chart 5
Median Earnings of Faculty in Predominantly White and Predominantly
Negro Colleges and Universities



For total earnings of faculty members from all sources (1961-62) the difference is even greater--\$2,365 in the National total and \$2,170 in the Southeast. The 75th percentile for total earnings of faculty in Negro institutions in 1961-62 was \$9,200, which is well below the 50th percentile, or median, of the earnings for faculty in white institutions (Chart 4).

For each characteristic of faculty members, the median total earnings of those in Negro institutions was below that in white institutions (Table 1). For example, an income differential exists for each academic rank from instructor through full professor (Chart 5). Even more striking is the fact that, in general, the teaching staff in white colleges and universities receive more income than the next higher rank of teaching staff in Negro institutions. That is, an instructor teaching white students receives more money for his efforts than does an assistant professor teaching Negro students; an assistant professor, more than an associate professor; and an associate professor, more than a full professor. The only exception is that instructors in white institutions during the academic year 1962-63 did not command quite as high contract salaries as did assistant professors in Negro institutions.

Science (July 1964) notes that, "A figure for presidential salaries is hard to establish because many (Negro) college presidents simply take whatever is left over when all the bills are paid." It states further that presidential salaries are about \$1,000 higher than salaries of full professors.

Mobility of Faculty between Institutions of Higher Education

In both Negro and white institutions, about 10 percent of the faculty had not been in higher education the previous year (Table 1); whereas the inter-institutional movement of faculty in white colleges was over twice that in Negro colleges (12 percent vs. 5 percent).

The U.S. Office of Education survey found that there is generally little movement of faculty between small colleges--only five percent changed institutions between 1961-62 and 1962-63. Movement was somewhat higher (9 percent) for all institutions in the Southeast. So even within the geographical region in which the small, Negro colleges are concentrated, there is less movement between Negro institutions than between white institutions. The limited number of Negro colleges and their slow expansion have reduced mobility.

Accreditation

With the exception of a handful of institutions in Ohio and Pennsylvania, all the Negro colleges are in the South. Only 76 are accredited--and many of these only conditionally. The core of the accredited colleges, according to the American Council on Education, consists of two groups--about 27 colleges supported by the States, and the 32 institutions founded by church groups or private philanthropies and represented by the United Negro College Fund. The accreditation status of Negro colleges is reflected in faculty characteristics set forth here.

"The only adequate generalization one can make about the...Negro colleges," *Science* states, "is that they are uniformly worse off than their white counterparts. Several of the larger institutions--Howard University in Washington, D.C.; Hampton University in Hampton, Virginia; Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee; and a few others--have not fared badly in attracting the most talented of the Negro high school graduates or in building up, with the aid of the comparatively affluent alumni and donors, comparatively well prepared faculties. These universities are recognizably members of the same species as other U.S. universities."

The Negro State-supported colleges were established between about 1865 and 1890 to parallel the developing land-grant and other State institutions for white students. *Science* points out that "Negro institutions have usually received...an average of five to ten percent of a State's appropriation for higher education....Nor have the private and church-related institutions, largely established by missionary and philanthropic groups in the period immediately following emancipation, fared much better....Yearly budgets for these institutions have been as low as \$200,000 to \$400,000."

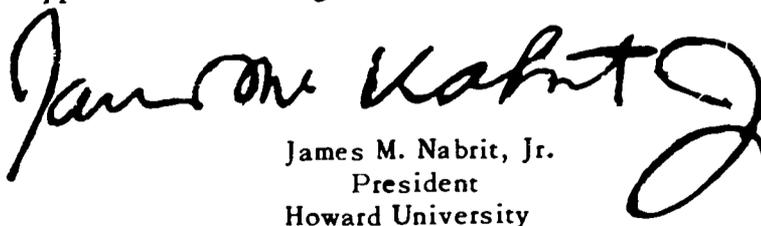
PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES TO STRENGTHEN FACULTIES OF NEGRO COLLEGES

The foregoing specifics, based primarily on a U.S. Office of Education survey undertaken in the spring of 1963, lay out some of the demographic, educational, economic, and other differences in characteristics between faculty teaching in colleges and universities that have a predominantly white student body and those which have a predominantly Negro student body. The gap is wide--is it bridgeable?

The strengthening of the faculty of colleges with predominantly Negro students requires:

1. the provision of improved teaching conditions which will attract young teachers who have completed their academic preparation;
2. the early discovery of able young men and women who might join college teaching ranks and the granting of scholarship and fellowship aid for the completion of education;
3. the provision of fellowship grants for college teachers in-service;
4. the recruitment of staff without regard to race, sex, religion or national origin;
5. staffing by loan arrangements with accredited schools in other sections of the country;
6. shared staffing among small schools and cooperative programing; and
7. grants to strengthen college instruction, such as the recent Ford Foundation allocation.

The improvement in the quality of staffing requires cooperative activity between public agencies at local, State, and national levels, and private foundations and industry. The situation offers challenges for experimentation in new approaches to staffing and instruction.



James M. Nabrit, Jr.
President
Howard University

President Nabrit of Howard University has pointed up some of the dimensions of the problem of strengthening faculties of Negro institutions. And a new bridge is now beginning to be fabricated to replace the flimsy wooden structure between the two worlds of white and Negro faculties. Voluntary and governmental agencies in spirit and in more tangible forms are now initiating efforts to strengthen faculties. President Heald of the Ford Foundation and Commissioner Keppel of the U.S. Office of Education have addressed themselves to this undertaking, and other organizations are now stepping up their efforts.

Voluntary Efforts to Strengthen Negro Colleges

The first coherent statement of the problems of the Negro colleges were produced in August 1963 by a private group growing out of the government's advisory Panel on Educational Research and Development, which was headed by Jerrold Zacharias of M.I.T. Then a draft report "Program for Negro Colleges" was prepared by Samuel Nabrit, President of Texas Southern College, and Stephen White, an officer of Educational Services, Inc.

The core of the Nabrit-White-Zacharias plan is to give first priority to upgrading the faculties and the level of teaching at Negro colleges by drawing intensively upon the skills and resources of established universities throughout the Nation. The report suggested the development of: (1) new teaching materials for use in the first two years of college; (2) summer teaching institutes; and (3) two-way exchange of faculty between flourishing and underprivileged colleges.

During the summer of 1964 there were in operation five institutes for the training of teachers from 70 Negro colleges: physics (Princeton), mathematics (University of Wisconsin), biology (University of North Carolina), English (Indiana University), and history (Carnegie Institute of Technology). A committee of the American Council on Education planned the institutes and the Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation supported them with grants.

Science quoted an instructor at one of the institutes as saying: "Most of the 'students' here have been struggling alone for years to communicate things half-forgotten or ill-understood to unprepared students. This is the first time anyone has paid any attention to their problems in years, and they are fascinated and grateful."

Planners of the institutes hope to continue and expand them in the future and perhaps to have "refresher programs" for winter vacations.

The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools expects to set up project "centers" in at least five southern cities to bring together the white and Negro universities of the area and selected public schools to improve teaching, provide learning materials, assist students financially as well as psychologically to stay in school, and provide guidance counseling for parents as well as students. The Ford and Danforth foundations have already given \$1.5 million for the project.

In the field of higher education for Negroes, the Foundation and [its Fund for the Advancement of Education] have made grants totaling \$33 million. Somewhat over half has gone directly for the improvement of private colleges attended primarily by Negroes. For while Negroes are and should be gaining admission to institutions of all types in increasing numbers, most Negro students in the immediate future will continue to be served by predominantly Negro colleges. Other efforts by the Foundation and the Fund include strengthening of teacher education and the administration of Negro colleges. . . .

Henry T. Heald, President,
The Ford Foundation
School and Society Dec. 12, 1964

A number of northern institutions are attempting to work out details of broad exchanges with southern colleges and universities; contracts until now have been minimal for the most part.

Federal Assistance Programs in Higher Education

President Kennedy in the spring of 1963 and President Johnson in 1964 called meetings of educators to discuss the problems of equal educational opportunity, particularly as affecting predominantly Negro institutions.

Beginning with the College Housing program authorized in 1950, the Federal Government has developed and expanded a wide range of assistance programs to institutions of higher education providing: (1) construction loans and grants for academic facilities (including libraries) and scientific equipment grants; (2) college housing loans; (3) student loans, graduate fellowships, and work-study programs; (4) cooperative research grants; and (5) teacher institutes.

These programs are available to Negro as well as white institutions and individuals--frequently through agencies of the Federal Government (Table 3) but sometimes, as in the case of academic facilities, through the State education agencies. The Office of Education, and the Public Health Service within the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; the Housing and Home Finance Agency; the National Science Foundation; and the Department of Labor are the Federal agencies involved.

These agencies are desirous of getting well-thought-out and substantiated proposals from all interested institutions and individuals. The key to participation is an application. Agencies--particularly the Office of Education in its Cooperative Research Program--generally entertain preliminary proposals asking for suggestions as to how to prepare the formal application for a grant or loan. The agencies, operating within the mandate granted by Congress, have much less leeway in acting on a finalized, formal proposal.

President Henry T. Heald of the Ford Foundation stated in the December 12, 1964 issue of *School and Science* that predominantly Negro institutions "with a handful of exceptions,... are weak reflections of their counterparts in the white world. By all measures--the education of their faculty, their endowment, library facilities, preparation of students, and research--most of them lag behind..."

Classroom and Library Facilities in Predominantly Negro Universities



U.S. and foreign students review a problem in mathematics at Howard University, Washington, D. C.

The American Council on Education stresses that the combined library facilities of all the Negro colleges are smaller than the facilities of any of a dozen State university libraries.



Students in the School of Library Service at Atlanta University are learning how to guide other students and the general public to the distilled experience of the past and present.

In recent years the Office of Education has devoted increasing attention to the problem of assisting small, undeveloped colleges and universities to make fuller use of their human resources. As pointed out in the accompanying article, a great deal needs to be done especially to bridge the gulf between white and predominantly Negro institutions and their faculties. However a decent beginning has been made. Office of Education specialists have helped to plan campus institutes to bring academic courses up to date and to deepen the professional knowledge of faculty members. Institutes in English, biology, history, physics, and other disciplines have been organized locally by the American Council on Education, with Office of Education participation.

The Office promotes participation by faculty members of predominantly Negro colleges in Federally sponsored research projects at leading universities. It gives expert counsel on the exchange of faculty and students among Northern and Southern colleges, and encourages small institutions to combine their faculties where feasible to strengthen scholarship and instruction: these and other forms of assistance would be greatly augmented and supported financially by Title III of the proposed Higher Education Act of 1965.

Under the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Office of Education has established an Equal Educational Opportunities Program. One phase of this program includes financial and technical support for college and university institutes at which teachers will be specially trained in solving educational programs occasioned by desegregation. Similarly, under the newly-enacted Title XI of the National Defense Education Act, the Office has launched a program to assist colleges and universities in organizing special institutes for those who teach in schools largely populated by deprived youth and for training persons entering the teaching field.

It is my hope that by methods such as these, and by the more intensive use of aids already available to colleges and universities generally, we may help the smaller, less advantaged colleges use their facilities more effectively in meeting the Nation's rising requirements in higher education.

Francis Keppel

Francis Keppel
Commissioner of Education
U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

The Cooperative Research Program holds promise for the individual researcher, whether he is in a white college or a Negro college. It supports the development of new knowledge about major problems in education and new applications of existing knowledge in solving such problems. A wide variety of financial support is provided through colleges, universities, and State educational agencies to individuals for research projects in such areas as basic research in the learning process, curriculum improvement, improvement of education in the arts and humanities, demonstration activities, and studies of school administration of the environment of education.

In tangible and intangible ways, academic institutions, foundations, and governments are beginning to bridge the gap between predominantly white and predominantly Negro institutions. These inadequate and long-delayed efforts should gradually rectify the imbalances of the past.

Table 3

SELECTED PROGRAMS OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

Program	Major provisions	Percent federal contribution	Application forms
U.S. Dep't of Health, Education, and Welfare; Office of Education Washington, D.C. 20202 Higher Education Academic Facilities (P.L. 88-204)	Grants and loans to cover part of costs of construction of academic facilities to increase undergraduate enrollment capacity	33 1/3	Bureau of Higher Education
National Defense Student Loans (P.L. 88-665, Title II)	Loans to needy, able college students selected by the college	90	Student Financial Aid Branch, Division of College and University Assistance, Bureau of Educational Assistance Programs
Work-Study (Economic Opportunity Act, P.L. 88-452)	Funds for college students from low-income families for part-time employment on campus	90	Work-Study Program Branch, Division of Student Financial Aid
	Funds for certain off-campus employment	50	Student Loan Program Branch, Div. of Student Financial Aid
NDREA Graduate Fellowships (P.L. 88-665, Title IV)	Funds for fellowships to doctoral students including junior faculty members in new or expanding programs of graduate education	100	Graduate Fellowship Branch, Division of College and University Assistance
NDREA Teacher Institutes (P.L. 88-665, Title XI)	Primarily secondary teachers in non-scientific fields, such as English, reading, history, school library, personnel, and disadvantaged youth	up to 100	Division of College and University Assistance
Cooperative Research (P.L. 88-531)	Funds (through contract) for research in education and for curriculum development	up to 100	Cooperative Research Program
Housing and Home Finance Agency Washington, D.C. 20410 College Housing Loans	Loans for construction of dormitories, dining halls, and other income-producing college buildings	up to 100	Community Facilities Administration
National Science Foundation Washington, D.C. 20550 Graduate Fellowships	Predoctoral and postdoctoral graduate fellowships in the biological and physical sciences	100	Fellowship Branch
Undergraduate Instructional Scientific Equipment Grants	Funds up to \$25,000 for a single college for laboratory equipment and minor remodeling	50	Special Projects in Science Education Section, Division of Scientific Personnel and Education
Teacher Institutes	Funds for mathematics and science faculty conducting summer and academic year institutes, and stipends to experienced elementary and secondary teachers	up to 100	Institutes Branch, Science Education Section
Summer Traineeships	Limited number of traineeships for college students available within the Federal Government	100	Personnel office of specific department or agency of the Federal Government in which the student is interested.

NOTE: In every instance application must be made by the institution of higher education. Where a given program involves loans, fellowships, or other assistance to individual students, the student must apply to the institution in which he is enrolled.

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Office of Education

Statistics of Negro Colleges and Universities: Students, Staff, and Finances, 1900-1950. Circular No. 293, April 1951.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education

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Aerial view of Howard University, Washington, D. C.

LIBRARY RESOURCES AND SERVICES IN WHITE AND NEGRO COLLEGES

Theodore Samore

Almost all academic institutions in the United States are plagued by library deficiencies of one sort or another. The impact of sharply rising enrollments and the even sharper increase in the output of printed materials have placed severe strains on already inadequate library resources and services. Not only are a majority of academic libraries substandard in collections and staff but they are also faced with growing demands which threaten to engulf them.

Especially vulnerable are the libraries of those institutions of higher education attended predominantly (more than 50 percent) by Negro students. In 1962-63, all 109 Negro institutions were in the South and in the District of Columbia, except for two colleges each in Ohio and Pennsylvania. Estimates have been made on library resources and services for all these institutions based on data reported to the Office of Education by 84, or 77 percent, of the reporting institutions.

These colleges enrolled approximately 90,000 Negro students in 1962-63. During that academic year they reported holdings of 3.7 million volumes, added 240,000 volumes, subscribed to 28,000 periodicals, and spent over \$4.2 million for services. Their combined resources, however, do not equal the collections of several single libraries of State institutions of higher education.

If the total resources of Negro college libraries are inadequate, then the individual resources are even more so. The quality of any academic library is determined by: (1) material resources, (2) staff resources, and (3) financial resources. Although the size of the collection itself is no guarantee of quality, the number of volumes in a library is a rough indicator of basic adequacy.

As a guide to institutions in measuring the adequacy of their library facilities and professional staffs, the American Library Association in 1959-60 recommended standards for college and junior college libraries depending upon size of enrollment (Table 1).

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This article is based on data reported to the Office of Education and appearing in *Analysis of Library Statistics of Colleges and Universities, 1962-63* (OE-15023-63).

"White" and "Negro" here refer to the institutional classification, which is based upon the predominant race of attending students. In both classifications of institutions there are white and Negro faculty and students.

Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators, July 1965

Table 1
Minimum Standards for Academic Libraries Recommended by the American Library Association

Category	Minimum standards for:	
	College libraries	Junior college libraries
Volumes	50,000 for up to 600 students and 10,000 more for each additional 200 students	20,000 for up to 1,000 students and 5,000 more for each additional 500 students
Professional staff	Three or more librarians, depending on size of enrollment	Two or more librarians, depending on size of enrollment
Expenditures	5 percent of total educational and general budget	

College Libraries Fall Short of American Library Association Standards

Measured against the standards developed by the American Library Association, both white and Negro libraries are inadequate in library resources, personnel, and financial support (Table 2). More than seven out of ten four-year institutions--white as well as Negro--lack adequate professional staff. But Negro institutions of higher education generally fall shorter of the mark. One-half of the four-year white institutions fall below ALA standards both in volumes and expenditures--about the same proportion (55 percent) of Negro four-year institutions fall below those standards in expenditures, but the proportion jumps to 85 percent in terms of volumes.

Moreover, a substantial gap in adequacy of resources and services exists between four-year institutions and two-year institutions, particularly in volume collections, with 88 percent of two-year white institutions and 95 percent of Negro junior colleges failing to measure up to American Library Association standards. Professional staff in junior colleges is the one category in which white institutions fall below Negro institutions. However, there are 637 white junior colleges and only 17 Negro junior colleges.

Table 2
Percentage of White and Negro Academic Libraries Falling Below American Library Association Standards, ^{1/}Aggregate United States, 1962-63

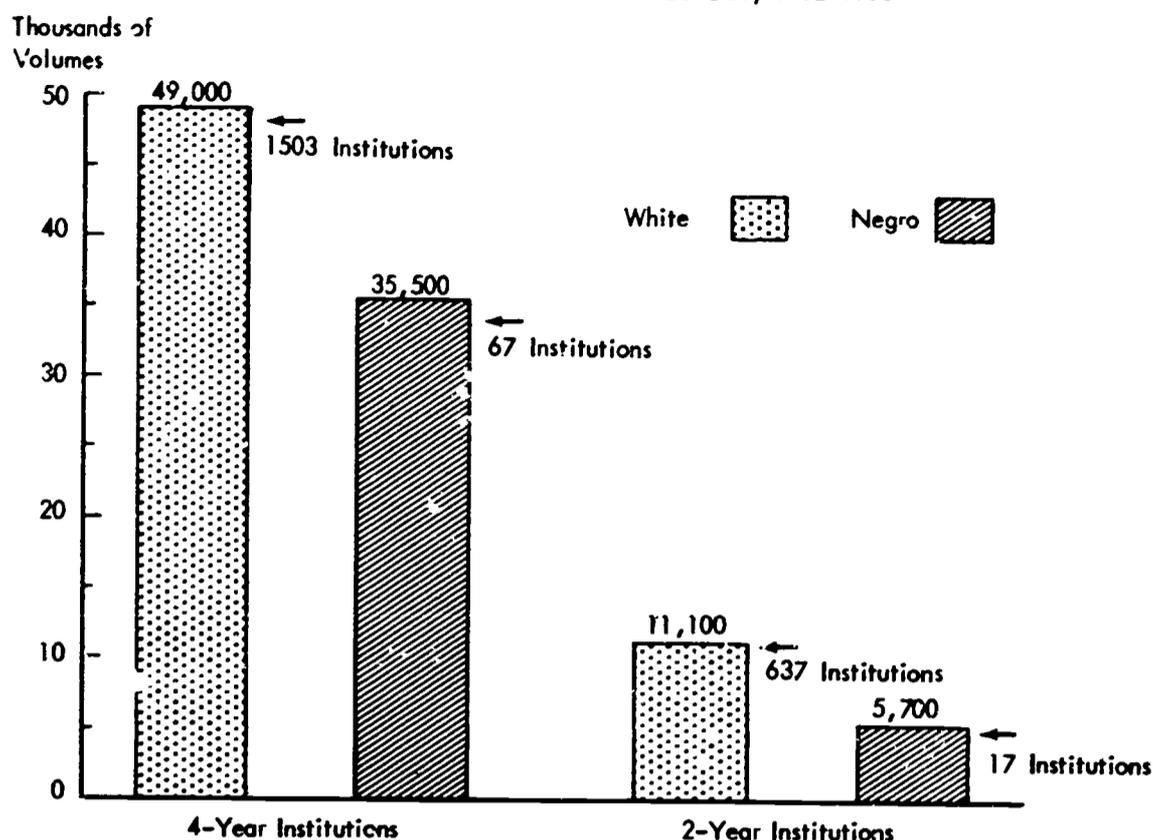
Category	Percentage of college and university libraries falling below ALA standards			
	Four-year institutions		Two-year institutions	
	White	Negro	White	Negro
Volumes	50	85	88	95
Professional staff	71	71	30	72
Expenditures	50	55	54	57

^{1/} Enrollment was taken into account in determining whether or not institutions met American Library Association standards.

Library Collections in White and Negro Colleges

In 1962-63, median library collections in four-year white institutions were 38 percent greater than those in four-year Negro institutions. In two-year institutions the spread was far greater--white institutions had nearly twice as many volumes as did Negro institutions in their respective collections (Chart).

MEDIAN LIBRARY COLLECTIONS IN PREDOMINANTLY WHITE
AND PREDOMINANTLY NEGRO COLLEGES, 1962-1963



College Library Materials and Expenditures by Size of College Enrollment

Library materials and expenditures in academic year 1962-63 increased with increasing size of enrollment, and in each instance were greater for white institutions than for Negro institutions (Table 3). Mean operating library expenditures per student in four-year institutions with enrollment under 5,000 ranged from \$42 to \$54, except for a \$90 expenditure per student in the smallest white colleges. Expenditures per student were about the same in white and Negro colleges with enrollments of 500 to 2,500 students, but were greater for white colleges than for Negro colleges with enrollments below 500 and between 2,500 and 5,000. These discrepancies suggest that the larger Negro college libraries are relatively worse off than the smaller ones. Institutions with more than 5,000 enrollment were excluded from consideration because only one Negro institution had this large an enrollment. Two-year institutions have also been excluded, due to insufficient data on Negro junior colleges.

Table J
White and Negro Four-Year College and University Libraries,
Aggregate United States, 1962-63^{1/}

Enrollment size of college or university	Library materials and expenditures (means per institution by enrollment size)											
	Volumes (000's)				Periodicals received during year		Expenditures (in dollars)					
	At end of year		Added during year				Operating				Materials and binding (000's)	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	Total (000's) White	Total (000's) Negro	Per student White	Per student Negro	White	Negro
Below 500	30	29	2.0	1.6	285	242	\$22.1	\$26.5	\$90	\$52	\$13.5	\$8.3
500-999	45	41	2.5	2.3	323	284	39.2	37.4	54	53	13.5	12.3
1,000-2,499	78	55	4.6	3.3	552	433	73.5	72.5	52	52	26.2	25.5
2,500-4,999	178	98	9.3	6.1	1,411	828	161.0	141.0	45	42	56.0	45.6

^{1/} Based on data from 1,503 white institutions and 67 Negro institutions.

The most striking differences occur between the institutions with enrollments of 2,500 to 5,000--the mean figure for volume collections in white institutions is 178,000, or 82 percent above the 98,000 figure for Negro institutions.

Perhaps even more important than the total number of volumes are the annual addition of volumes and the number of periodicals currently acquired. Negro college libraries add volumes at a substantially lower rate than their white counterparts; in 1962-63, the mean differences ranged from 200 to 3,200 volumes. Moreover, the number of current periodical subscriptions is a major factor in evaluating the adequacy of library resources. Here, too, Negro college libraries in all four enrollment categories were sharply behind white college libraries and differentials persisted with respect to expenditures for materials and binding necessary to maintain library collections.

Faculty Attitudes toward Library Resources

Student attitudes toward library adequacy are unavailable. With respect to faculty attitudes, however, Dr. Earl J. McGrath, former U.S. Commissioner of Education and currently Executive Officer of the Institute of Higher Education at Columbia University, has analyzed responses to a questionnaire sent to over 700 faculty members of Negro institutions. These faculty concede that library resources in Negro colleges are generally adequate for undergraduate courses but not for graduate courses. There is a lack of depth in source materials in major subject fields, and audio-visual materials are lacking.

The serious inadequacy of library resources and services in most of the predominantly Negro colleges reflects a history of insufficient support from both public and private sources. In the catching up process, Negro college libraries are handicapped by three almost inexorable forces--rising enrollments, rising book production, and rising costs. Adequate libraries are--and will continue to be--fundamental to raising teaching and learning to a level commensurate with providing a quality education.

Inadequacies of Negro College Libraries

The majority of respondents from 51 of the 63 four-year colleges judged their libraries to be adequate to support the teaching of beginning students. In only 19 of [these] . . . colleges did a majority of the faculty consider the library resources adequate for the needs of advanced classes. Moreover, faculties in the junior colleges reported significant deficiencies in books published before 1945, back files of journals, government documents, and audio-visual materials. Many faculty members also pointed to a specific lack of key titles and landmark books for students in major subject fields, as well as a deficiency of journals, reference materials, and source documents which they needed to keep abreast of scholarly developments in their own disciplines.

Finally, many faculty members in various disciplines expressed the need for films and records and for the equipment to use them. Every college library should have collections of recorded music, poetry, and drama, as well as guides to available films and funds for renting them. The whole range of audio-visual materials offers an especially effective means to help broaden the knowledge and stimulate the intellectual interests of students of limited backgrounds, and the evidence from this survey indicates that professors and their students in the predominantly Negro colleges would make much use of these materials if they were available.

*The Predominantly Negro
Colleges and Universities
in Transition*, Columbia
University, 204 pp., 1965

Earl J. McGrath, *Executive Officer*:
Institute of Higher Education
Teachers College, Columbia University

LEVELS OF LIVING AMONG WHITES AND NONWHITES

James D. Cowhig and Calvin L. Beale

Reasonable men know that arguments about inherent superiority of one group, class, or population, are quite irrelevant to the issue of equal treatment under law. But rational and effective policies concerned with what "ought" to be demand knowledge about the situation of the Negro in the United States and about changes over a period of time.

This article is an interpretation of information, available and verifiable from published research reports or census volumes, on the socioeconomic position of the Negro population in the United States today. The data illustrate white-nonwhite differences related to material living conditions and the educational experience of children and young adults. They support three generalizations:

- (1) increases in the level of living and educational status of nonwhites over the last decade or so have not been sufficient to eliminate--or in some instances, even to narrow--differences between whites and nonwhites;
- (2) greatest white-nonwhite differences are in the rural population and particularly within the farm population;
- (3) in many respects--particularly the education associated with occupational placement--the position of Negroes in 1960 was about that of whites 20 years earlier.

Most of the census data summarized in this article are published for whites and nonwhites, and for technical accuracy we use the term "nonwhite" rather than Negro. But since about 92 percent of all nonwhites are Negroes, white-nonwhite differences at the national or regional level are essentially white-Negro differences.

Levels of Living

A simple question to ask--but by no means a simple one to answer--relates to the living conditions of whites and nonwhites. What are the differences in availability of facilities and amenities generally included among those comprising a minimum standard of living in the United States?

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Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators, Oct. 1965

As a summary measure of what is commonly referred to as "level of living," we use the percentage of households in 1960 with access to all of the following: a dwelling unit in sound condition, hot water piped inside the structure, a telephone, and an automobile.

This information was derived from special tabulations of the 1-in-1,000 sample of census returns for the 36 million households headed by an employed civilian male. Because the prevalence of broken marriages and unemployment is associated with lower socioeconomic status and because both are more common among nonwhites than whites, the picture of nonwhite levels of living is a more favorable one than if households headed by women or unemployed men had been included.

Roughly twice as many white households as nonwhite households reported access to all four of these levels of living indicators (Chart 1), and the ratio rose to 12:1 in rural areas, both farm and non-farm. These sharp white-nonwhite differences persisted even when family income was considered (Chart 2). For example, among households with less than \$1,000 in income, 35 percent of white households, but only 2 percent of nonwhite households, reported all of the items included in the summary measure. In fact, it was only at family income levels of \$7,000 or more that more than half of the nonwhite households had all the items. And only about a third as many nonwhite families (15 percent) as white families (43 percent) had incomes of \$7,000 or more in 1959 (Table 1). Differences in the living conditions of whites and nonwhites were substantial at all income levels and were consistently in favor of whites.

Table 1
SUMMARY MEASURE OF LEVEL OF LIVING FOR WHITE AND NONWHITE HOUSEHOLDS, UNITED STATES, 1960

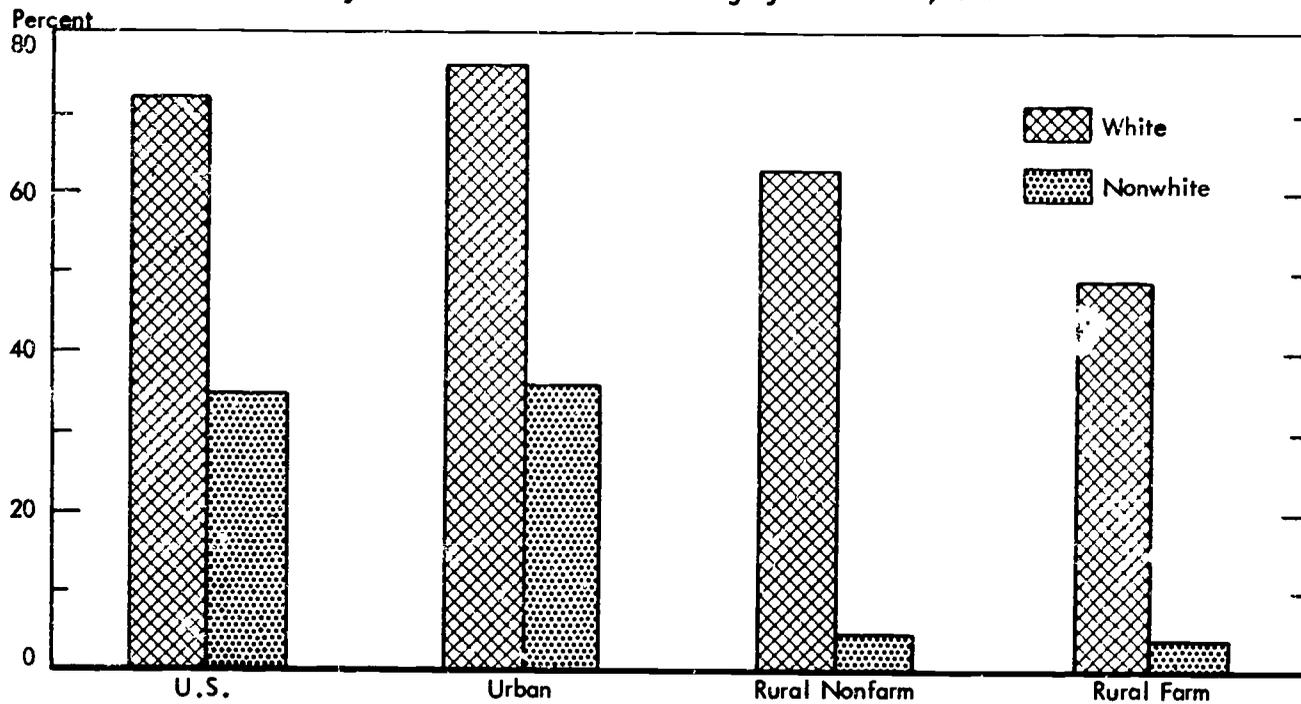
Residence and family income	Total households ^{1/}		Percent with all items in summary measure of level of living ^{2/}	
	White (000's)	Nonwhite (000's)	White	Nonwhite
Residence UNITED STATES.....	32,866	2,856	72	35
Urban.....	23,354	2,229	76	36
Rural nonfarm.....	6,927	412	63	5
Rural farm.....	2,585	215	49	4
(Percent)				
Family income in 1959....	100	100	-	-
Under \$1,000.....	2	8	35	2
\$1,000-1,999.....	4	13	38	6
\$2,000-2,999.....	6	16	38	17
\$3,000-3,999.....	8	15	46	23
\$4,000-4,999.....	11	14	59	32
\$5,000-6,999.....	27	18	73	41
\$7,000-9,000.....	24	11	84	60
\$10,000 and over.....	19	4	91	68

Source: James D. Cowhig, "Urban and Rural Levels of Living, 1960." *Agricultural Economic Report*, No. 79, U.S. Department of Agriculture, July 1965, Tables 1 and 2. ^{1/} Households headed by an employed male in the civilian labor force. ^{2/} Includes: a house in sound condition, hot piped water inside the structure, availability of an automobile, availability of telephone

Although comparable data for 1950 are not available for the total U.S. population, it is possible to compare the 1950 and 1959 level of living of a specific segment of the U.S. population, namely Southern white and nonwhite farm operators (Chart 3). In this case, the index is based on a weighted formula including possession of facilities (automobile, telephone, home freezer) and dollar values of the farm enterprise and farm sales. The level of living of both white and nonwhite farm operators in the 14 Southern States for which white-nonwhite data were available was below the national average. But more striking is the sharp distinction between Southern whites and nonwhites and the fact that the relative position of nonwhite farm operators had deteriorated over the period 1950-1959. Additional analyses of population and housing census data on Southern farm people showed clearly that this finding in regard to the farm operator level of living index was not a statistical artifact. In each of a number of measures of socioeconomic status used--income, educational attainment, housing conditions--wide white-

Chart 1

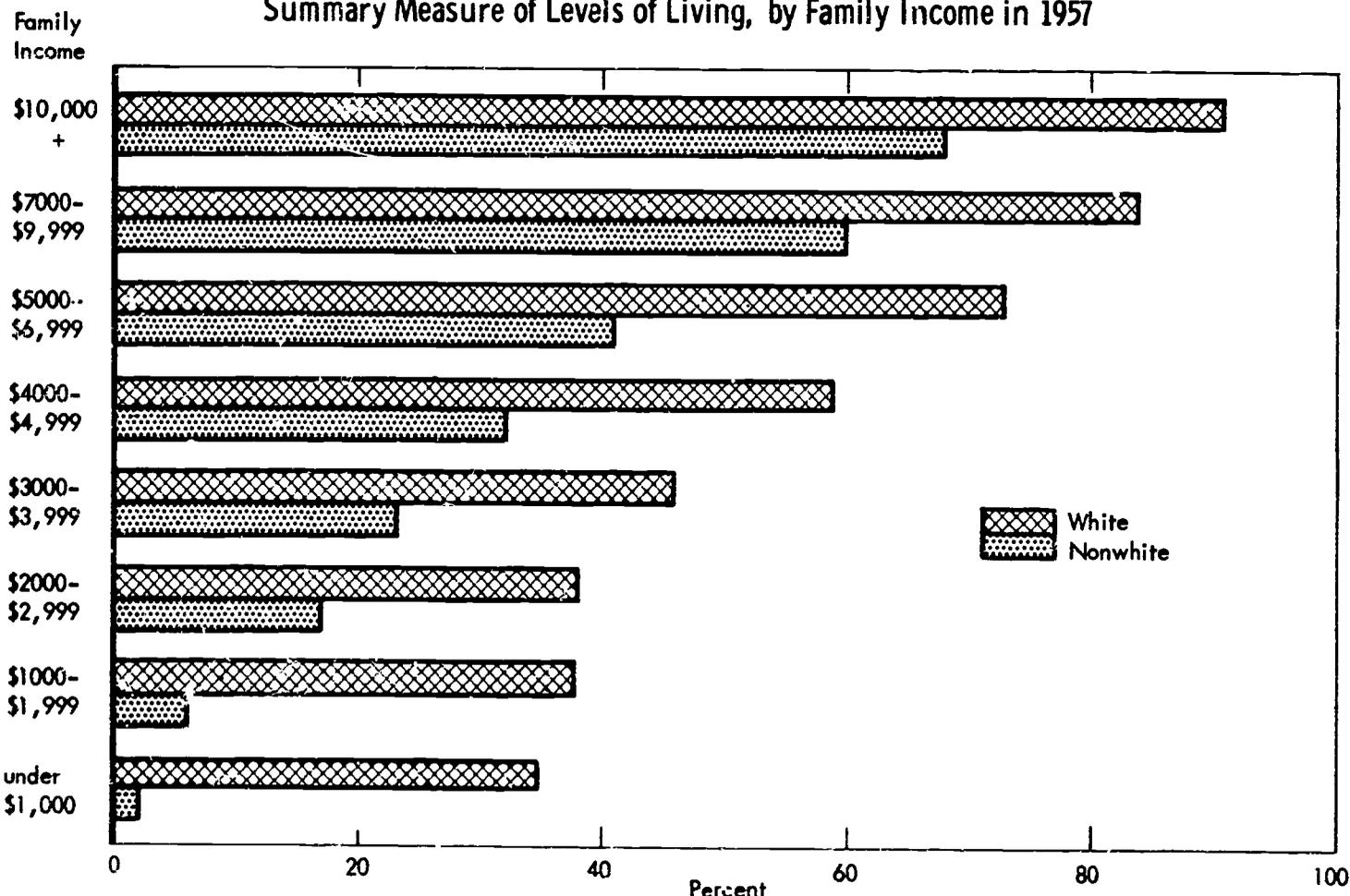
Summary Measure of Levels of Living by Residence, 1960



Source: James D. Cowhig, *Urban and Rural Levels of Living 1960*, Agricultural Economic Report No. 79, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, July 1965. Data refer to households with an employed male 14 years old and over in the civilian labor force in 1960 and to the percentage of households with dwelling unit in sound condition, hot piped water inside the structure, telephone, and an automobile.

Chart 2

Summary Measure of Levels of Living, by Family Income in 1957



Source: James D. Cowhig, *Urban and Rural Levels of Living 1960*, Agricultural Economic Report No. 79, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, July 1965. Data refer to households with an employed male 14 years old and over in the civilian labor force in 1960 and to the percentage of households with dwelling unit in sound condition, hot piped water inside the structure, telephone, and an automobile.

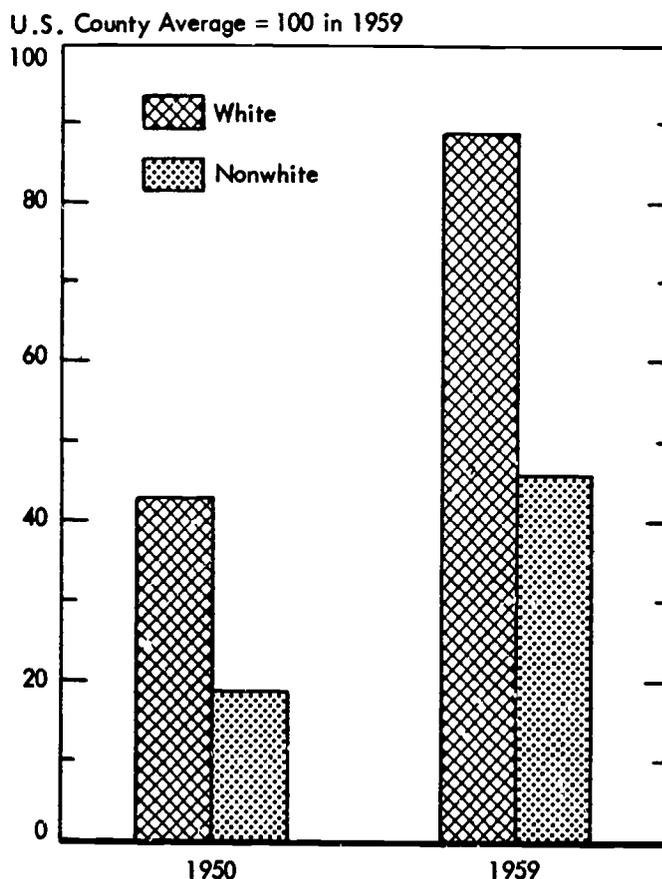
nonwhite differentials evident in 1950 had persisted to 1959. The changes that occurred were not sufficient even to maintain the previous relative position of whites and nonwhites. This emphasizes the little-recognized fact that the most seriously disadvantaged segment of the Negro population--both absolutely and relatively--is the farm population of the South. These data support the conclusion that in the areas of social and economic change, the urban-rural distinction is an important one.

School Progress

In 1950, over half of all nonwhites--and less than one-fourth of all whites--14 and 15 years old who were enrolled in school were in grades below the normal span for their age (Table 2). Ten years later the proportions were 30 for nonwhite

Chart 3

Farm Operator Level of Living Indexes in 14 Southern States



Source: James D. Cowhig and Calvin L. Beale, "Socioeconomic Differences Between White and Nonwhite Farm Populations of the South," *Social Forces*, March 1964. Farm operator level-of-living indexes are based on a weighted formula in which items included are: average value of sales of farm products per farm, average value of land and buildings per farm, proportions of farm operators reporting telephone, home freezer, and automobile. The U.S. county average was 100 in 1959 and 59 in 1950.

Table 2
INDICATORS OF EDUCATIONAL STATUS, UNITED STATES

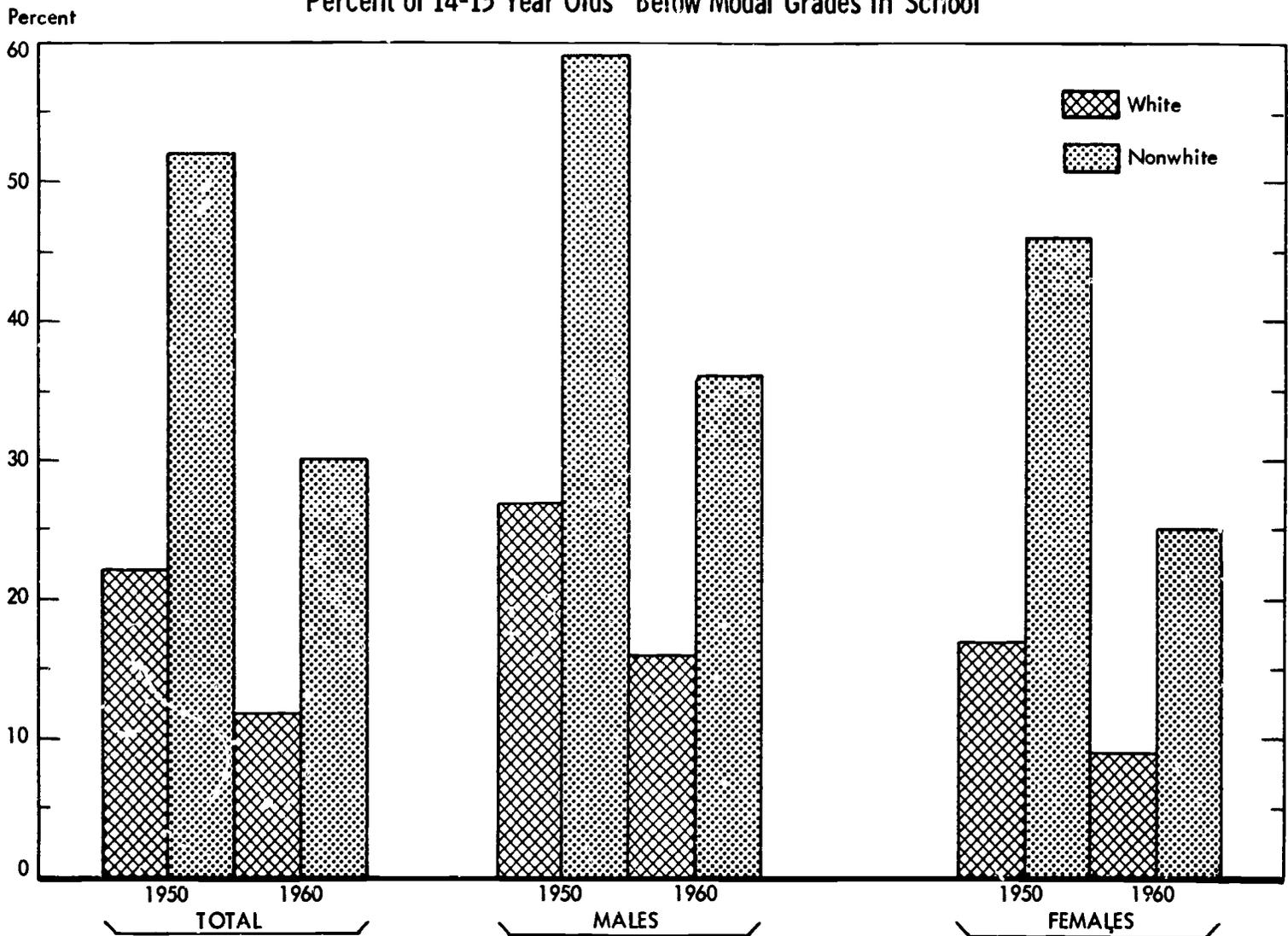
Indicator	Percent			
	White		Nonwhite	
	1950	1960	1950	1960
School retardation				
Persons 14-15 years old below modal grades in school				
Both sexes.....	22	12	52	30
Males.....	27	16	59	36
Females.....	17	9	46	25
School dropouts				
School dropouts among persons 16-24 years old				
Males.....	37	26	62	44
Females.....	33	25	58	41
Educational attainment				
Males 25-29 years old with 12 or more years of school completed				
Total.....	54	60	20	36
Professional, technical, and kindred workers.....	93	95	85	92
Managers, officials, and proprietors, excluding farm.....	75	81	43	62
Clerical and sales.....	76	80	59	68
Craftsmen, foremen, etc.....	50	57	25	39
Operatives.....	35	41	18	28
Service workers.....	50	58	27	39
Farmers and farm managers.....	38	62	4	14
Farm laborers.....	25	26	5	9
Nonfarm laborers.....	28	34	11	19

Source: James D. Cowhig, "Age-grade School Progress of Farm and Nonfarm Youth, 1960," *Agricultural Economic Report*, No. 40, U.S. Department of Agriculture; James D. Cowhig, "School Dropout Rates Among Farm and Nonfarm Youth, 1950 and 1960," *Agricultural Economic Report*, No. 42, U.S. Department of Agriculture; and James D. Cowhig and Calvin L. Beale, "The Rising Levels of Education Among Young Workers," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1965.

children and 12 for white children (Chart 4). Despite the absolute improvements for both whites and nonwhites, the rate of decrease in school retardation, as indicated by the ratio of actual to possible decrease, was lower for nonwhites than for whites.

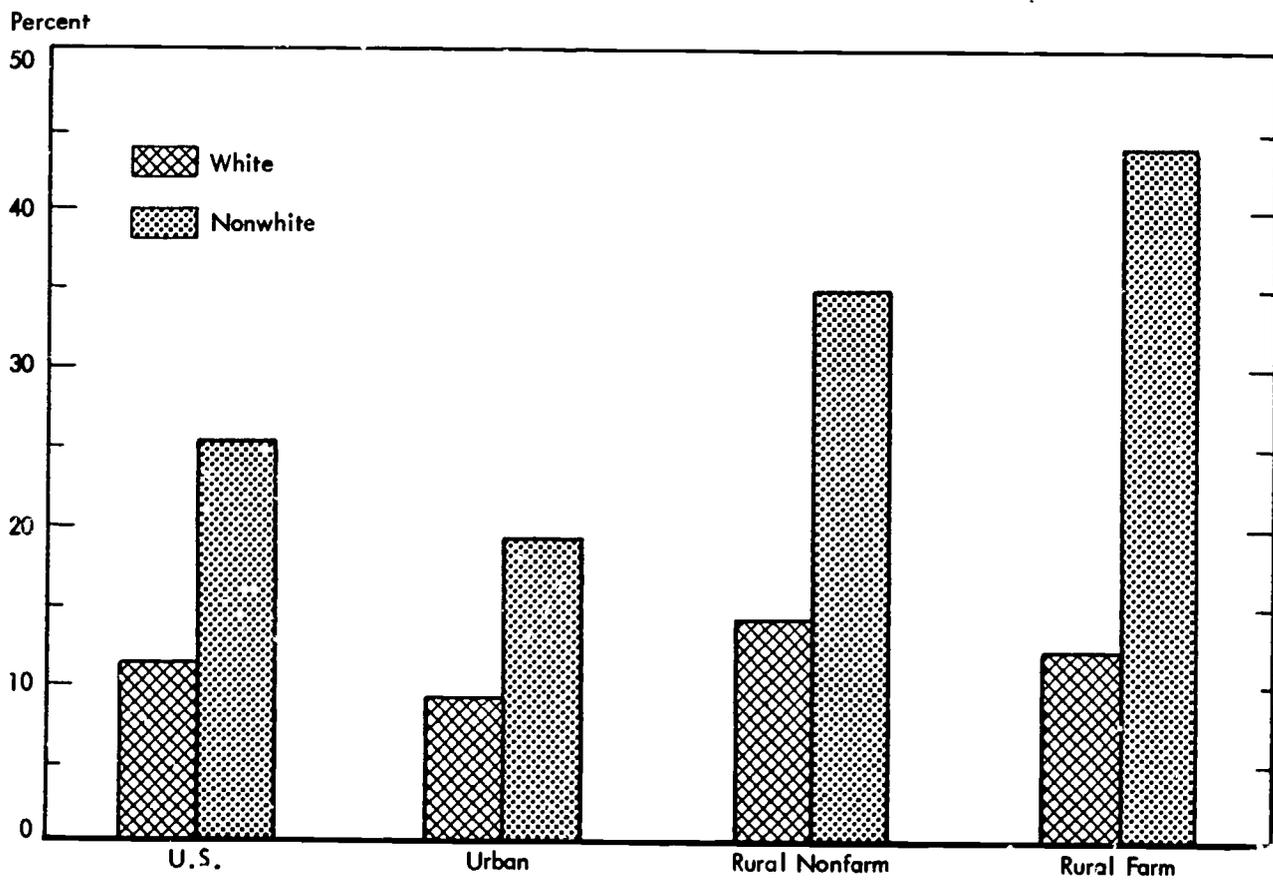
Among all boys 8 to 17 years old in 1960, the proportion of whites below the normal grade in school ranged from about 9 percent in urban areas to about 14 percent in rural-nonfarm areas of the United States (Chart 5). Comparable figures for nonwhites ranged from about 20 percent in urban areas to over 40 percent in rural areas of the Nation. Sharp white-nonwhite

Chart 4
Percent of 14-15 Year Olds Below Modal Grades in School



Source: James D. Cowbig, *Age-grade School Progress of Farm and Nonfarm Youth 1960*, Agricultural Economic Report No. 40, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, August 1963. Children enrolled in grades below the normal grade span for their age.

Chart 5
Percent of Males 8-17 Years Old Below Modal Grades in School, 1960



Source: James D. Cowbig, *Age-grade School Progress of Farm and Nonfarm Youth 1960*, Agricultural Economic Report No. 40, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, August 1963. Children enrolled in grades below the normal grade span for their age.

differences in school progress were associated with rural residence, particularly with farm residence. Over the decade there was a reversal of the overall pattern of higher farm than rural-nonfarm rates of retardation in school. But this reversal did not occur among nonwhite farm children.

Data on age-grade school progress show a somewhat higher proportion of nonwhites than whites in accelerated grades (grades above the statistical norm for their age) as well as in retarded grades. Conclusive data on the reasons for this are not available, but there is a plausible hypothesis. On the assumption that a generally lower quality of educational facilities is available to the nonwhite population than the white population, it may be that the above-average nonwhite students, most of whom were attending segregated schools, were much more likely than their white counterparts to be advanced at a faster than normal rate.

School Dropout Rates

Failure to maintain normal progress in school is reflected in higher dropout rates. Whether completion of a given number of years of schooling is, in fact, of great value to the student may be less significant than the social definition of a high school diploma as an important consideration in occupational placement and advancement. This is one reason why the disparity between the rates of school completion of white and nonwhite youths is so important. In 1960, about one quarter of all white males--but 44 percent of nonwhite males--16 to 24 had dropped out of school (Chart 6). Comparable dropout rates in 1950 were even higher--37 percent and 62 percent, respectively.

Despite the substantial reduction in dropout rates over the 1950-1960 decade, dropping out of school was still the statistical norm for rural 19-year-old nonwhite males in 1960--over half of them had left school without graduating. Further, the rate of decline in dropout rates in rural areas was lower for nonwhites than for whites (Table 3).

Among 19-year-old nonwhite farm males living in the South in 1960, over half (56 percent) had dropped out of school and another 20 percent were so far below the level of normal school progress that they were considered probable dropouts. Thus, in the South as recently as 1960, three out of four young rural-farm nonwhites could be considered school dropouts. The situation was not greatly different in the rest of the United States, where the comparable figure for 19-year-old farm nonwhites was 61 percent.

Table 3
ESTIMATED SCHOOL DROPOUT RATES FOR 19-YEAR-OLD MALES, BY URBAN-RURAL RESIDENCE, UNITED STATES

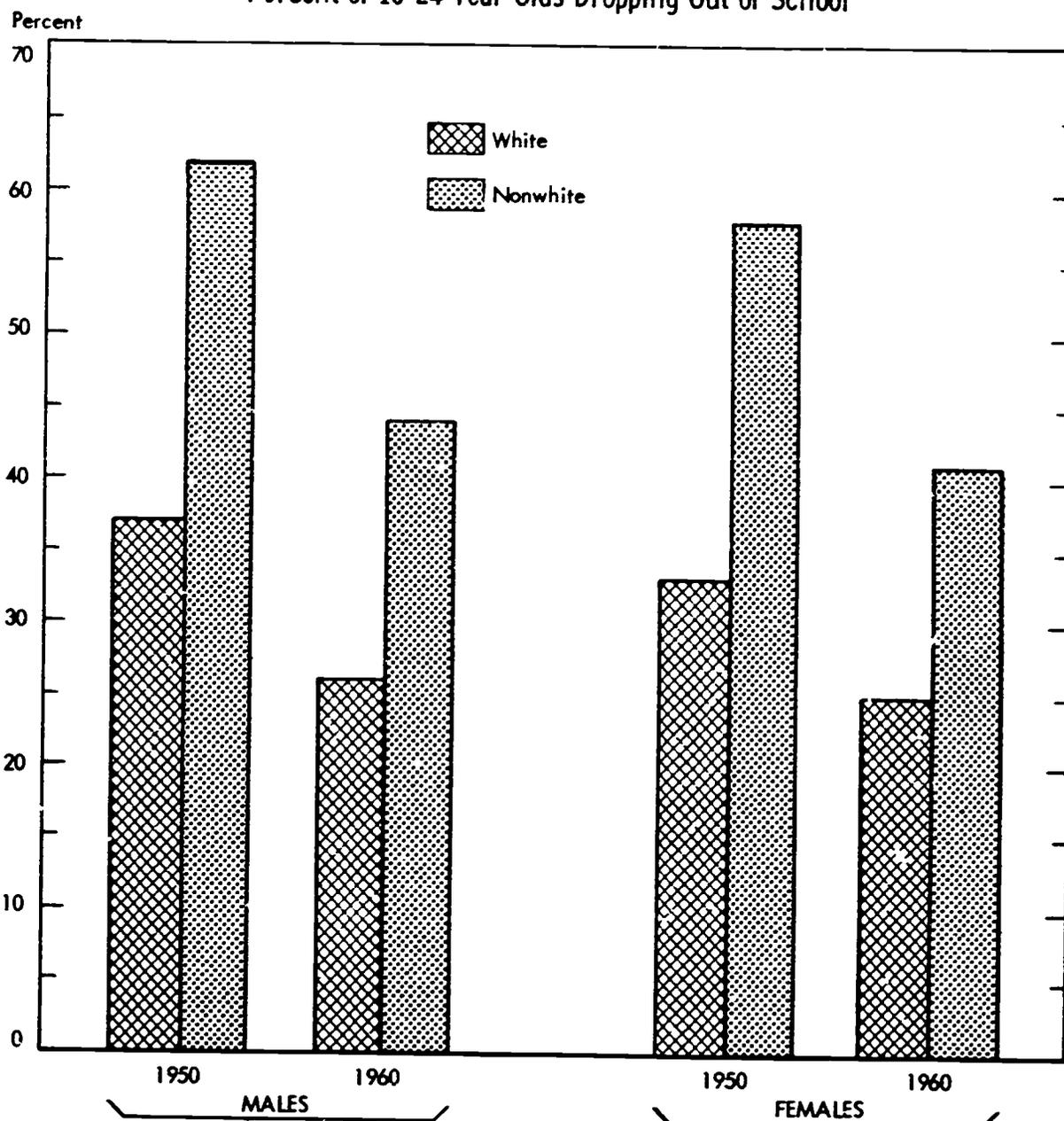
Residence	Percent			
	White		Nonwhite	
	1950	1960	1950	1960
UNITED STATES....	41	31	76	58
Urban.....	32	27	66	52
Rural nonfarm...	51	40	82	67
Rural farm.....	56	37	92	75

Source: James D. Cowhig, "School Dropout Rates Among Farm and Nonfarm Youth, 1950 and 1960," *Agricultural Economic Report*, No. 42. U.S. Department of Agriculture. Table 4.

Nonwhite dropout rates in 1960 were higher than those of whites in 1950. And nonwhites dropped out of school at an earlier age than did whites. In 1960, about 22 percent of white dropouts had dropped out of school before completing 8 years of education, compared with 36 percent of nonwhites.

Chart 6

Percent of 16-24 Year Olds Dropping Out of School



Source: James D. Cowhig, *School Dropout Rates Among Farm and Nonfarm Youth: 1950 and 1960*, Agricultural Economics Report No. 42, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, September 1963. "School dropouts" are persons 16-24 years old not enrolled in school and with less than 12 years of school completed.

Economic Cost of Providing Additional Schooling

As economists have demonstrated, the question of determining the economic value of education is a difficult one. But the cost of providing nonwhite dropouts with additional schooling can be estimated. Assume that nonwhite youths 14 to 19 years old who had completed at least one year of high school were potential high school graduates and were in a position to return to school and graduate. Assume further that the cost of providing the additional years of schooling required was about the same as that for the average of all pupils in the United States in 1960. The additional investment required for this salvage operation would be about \$400 million.

One reason for the poorer school performance of nonwhites may be the fact that the much lower monetary value of education to nonwhites lessens incentive to strive for a high school or college diploma. Among young men 22 to 24 in 1960 who had formed their own families, the median income for white males who had completed high school was about \$5,300; whereas for nonwhite graduates of the same age it was only \$3,900. Among males aged

35-44, where earnings are at a peak, the income of nonwhite males who were high school graduates was only about 71 percent as great as the income of whites with the same level of education. Furthermore, the relative income position of whites and nonwhites with similar levels of education did not change significantly over the 1950-1960 decade.

The Quality of Education

Information on the quality of education is hard come by. But there is evidence that the educational opportunities of nonwhites are inferior to those of whites. The low average of expenditures per pupil in States with a large, nonwhite population suggests that if the funds expended on education are any criterion, then the educational facilities available to nonwhites are not equal to those available to whites.

A second strand of evidence concerns the specific types of educational programs in which Negro rural youth are enrolled. In 1960, a large proportion of rural Negro youth in the Southern States was enrolled in programs of vocational agriculture. The programs were legally required to provide specific training for farm occupations, yet the number of Negro farmers was rapidly declining. Estimates of the number of Negro rural youth enrolled in vocational agriculture in relation to the number of opportunities to operate an adequate-sized farm yielded figures of 125 for every 1 farm opportunity in North Carolina--perhaps the Southern State with the best farm opportunities--and 319 to 1 in Florida. Indeed, in Florida in 1960 the number of Negro vocational agriculture students was more than twice the number of all nonwhite-operated farms in the State! Thus, a major educational orientation of rural schools in the South has been the preparation of Negro students for employment in a field where opportunities are diminishing.

These differences in the amount and quality of education are reflected in historical comparisons of the proportion of workers 25-29 years old with a high school education (Chart 7). In 1960, the proportions of high school graduates among nonwhite workers are remarkably similar to the proportions among white workers of the same age and occupation 20 years earlier. Six out of 10 young white workers in 1960 were high school graduates; six out of ten nonwhite workers were school dropouts.

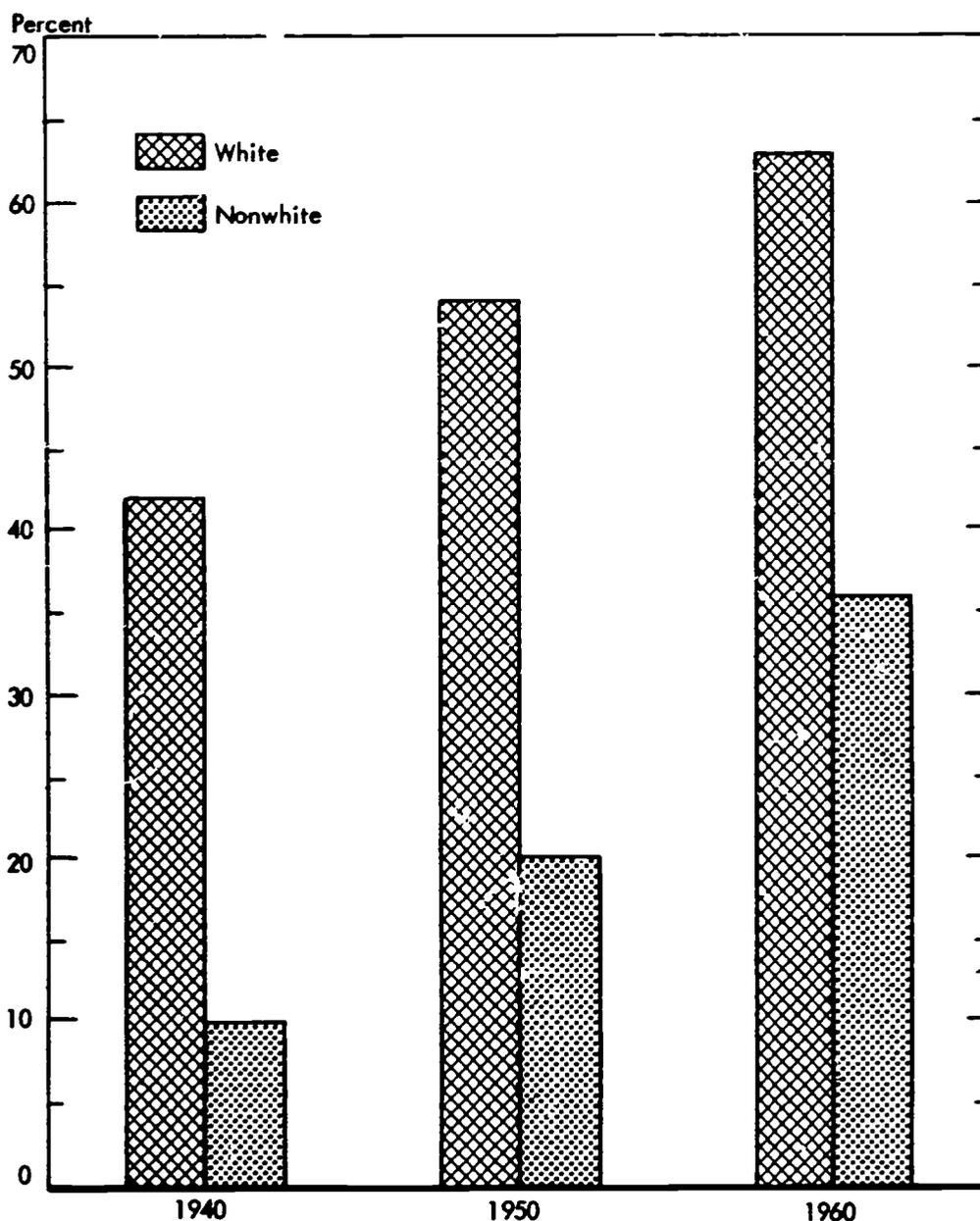
Implications

There has been general and absolute improvement in the Negro's level of educational attainment and level of living. Increasing concern with the status of the Negro has developed during a period when large absolute gains have been made, but when the relative position of large segments of the nonwhite population has remained about the same or declined.

The effects of changes since 1960 on the relative position of whites and nonwhites are not known. While the absolute socioeconomic position of both whites and nonwhites has improved, nonetheless the relative position of nonwhites is probably little better today than in 1960.

Chart 7

Percent of 25-29 Year Old Males with 12 or More Years of School Completed



Source: James D. Cowhig and Calvin L. Beale, "The Rising Levels of Education Among Younger Workers," *Monthly Labor Review*, June 1965. Data for 1940 and 1950 refer to employed males; data for 1960, to males in experienced civilian labor force. Data for 1940 are for native white and Negro men only.

The Negro still experiences relative deprivation. The sharpest white-Negro differences in socioeconomic status are those within the rural population. The Negro population is rapidly becoming a more urban-nonagricultural population than is the white population. Massive out-migration of the Negro from the South may have been one of the events that have made socioeconomic differentials more and more apparent. The comparatively high levels of living of the urban, nonwhite population may reflect Negro migration to urban areas where existing housing, education, and job amenities have become available, but where their quality may be deteriorating.

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THE CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964

The purpose of this law is simple.

It does not restrict the freedom of any American, so long as he respects the rights of others.

It does not give special treatment to any citizen.

It does say that those who are equal before God shall now also be equal in the polling booths, in the classrooms, in the factories, and in hotels, restaurants, movie theaters, and other places that provide service to the public.

Lyndon B. Johnson
Statement on Signing the
Civil Rights Bill, July 2, 1964



President Lyndon B. Johnson signs the Civil Rights Act, July 2, 1964, as Anthony J. Celebrezze, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare looks on. Assistant Secretary Wilbur J. Cohen, Assistant Secretary James M. Quigley, and Commissioner of Education Francis Keppel also attended the ceremony.

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Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators, August 1964

Justice requires us to insure the blessings of liberty for all Americans and their posterity—not merely for reasons of economic efficiency, world diplomacy, and domestic tranquility—but, above all, because it is right.

John F. Kennedy
Special Message to Congress
on Civil Rights, June 19, 1963

On July 2, 1964 President Lyndon B. Johnson approved the Civil Rights Act (PL 88-352). On June 19, 1964, exactly one year after the Civil Rights bill was submitted to Congress by former President John F. Kennedy, the Senate had voted its passage by a 73-27 roll call vote. The Senate debate consumed 83 days, and occupied more than six thousand pages of the Congressional Record.

After the cloture vote on June 10, cutting off unlimited debate on the measure, the Senate took 106 roll call votes before adopting the Mansfield-Dirksen substitute. Every major provision of the bill was upheld in the voting.

Final action in the House of Representatives came on the afternoon of July 2, and the bill was signed into law by President Johnson that same day in an historic and moving ceremony.

The main provisions of the bill are designed to insure equal opportunity in voting, access to public accommodations and public facilities, education, and employment; to end discrimination in Federally-assisted programs; to create a Community Relations Service; and to extend the life and broaden the functions of the Civil Rights Commission.

VOTING RIGHTS (Title I)

Title I amends the existing voting rights guarantees of the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1960. It is aimed directly at practices resulting in unequal application of voter registration requirements. It specifically provides that registration may not be refused by reason of immaterial errors or omissions in application forms; literacy tests may be used to determine voter qualification only if they are administered in writing to all prospective registrants, and if copies of the test and an individual's answers are available to him upon request. Sixth grade education is made presumptive evidence of literacy. As in the case of the other titles authorizing the Attorney General to take enforcement action, there are provisions for expediting litigation, including the assignment of cases to a three-judge court upon request of the Attorney General. Unlike the other titles of the Act, however, Title I retains the limited criminal contempt provisions of the earlier Civil Rights acts, giving a right to jury trial only where punishment of the contempt is severe.

In the other titles of the Act there is emphasis on procedures of conciliation and compromise, and upon opportunity for local action prior to Federal enforcement. But in dealing with the basic democratic franchise, Title I places emphasis on prompt Federal enforcement.

PUBLIC ACCOMMODATIONS (Title II)

The primary purpose . . . is to solve this problem, the deprivation of personal dignity that surely accompanies denials of equal access to public establishments. Discrimination is not simply dollars and cents, hamburgers and movies; it is the humiliation, frustration, and embarrassment that a person must surely feel when he is told that he is unacceptable as a member of the public because of his race or color. It is equally the inability to explain to a child that regardless of education, civility, courtesy, and morality he will be denied the right to enjoy equal treatment. . . .

--88th Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Report No. 872.

Title II secures to all persons the full and equal enjoyment of places of public accommodation.

As the proposed Civil Rights legislation moved through Congress, this title of the Act, more than any other, took on symbolic significance for Civil Rights advocates. The denial of equal access to places of public accommodation had been first and foremost a grating indignity. Beyond its moral unacceptability, discrimination in public accommodations has been a very real "brake" on the development of the Country's human and economic resources. Travel and investment have been discouraged; the limitation upon full enjoyment of the normal incidents of American society and culture has been one cause of the cultural deprivation, to the correction of which so much of our efforts are directed. As Secretary Anthony J. Celebrezze wrote in his August 9, 1963 letter to Senator Warren G. Magnuson, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Commerce:

". . . The knowledge that racial barriers are being removed from public accommodations, education, employment, housing, and in numerous other areas of our daily life will provide . . . strong motivation for success. Full opportunity will spark ambition. An earnest ongoing effort to eliminate all forms of racial discrimination by both public and private action is an inseparable part of the proposed program to combat the illiteracy and inadequate skills of a substantial fraction of our populace."--U.S. Senate, 88th Congress, 1st session, Committee on Commerce, Hearings on S. 1732, p. 10.

Providing equal access to public accommodations is thus a necessary corollary to the other portions of the Act designed to provide equal opportunities in education and employment, and to other programs in welfare and education. There can be no achievement without aspiration, and there will be no aspiration without genuine opportunity, including full acceptance as a member of the public without regard to race, color, or national origin.

The concept of open access to places of public accommodation is not new to the Anglo-American legal tradition. For many centuries the English courts have held that innkeepers and blacksmiths commit their property to a use affected with the public interest; and, profiting from the general commerce, must make their goods and services generally available. In the United States, over 30 of the States already have laws prohibiting discrimination in public accommodations.

Places of public accommodation within the Act are:

- inns, hotels, motels and other establishments providing transient lodging, except owner-occupied boarding houses offering not more than five rooms for hire;
- restaurants, cafeterias, lunchrooms, lunch counters, soda fountains, and other facilities principally engaged in selling food for consumption on the premises;
- gasoline stations;
- motion picture houses, theatres, concert halls, sports arenas, stadiums, and other places of exhibition or entertainment.

All such establishments are covered if their operations "affect commerce" within the meaning of the Act. Inns, hotels, motels, and other places of lodging are deemed to affect commerce; eating places and gasoline stations affect commerce if they offer to serve interstate travelers, or if a substantial portion of the products they sell have moved in interstate commerce; places of entertainment and exhibition affect commerce if they customarily present or exhibit entertainment which has moved in interstate commerce. Also included within the Act are establishments which, although they do not themselves affect commerce, are located in and offer to serve patrons of an establishment which does affect commerce; for example, hotel barber or beauty shops.

Title II broadly occupies the legislative area, rendering ineffectual any State law or other State action requiring or supporting discrimination.

The provisions of Title II may be enforced by an injunction suit brought by any aggrieved party, in which the Attorney General may intervene. The Attorney General may also institute such suits independently, when he has reasonable cause to believe that a person or group is engaged in a pattern or practice of resistance to Title II.

Where a State or locality has a law prohibiting discrimination in public accommodations, thirty days notice must be given to the State or local officials before suit may be brought. When suit is brought in a Federal court, if the court believes there is a reasonable possibility of obtaining voluntary compliance, the matter may be referred by the court to the Community

Relations Service established by Title X for conciliation for a period of not more than 120 days.

DESEGREGATION OF PUBLIC FACILITIES (Title III)

The Supreme Court has clearly and frequently decided that a person is denied equal protection of the laws within the meaning of the 14th Amendment when a State denies him equal utilization of any publicly owned or operated facility. Notwithstanding many court decisions applying this principle to a variety of governmentally-owned or operated activities, such as public beaches, golf courses, and playgrounds, many public facilities have continued to be operated on a segregated basis.

Either economic circumstance or fear of reprisal may result in an individual's being unable to maintain appropriate legal proceedings to compel the desegregation of such facilities. Title III therefore authorizes the Attorney General to initiate proceedings to desegregate public facilities when individuals are unable, for either reason, to undertake or maintain proceedings by themselves.

Title III authorizes the Attorney General, upon the written complaint of an individual that he is being denied equal utilization of a public facility, to institute legal action to compel desegregation of the facility, if the complaint is meritorious and the institution of the action will materially further orderly desegregation of public facilities.

DESEGREGATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION (Title IV)

Through the provisions of Title IV of the Civil Rights Act constructive resources can be mobilized and developed to aid schools and teachers—both in desegregating and in educational problems incident to desegregation.

Francis Keppel
U.S. Commissioner of Education
July 16, 1964

Title IV has two main purposes. First, it authorizes the Commissioner of Education to establish training institutes and to provide, upon application by local school authorities, technical assistance and financial aid to assist in dealing with problems incident to desegregation. Second, it authorizes the Attorney General to institute suits seeking desegregation of public schools where the students or parents involved are unable to bring suit and where such a suit would materially further the orderly achievement of desegregation in public education.

In the long interval since the historic decision in Brown v. Board of Education in 1954, there has been visible resistance to desegregation of public education in many areas. But it is clear that either through voluntary compliance or by court order, those districts which have not yet faced their legal responsibilities must desegregate. The provisions of Title IV empowering the Commissioner to give technical and financial assistance to school districts will, in the words of Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy, "smooth the path upon which the Nation was set by the Brown decision."

Title IV recognizes the hard fact that "special educational problems" exist for school administrators, teachers, and pupils alike when, after a long history of segregation in public education, an area begins the process of desegregation. Special educational and human relations problems may arise, for example, out of the social and educational backgrounds of pupils who have heretofore attended segregated schools; prior lack of availability of equal educational opportunities to Negroes may create curricular, grading, classroom, and other difficulties in racially integrated schools serving children of varied scholastic backgrounds. Special training of teachers and other school personnel may enable them to deal more effectively with human relations problems incident to desegregation.

Title IV meets the need to provide assistance in several ways:

- Technical assistance may be furnished by the Commissioner of Education, when requested by local authorities. Assistance in the preparation, adoption, and implementation of plans for desegregation may include the distribution of information regarding special educational problems incident to desegregation, and making personnel of the Office of Education or other special consultants available for advice and assistance to local authorities.
- Training Institutes may be established by the Commissioner of Education through grants or contracts with institutions of higher education, for the purpose of improving the ability of teachers and other elementary and secondary school personnel to deal effectively with special educational problems occasioned by school desegregation. Persons attending such institutes on a full-time basis may receive stipends and travel allowances.
- Grants may be made, upon application of a school board, to pay the costs of giving inservice training to teachers and other school personnel, and to employ specialists to advise school personnel in problems incident to desegregation. It is not necessary that a school board have adopted a formal desegregation plan in order to become eligible for technical assistance. Nor is assistance restricted to schools desegregating under court order. The function of the Commissioner of Education is purely cooperative, not coercive; he may act only upon the request of local school authorities.

Title IV also directs the Commissioner of Education to conduct a survey concerning the lack of availability, by reason of race, color, religion, or national origin, of equal educational opportunities in public educational institutions at all levels, and to report, within two years to the President and Congress. It is the purpose of this provision to procure complete and accurate information concerning segregation and other factors affecting equal educational opportunity.

As in other portions of the Act, the provisions authorizing suit by the Attorney General emphasize that voluntary compliance will be sought prior to enforcement. Before the Attorney General may institute a school desegregation suit he must give notice to the local school authority that a complaint has been made to him; and, upon filing suit, he must certify that he is satisfied that the local school authority has had reasonable time to adjust the conditions complained of. Here, as in Title III, enforcement by public suit is designed to ensure that neither an individual's economic circumstances nor his fear of reprisal will prevent the law from being given effect.

Equality of educational opportunity is prerequisite to meaningful equality of opportunity in employment. Disproportionate unemployment among nonwhites is unquestionably related to the fact that about one-third of the 3 million adults in this country who cannot read or write are nonwhites; also to the fact that 25 percent (or 2.3 million) of the nonwhites 25 years of age or older did not complete five years of schooling (compared with 7 percent of the adult white population); and to the fact that almost half of the adult nonwhites in the country today did not finish grade school (compared with about 20 percent of the whites). The greater economic opportunities afforded by non-discriminatory employment practices, (guaranteed by Title VII) will be of advantage only to those who, by reason of education and training, are able to compete for jobs offered on a non-discriminatory basis. The long range effect of Titles IV and VII will be to offer meaningful equality of opportunity.

CIVIL RIGHTS COMMISSION (Title V)

Title V extends the life of the Civil Rights Commission for three years. Since its creation in 1957, the Commission has engaged in research and conducted investigations in the areas of voting rights, and denials of equal opportunity and protection in housing, education, employment, and the administration of justice. It has issued reports and recommendations in these areas which have shed needed light upon discriminatory practices and denials of equal protection. Title V gives broader definition to the Commission's duties and directs it to submit interim and final reports to the President and Congress on:

- investigations of alleged denials of voting rights;
- studies of developments in law and the administration of justice which constitute denials of equal protection;

- its activities as a national clearinghouse for information in respect to denial of equal protection in various fields, including voting, housing, education, employment, the use of public facilities and transportation, and the administration of justice.

NONDISCRIMINATION IN FEDERALLY-ASSISTED PROGRAMS (Title VI)

Simple justice requires that public funds, to which all taxpayers contribute, not be spent in any fashion which encourages, entrenches, subsidizes, or results in racial discrimination. Direct discrimination by a Federal, State, or local government is prohibited by the Constitution. But indirect discrimination through the use of Federal funds is just as invidious, and it should not be necessary to resort to the courts to prevent each individual violation.

John F. Kennedy
Special Message to Congress
on Civil Rights, June 19, 1963

Prior to the enactment of this bill, numerous questions of statutory interpretation made it uncertain in many instances whether authority existed to condition Federal financial assistance upon assurances of non-discrimination. Some statutes, such as the Hill-Burton Hospital and Medical Facilities Construction and the Morrill Land-Grant College Acts made specific provision for "separate but equal" facilities; in others, the statutory provisions were thought to be a mandate to extend assistance when the statutory requirements were met, even though the grantee practiced discrimination in administering the funds. In some areas, however, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was able to, and did, condition assistance upon assurances of non-discrimination.

Title VI expresses the Congressional intention that "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." As such, it provides a clear direction that all activities which the Department aids through contract, grant, loan, or otherwise must be administered on a non-discriminatory basis and thereby resolves previous uncertainties regarding legal authority to withhold funds. It is now clear that the "simple justice" of which President Kennedy spoke will become a reality--the administration of Federally-assisted programs and the collection of Federal taxes will be equally color-blind.

In the course of the Senate debate, ten proposed amendments specifically directed to Title VI were defeated. The most significant, from the Department's standpoint, was an attempt to exempt child welfare agencies, foster homes, and adoption agencies from the fund cut-off provisions; the remaining amendments related largely to procedures under Title VI.

Title VI requires each Federal department and agency to effectuate the provisions of the title "by issuing rules, regulations, or orders of general applicability", which are subject to Presidential approval, and which must

be consistent with the objectives of the statute authorizing the financial assistance. The title is to be given effect through such regulations, and through other means authorized by law.

As in the other titles of the Act, the emphasis is on a first attempt at voluntary solution of problems. No agency action terminating or refusing assistance may be taken until the recipient has been notified that he is not in compliance with the agency's requirements, and it has then been determined that voluntary compliance cannot be secured. Following such a determination, the agency must give an opportunity for hearing and make a finding of non-compliance based on the record. No agency action cutting off funds is effective until 30 days after the appropriate legislative committees have been furnished a full written report of the action. Judicial review of agency action may be had under any specific provisions included in any statute authorizing assistance, or under the Administrative Procedure Act.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY (Title VII)

Voting rights, education, and access to public accommodations mean little on an empty stomach, and with empty pockets. The other titles of the Act cannot achieve their intended effect, of eliminating race from American life, unless all Americans are afforded a measure of economic democracy; it would do no good to raise aspirations and encourage achievement if the opportunity to secure the material benefits of our abundant society were not made equally available to all.

It is a fact that nonwhites have represented an excessive portion of the unemployed. Not only has the unemployment rate been higher for nonwhites, but they have made up a consistently higher percentage of long-term unemployed. One-fourth of those who have been without work for six months or longer are nonwhites, but nonwhites constitute only one-tenth of the labor force. To some extent, these facts result from lack of essential skills and education; this, in turn, has often been due to inequality of educational opportunities. But over and above this, there has been outright discrimination in employment practices.

Title VII (which takes effect July 2, 1965) makes discrimination in employment, referral for employment, and compensation unlawful; it also forbids exclusion from union membership and apprenticeship and training programs on racial grounds. Initially, the Act covers only employers of 100 or more employees; by the fourth year, employers of 25 or more employees will be covered. Employers may differentiate between employees based on bona fide merit systems. But race, color, religion, sex, or national origin may play a part in employment only where they are, by reason of the occupation, bona fide occupational qualifications.

Title VII creates an Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, to be appointed with the advice and consent of the Senate. While the Commission is empowered to refer matters to the Attorney General, and in certain limited situations to bring suit to enforce compliance with court decrees already made, the burden of its functions are conciliatory. The Commission may, upon request, offer its services to assist in conciliation of problems arising in the enforcement of this Title. It may also conduct appropriate technical studies, and make the results of such studies public.

Enforcement in the courts is left largely to private individuals, except where a pattern or practice of resistance exists, in which case the Attorney General may bring suit. As in other titles of the Act, the first opportunity is for local enforcement where a State has a fair employment practices law. In addition, the Commission is empowered to enter agreements with State authorities, giving them jurisdiction over particular classes of cases.

The President is directed to convene conferences immediately, to acquaint the leaders of groups whose members will be affected by the Title with its provisions, and for the purpose of making plans for fair and effective administration when all its provisions become fully effective.

REGISTRATION AND VOTING STATISTICS (Title VIII)

Title VIII directs the Secretary of Commerce to promptly conduct a survey to compile statistics on registration and voting in geographic areas of the country recommended by the Civil Rights Commission.

INTERVENTION AND REMOVAL (Title IX)

Title IX provides that the Attorney General may intervene in cases of general public importance, in which there is an alleged denial of equal protection of the laws under the 14th Amendment. It also governs procedure on appeals from orders remanding cases to State courts after removal:

COMMUNITY RELATIONS SERVICE (Title X)

On January 20, 1959, then-Senator Lyndon B. Johnson introduced S. 499, "A Bill to establish a Community Relations Service to provide conciliation assistance in communities when disagreements or difficulties among citizens are disrupting, or are threatening to disrupt, the peaceful life of the community." The Statement of Purpose of that bill declared:

"The use of force in any manner as a means of trying to solve these disagreements not only fails to produce satisfactory solutions but also tends to aggravate the disagreements and to create new problems. Frequently the citizens who are involved in or affected by any such disagreement lack a satisfactory means of communicating with one another and of expressing their views directly to citizens of opposing views. As a result, mutually satisfactory solution to the problems caused by the disagreement is made difficult, and sometimes impossible of attainment."

JURY TRIALS; DOUBLE JEOPARDY (Title XI)

Title XI requires trial by jury of all criminal contempt proceedings under Titles II through VII except summary punishment for contempts committed in the presence of the court or so near thereto as to obstruct the administration of justice.

The title also provides that conviction or acquittal of a specific crime under the laws of the United States shall be a bar to criminal contempt proceedings under the Civil Rights Act for the same act or omission. Similarly, prior conviction or acquittal in a criminal contempt proceeding under the Act is a bar to future criminal proceedings for the same act or omission.

The Civil Rights Act is an epoch-making piece of legislation. Secretary Celebrezze strongly advocated the establishment of the Community Relations Service embodied in the President's Special Message of June 19, 1963 on Civil Rights and Job Opportunities. It is also significant that six other proposals recommended by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare were included in the President's Special Message and have all been enacted into law during the past year. These measures broaden the manpower development and training program and provide additional funds, create a youth employment corps, update vocational education, commence a work-study program for vocational education, provide funds for an adult basic education program, and authorize a public welfare work-relief and training program. Together these six measures may help to create a seedbed in which the Civil Rights Act can take root and develop.

Wilbur J. Cohen
Assistant Secretary

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Bipartisan leadership and support contributed greatly to enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. President Johnson termed Senate passage on June 19 "a step toward equal opportunities for all Americans." He congratulated "Senators of both parties who worked to make passage possible."

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Trends in Divorce and Family Disruption, Sept. 63
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