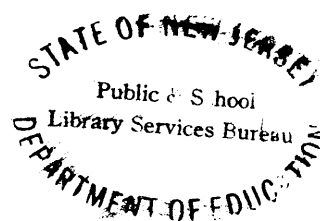


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STATE OF NEW JERSEY

REPORT

of the

NEW JERSEY STATE TEMPORARY
COMMISSION ON THE CONDITION OF THE
URBAN COLORED POPULATION.

TO THE LEGISLATURE

OF THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY

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Lester B. Granger, Executive Director

Warren M. Banner, Assistant Executive Director

FOREWORD

The task of the Commission has been greatly facilitated by the assistance of many citizens and organizations which have given it immeasurable cooperation. The Commission wishes to express its appreciation to the New York State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population for the advice of its counsel, Dr. Lewis B. Mayers; to the National Urban League and the New Jersey Urban League for housing it temporarily and supplying valuable contacts and source material; to the branches of the Y.M.C.A. in Atlantic City, Camden, Newark, Paterson, Trenton; to the Y.W.C.A.'s House of Friendliness in Jersey City, Neighborhood House in New Brunswick, The Waverly Hotel in Asbury Park, The Bergen County Board of Freeholders at Hackensack, Mrs. Elizabeth Blake of Woodbury, Mr. Horace J. Bryant of Lawnside, Mr. Frank Kagee of Bridgeton, and Mr. Fred Todd of Burlington for supplying space to its field staff; to the State N.Y.A. for clerical assistance; to the National Civil Service Reform League, the New Jersey Housing Authority, the State Department of Institutions and Agencies, the Civil Service Commission, the Financial Assistance Commission, the State Federation of Labor, and the State Congress for Industrial Organization, along with numerous other public and private agencies.

The Commission is also deeply grateful for the fine cooperation received from the following groups which helped to stimulate public interest, present and interpret community problems, and crystallize public sentiment: The Interracial Committees throughout the State, the New Jersey State Federation of Colored Women's Clubs, various civic and political organizations and the Citizens' Cooperating Committees, organized by the Commission in the communities covered by the study.

CONTENTS

Introduction	1
The Commission's Plans	5
The Commission's Difficulties	6
Method of Presentation	8
The Negro Population Of New Jersey	12
Employment And Income	14
Unemployment And Relief	14
Employment Barriers	16
Discrimination By Private Employers	16
Discrimination By Public Appointive Officers	18
Public Relief And Relief Work	27
Reemployment In Private Industry	32
Labor Union Discrimination	33
Employment by Public Utilities	38
Professional, Skilled, and White Collar Employment	41
State Employment Service	43
Housing	48
Health	55
Hospital Services	57
Training of Negro Physicians	60
Training of Negro Nurses	62
Insurance	
Life Insurance	65
Casualty Insurance	69
Education	72
Teacher Training	78
Vocational Training	80
Summary and Conclusion	84
Statistical Appendix	90

TO THE LEGISLATURE OF THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY:-

Transmitted herewith for the information and consideration of your honorable bodies is the report of the Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population which is presented in accordance with the provisions of the Act of Legislature which became a law on June 17, 1938 under Chapter 393, Laws of 1938.

Following the instructions of your honorable bodies, your Commission has made careful inquiry into the economic and social condition of the State's colored population and presents its findings herewith. Included in those findings are certain specific recommendations which are calculated to improve materially the status of the colored population. The purpose of this introduction is to remind the members of the Legislature of the circumstances which influenced your honorable bodies to create and empower this Commission.

INTRODUCTION

As long as ten years ago it became evident to thoughtful citizens of the State that the more than 200,000 Negroes of New Jersey composed a handicapped and economically depressed minority group in our population. It was evident that certain economic and social handicaps prevented that group from making proper contribution to the State. It was also evident that certain social problems were growing out of this situation which would in time affect the welfare and security of both white and colored citizens of New Jersey.

Convinced that this was the case, public-spirited citizens took the lead in arranging for a study which was carried on in 1931 under sponsorship of the Interracial Committee of the New Jersey State

Conference on Social Work, and in cooperation with the State Department of Institutions and Agencies, to discover the true facts regarding the condition of the State's colored population. The published results of that study showed beyond all question that Negroes of New Jersey were denied equal job opportunities, suffered from low income, were forced to live in unsavory neighborhoods and under poor housing conditions (even when they were able to pay for more desirable quarters) and suffered as a result from excessive ill-health, delinquency and crime. The findings of the 1931 study have served its purpose in that the programs of many public and private agencies were materially altered to serve the needs of the Negro population more effectively.

Social work programs alone, however, cannot solve the problems of such a group as the Negro population, whose plight really grows out of being denied many of the rights of full citizenship. It has long been recognized by legislators and sociologists alike that all of the so-called problems of the Negro community stem from the main roots of low income and poor housing. Until these two major problems are solved and their worst features corrected, social work agencies -- public or private -- can do little more than minister to the unfortunate victims of these undesirable situations.

The truth of this statement is to be found in the fact that the depression years since 1932 have almost wrecked the living standards of the Negro population, in spite of the millions of dollars that have been expended in their behalf by the State's relief administration, and public and private social work agencies. A report of the State Emergency Relief Administration in 1936 revealed that although Negroes composed 5 per cent of the State's population, they composed 10 per cent of the families on relief. A study of the State Finan-

cial Assistance Commission in 1937 revealed that in eight of the State's larger cities the proportion of Negroes among the relief population ranges from three to six times their actual proportion in the population of those cities.

The 1931 study of "The Negro in New Jersey" found in a sampling of Trenton's Negro families that 50 per cent of them earned annual incomes of less than \$933 a year. In 1933 a study by the United States Department of Commerce showed that 58 per cent of Trenton's Negro families had annual incomes of less than \$500 a year. A similar drop in the incomes of Negro families is reported for every large city of the State.

The public of New Jersey has been made generally aware of these facts regarding the desperate condition of our Negro population, but there have been differing reactions to that awareness. Not a few individuals, for instance, have immediately leaped to the conclusion that the State is being "invaded" by hordes of hungry and unemployed Negroes who are migrating from southern states for the sole purpose of getting on public relief. This is a conclusion, your Commission hastens to report, which is completely unsupported by facts. Strong evidence to the contrary is to be found in figures gathered by the State Financial Assistance Commission in 1938 and referred to later in this report. These figures show that among the families on relief in the municipalities of the State, 0.8 per cent of the white families and 0.6 per cent of the Negro families had been resident in the State for less than one year. Eight and six-tenths per cent of the white families and 8.7 per cent of the Negro families had been resident in the State for more than one year and less than five years. In other words, more than 90 per cent of both white and Negro families now on

relief came to New Jersey before 1932, before the State had inaugurated any plan of adequate relief.

Other individuals, aware of the problems facing the Negro population, have nevertheless remained indifferent to them, believing that these are problems to be solved by Negroes themselves, and hoping that their evil results can be confined to the Negro population. It is easy to see how badly mistaken these persons are. An inevitable result of continued poverty in any population group is an excessive rate of crime and ill health. In 1933 Negroes constituted 25 per cent of the State's adult offenders committed to institutions; in 1938 they constituted 30.8 per cent. During the same 5-year period the proportion of Negro juvenile delinquents in the State Home for Boys and the State Home for Girls rose from 30.8 per cent to 41.7 per cent of the population. From 1932 to 1936 the rate of deaths from tuberculosis among Negroes has continued to be over five times that of whites. During 1936 the tuberculosis death rate for whites was 37.3 per 100,000 population; among the Negroes in the same year it was 190.9 per 100,000 population.

A minority, but an important minority, of thoughtful citizens understand the true implications of the situation, and realize that Negroes alone will not bear the financial and social costs of their problems. These citizens realize that the costs must be shared by all of the State's citizens. They have learned that social problems do not solve themselves, but must be corrected by attack on the causes which create them. They accept the responsibility of the State to join in such attack, and they are concerned with discovering whether the State, through its legislative, administrative and judicial departments, has fulfilled its obligation to insure equal opportunity

to all citizens for security, happiness and advancement. It was this type of thinking, both within and without the Legislature, that was responsible for creating the Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population.

THE COMMISSION'S PLANS

Members of the Commission were appointed, three by the Governor of the State, six by the President of the Senate, and six by the Speaker of the Assembly. They were:

Assemblyman Frank S. Hargrave, Essex County, Chairman
Senator Edward P. Stout, Hudson County, Vice Chairman
Mrs. Elizabeth Blake, Woodbury, Secretary
Mrs. Evelyn V. Brock, Westfield
Dr. Lawrence G. Brown, Elizabeth
William Galloway, Rutherford
Assemblyman Vincent S. Haneman, Atlantic County
Senator Robert Hendrickson, Gloucester County
James A. Lightfoot, Atlantic City
Thomas L. Puryear, Newark
Richard R. Smith, Jersey City
Senator Thomas Taggart, Jr., Atlantic City
Assemblyman William R. Ward, Mercer County
Allen Washington, Princeton
Roger M. Yancey, Newark

To carry on the actual work of the study and to prepare its report the Commission appointed the following executive staff:

Executive Director	-Lester B. Granger
Assistant Executive Director	-Warren M. Banner
Research Assistants	-Frances Thornton Bertram Bland Hortense Gross Augustus Stanfield
Field Supervisor	-Clarence B. Adams
Office Manager	-A. Kenneth Worde

When the Commission formally organized in September, 1938, it took cognizance of the fact that it was equipped with a modest budget, (\$30,000) and that only five months remained before a report to the Legislature was due on March 1, 1939. For this reason it decided to restrict the Commission's inquiries to those fields

wherein the State has the legal authority to take corrective action. It was decided, moreover, to draw as heavily as possible upon those studies which have been made in recent years of the Negro population, or of problems affecting the Negro population. In order to check upon the present accuracy of previous studies, facts were also gathered from a state-wide sampling of 5,368 Negro families, constituting approximately 10 per cent of the State's 1930 Negro family population. In addition, questionnaires were addressed to heads of state, county and municipal departments to determine the extent and adequacy of these departments' services to the Negro population. Interviews were held with, or questionnaires received from officials or corporations, heads of trade unions, school officials, and persons in similar positions of importance to Negro citizens.

The original plans for the study also included the holding of public hearings, where public officials and private citizens might be given an opportunity to present facts, opinions and recommendations, and be questioned by the Commission regarding the conditions described in this report. Unfortunately, the pressure of time has prevented the holding of these hearings before the presentation of this report; yet your Commission feels that without the holding of such hearings this report cannot be regarded as truly complete. Plans are therefore being considered by the Commission for continuing its activities for several weeks past March 1st in order to hold its public hearings and make additional report on the results thereof.

THE COMMISSION'S DIFFICULTIES

It is probable that few legislative inquiries in the history of the State have gotten under way in the face of more public misunderstanding or active hostility. Many citizens assumed, for instance,

that the existence of the 1931 study and possession of its findings by the State Department of Institutions and Agencies rendered further study unnecessary. The Commission's creation was condemned by these citizens as an act of political expediency, "an attempt to make political capital of the Negro problem."

The 1931 study was valuable, as has already been stated, as a guide for Welfare programs by the State and by private social agencies. By very reason of its sponsorship, however, it could not make effective investigation of certain problems and its recommendations gave little guidance for corrective action by the State itself. There was little effort to challenge the effectiveness of the State's legal code in protecting the rights of minority groups of citizens, and no recommendation for strengthening the legal code in that respect. The very fact that the 1931 study had proven futile in arresting the sharp decline of economic and social conditions among the colored population pointed to the need for a more searching study and more effective action.

On the other hand, many colored citizens of the state had become so demoralized by the desperate conditions facing them that they saw in the Commission's creation only the opportunity for employing a limited number of trained Negro workers for temporary periods. More than 500 applications were made for less than 40 temporary jobs. Disappointment was so great among those who failed to receive appointment that there actually developed hostility within the colored population toward the very Commission which was attempting to study and correct some of their problems. This misunderstanding can be easily explained. It is a striking comment on the acute economic distress into which all classes of the colored population have fallen; it

points to the urgent need for some program which will afford economic opportunity to that class of citizens who have applied to the Commission.

METHOD OF PRESENTATION

The Commission's investigations do far more than merely confirm the deplorable condition of the colored population as described in previous studies. That condition is confirmed, to be sure. Ten years of depression have been ruthless in their effects upon the Negro population. Unemployment struck Negro workers more quickly and more severely than the rest of the State's workers. Negro communities throughout the State have descended to deplorable living standards. Housing in many neighborhoods has deteriorated to the point where Negro tenants actually run daily risks of health and limb. Thirty per cent of the Negro population of cities in the State have family incomes of less than \$600 a year. Re-employment programs have hardly touched Negro labor and there has been practically no replacement of Negroes in private industry. Large industries that employed a considerable number of Negroes before the depression are filling their places with whites as they now expand their employment rolls.

In its State-wide study of Negro families, the Commission has sought to discover under what conditions the average Negro family lives, and the following summary of 5,368 family schedules returned from 14 New Jersey municipalities gives striking figures which would arouse general consternation if they were reported as being typical of the white population. Twenty-six per cent of the Negro families are on relief, and of this relief group 64 per cent subsist on relief budgets of less than \$5 a week; 22 per cent of the families are supported on W. P. A. jobs, the overwhelming majority of which

are unskilled jobs paying \$60.50 a month.

Among 52 per cent of the families which are self-supporting, the general standard of living is frightfully low; 71 per cent of the wage earners therein receive \$80 a month; 70 per cent of the male family heads who are employed are classed as unskilled workers, 13 per cent semi-skilled, and only 17 per cent skilled. Under these conditions it is understandable why in a large proportion of Negro families a second, third, or even fourth member of the family must go to work to aid in the family's support. In 25 per cent of the families the woman is the family head, but only 68 per cent of family heads, male or female, are employed.

Job instability is a problem in the majority of Negro families. In more than 50 per cent of the cases, the last job held had lasted under five years; in 10 per cent of the families the present job had been held for less than one year. Only 16 per cent of the employed persons studied earned incomes of more than \$100 a month. When it is remembered that the recent study by the Brookings Institution establishes approximately \$2,000 a year as the minimum income necessary for a family to maintain decent standards of living, it is readily apparent that over 90 per cent of Negro wage-earning families in New Jersey must subsist on a sub-marginal level.

These sub-marginal living conditions appear first of all in housing conditions. In the dwelling units studied by the Commission, 46.1 per cent have no private bath and 47 per cent are without hot running water. Toilet facilities are shared in 30 per cent of the Negro homes; 76 per cent of the homes have no central heat; 24 per cent of the Negro urban families in New Jersey are without electricity for lighting purposes; 59 per cent use coal for cooking. In some

cities living conditions are almost primitive, the majority of dwellings in Bridgeton, Burlington, Lawnside, Woodbury, Camden, Trenton, New Brunswick, and Elizabeth being without private baths. Even in Newark 49 per cent of the dwelling units do not have hot and cold running water. Of the cities mentioned above, only in Newark and Trenton do the majority have private indoor toilets. Ninety per cent of the Negro families studied rent their dwellings, and only 20 per cent of rented dwellings are classified as being in good condition - 70 per cent of them needing minor or major repairs. In one city a city official admitted that so great is the pressure for Negro housing that houses which have been condemned are being rented to Negro families, the rent check being delivered to these families but made payable to an agent for the city. As is to be expected under these conditions, the morale of the Negro population has suffered deeply; crime and delinquency have shown serious increase; disturbing antagonisms have grown between white and Negro groups in several municipalities.

In addition to discovering such situation, however, the Commission's investigations have fixed a certain amount of responsibility for them upon the State itself, and upon its sub-divisions of county, municipal and township governments. It is true, of course, that many of the handicaps suffered by Negroes in New Jersey and elsewhere are the result of traditional racial prejudices which assign to this group in America the position of an inferior minority. The Commission recognizes that prejudice cannot be removed by the mere passage of legislation, and that many handicaps will continue to affect Negroes as long as racial prejudice persists in America. The Commission feels, however, that responsibility rests upon the State for taking the leadership in the fight to protect its citizens against

the results of racial prejudice.

Recognition by the State of its own responsibility in this matter is shown in its constitutional provisions and infrequent legislative acts providing that no citizen shall suffer abridgement of his citizenship rights and privileges because of race, creed or color. The State has a further obligation to keep alive in all of its administrative functions the ideal of equal citizenship which is laid down in our Constitution and legal code. The State must set for private citizens an example of complete fairness to all groups in the population, regardless of race or creed. With such an ideal established in the law and constantly exemplified in governmental action, there is hope that private citizens may be influenced by the example and may adjust their relationships accordingly. As long as Government itself makes invidious distinctions between its citizens because of race or religion, there is slight hope that private citizens themselves will do otherwise.

It is toward such an end that the Commission has arranged the form of its report as set forth in the following pages. Several major problems are set forth, together with their effects upon the Negro population, their importance to the general population, possible steps toward their solution, and recommendations for immediate legislative or administrative action by the State or its governmental sub-divisions. Presentation of statistical material has been reduced to a minimum because of the availability of authoritative references for the use of those who wish to pursue further inquiry along this line. Yet sufficient statistics are presented to indicate what documentary evidence the Commission has at its disposal to back up the findings and conclusions of this report.

THE NEGRO POPULATION OF NEW JERSEY

No discussion of the problems which face Negroes of New Jersey can be complete without knowledge of the size of the Negro population, its rate of growth in recent years, the migratory sources from which it has come, and the reasons which explain its coming to New Jersey.

Official figures are not available which give the Negro population of New Jersey for 1938. The latest figures are those of the United States Census of 1930, reporting 208,828 Negroes, or 5.2 per cent of the State's general population of 4,041,344. This number was an increase of 133 per cent over the Negro population of 1910, which was 89,760, or 3.5 per cent of the total population. Though this may seem a considerable increase, both in numbers and percentage, it was not as great as that in many other northern states during the same period. Between 1910 and 1930, the Negro population of New York State increased by 326 per cent, and that of Michigan increased by 990 per cent.

Yet the increase of New Jersey's Negro population came from the same sources and was attributable to the same causes as those of New York and Michigan. The expansion of northern industry during the years of the World War and the restriction of immigration from foreign countries immediately afterward created a labor problem for industrial employers who had depended upon European countries for their supply of cheap, unskilled labor. To replace this labor they recruited in the small towns and the farms of southern states for unskilled white and Negro laborers to whom the war-time wages of the North were almost undreamed-of riches. Encouraged by newspaper advertisements and recruiting agents who journeyed through the South, hundreds of thousands of workers poured into northern cities and found work in such industries as the packing plants, the iron foundries and the brick yards of

New Jersey. Their wives and children found jobs in New Jersey households which could no longer depend upon immigrant women for cheap help; hundreds of families sought work on the farms of southern New Jersey.

White and Negro labor arrived together from the South and assumed the status which had formerly been occupied by immigrant labor. For the newly-arrived Negroes, however, there was this difference. White workers, native or foreign-born, were promoted from unskilled, poorly-paid classes of work into skilled, better-paid jobs as they acquired familiarity with their jobs and became adapted to their new environments. For Negro workers, no matter how much they learned, there was seldom any such promotion. They arrived in the capacity of unskilled, poorly-paid labor, and they remained in that capacity through the boom years of the post-World War decade. The bulk of the Negro population settled in northern New Jersey and other cities with heavy industries. A considerable proportion went to work in the hotel industry of seashore cities. Such counties as Warren, Sussex, Somerset and Hunterdon received almost none of the new population increase.

The northward migration of southern Negroes, once begun, has continued even after industry's demand for labor has slackened and ended. It was some while, even after 1929, before it became generally known that there were no work opportunities to be found in New Jersey for those workers whose services had been so eagerly sought a few years previously. Families continued to follow their relatives and friends who had settled here successfully. When the depression broke with full force, the migration continued in undetermined numbers, for thousands of families continued to leave the South for one northern point or another, driven by desperation to leave almost certain starvation and seek other sections where there was at least an outside

chance of employment. It is also true that during the same depression years many Negroes have left New Jersey, returning to live with relatives on the farms from which they migrated. Just as it is impossible to compute the number of late migrants into New Jersey, so it is impossible to estimate the number of those who have left the state, and the exact Negro population of New Jersey will remain an unknown quantity until the census records of 1940 shall be published.

EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

Never accepted by the State's employers as being "typical American workers", worthy of representative wages and opportunities for advancement, Negro labor has remained at the very foot of New Jersey's employment ladder. The 1931 study of "The Negro in New Jersey" reported an average weekly income of Negro families of \$20.25, ranging from \$13.51 for Newark to \$27.57 for Hackensack. This low income is understandable in light of the 1930 Census figures on employment. Of New Jersey's gainfully employed Negroes in 1930, 57 per cent were employed in domestic and personal service, 5 per cent in agriculture - chiefly as farm laborers - and 24 per cent in various unskilled and semi-skilled types of work. Confinement to this type of employment has had two effects upon the Negro working population. In boom times while they held jobs, they were unable to save for a rainy day; in depression periods they held the kinds of jobs which disappeared first and were restored last. Thus the phrase, "Negro labor, the first to be fired and the last to be hired!"

UNEMPLOYMENT AND RELIEF

As might be expected, therefore, Negroes suffered more from unemployment and loss of income during the depression than any other group of New Jersey's citizens. According to the Federal Unemployment

Census of 1937, Negroes constitute 12 per cent of the total unemployed (including emergency workers) in the State of New Jersey. This by no means gives the complete picture, however, for many employed Negroes earn so little as to still remain cases for public assistance. In every city of over 100,000 population, the Negro's proportion among the unemployed was over twice as great as his proportion in the city's population. A report of the State Emergency Relief Administration indicates that though Negroes compose 5 per cent of the State's total family population, they composed 26 per cent of the families on relief in 1935. More recent figures of the State Financial Assistance Commission in 1937 show that in eight of the larger cities the incidence of Negroes on relief ranges from three to six times their proportion in the population. The Federal Works Progress Administration reported in 1935 that Negroes made up 20 per cent of New Jersey's total employable workers on relief. Negroes composed 4.2 per cent of Elizabeth's family population, and 28.5 per cent of the families on relief in 1937.

Reports on family income give similar evidence of acute distress among the Negro population. "The Negro in New Jersey" reported a 1931 average family income of \$1052. The Commission's own figures for 1938, based upon family schedules for 5,303 Negro families in 14 municipalities throughout the State, found that the average Negro family income had dropped to \$880 a year. The same returns showed that 30 per cent of the families had incomes of less than \$600 a year, 75 per cent had incomes of less than \$1200 a year, and only 2.5 per cent had incomes of more than \$2400 a year.

A study by the United States Department of Commerce in 1933 showed incomes of Negro families of Trenton to be even lower. Reporting on 1,746 white families and 215 Negro families, the Department found that

nine per cent of the white and 16 per cent of the Negro families had no income at all, other than public relief. Thirty-one per cent of the white families and 58 per cent of the Negro families had incomes of less than \$500 a year. Sixty per cent of the white families and 90 per cent of the Negro families had incomes of less than \$1000 a year.

Employment Barriers

As has already been stated, Negroes suffer from low income because of the difficulty they have in finding decent employment in good times and in keeping any kind of employment in slack times. There are many factors which create this difficulty. Most employers are unwilling to employ Negroes, except as a last resort and in the least desirable jobs. Again, some persons object to seeing Negroes in dignified employment, and by expressing their objections to employers make these latter even more unwilling to employ Negro labor. Still again, many white workers object to working in company with Negroes, or object to Negroes having any kind of skilled employment. Carrying their objections into trade unions, these prejudiced workers make it impossible for Negroes to be admitted to unions, and therefore make it impossible for them to work on jobs controlled by unions. Finally, because of employers' unwillingness to give Negroes experience and because of trade unions' refusal to admit them to apprenticeship training, as well as because of the short-sighted attitude of educational authorities in some municipalities, Negroes are frequently unable to acquire the training and skill that will qualify them for jobs which do appear.

Discrimination by Private Employers

The question of job discrimination against Negro workers has received extended consideration by intelligent leaders among both white

and colored citizens, for they realize that herein is contained the crux of the Negro's problem. No question exists concerning the legal right of a private employer to satisfy his personal prejudices or timidities in choosing his employees. Any check upon this right must be exerted by voluntary action between employers and the consuming public, and already organizations of Negro consumers have taken steps to encourage the employment of members of their race by promoting campaigns around the slogan, "Don't Spend Your Money Where You Can't Find Work!"

Negroes should not be left alone in their efforts to solve this phase of their problem, for their interests are too closely tied to the general welfare, and there are many employers who are impervious to any pressure exerted only by a minority group in the population. A perfect example is to be found in the recent action of a large brick company in Sayreville, New Jersey, located just outside of South River. This company began the employment of Negroes in 1923 and recruited over 400 from the South during that year. That number was reduced to about 250 workers who remained with the company for a number of years. They established their families in South River as hard-working members of the community. The number of Negro workers in the plant has been steadily reduced during the depression and the proportion of whites steadily increased. The present management is accused by its Negro workers of racial discrimination in laying off Negroes in recent weeks. Until January 1, 1939, it is declared that 21 of 121 employees were Negroes. On February 1 there were 115 white employees, and all the Negroes had been dismissed. It is the brick company's legal right to dismiss all of its Negro employees, but the burden of that dismissal falls directly on the

community of South River. On February 1 only one family among the 175 Negroes of South River was on relief, but it is certain that many others will shortly be forced on relief for no other work is to be had for a Negro in South River except in the brick yards. Clearly, however, here is a matter that does not lend itself readily to action by the community, except through the pressure of public opinion.

Discrimination by Public Appointive Officers

Quite different is the matter of public employment by state, county, or municipal departments. It is astounding to discover that although it is commonly assumed that the State has made provisions to prevent discrimination against citizens on account of race or color in public employment, actually the Civil Service Law provides against no such discrimination. The Law states that "no person in the State classified service or seeking admission thereto shall be appointed . . . or discriminated against because of his political or religious opinions or affiliations." Nothing is said regarding discrimination because of race. Because of this legislative over-sight, it is common knowledge that discrimination on grounds of race is widely practiced by officers of the State and its sub-divisions who have authority to make appointments from civil service lists. Ironically enough, opportunity for them to practice discrimination comes through the very provisions of the Civil Service Laws which are designed to make for efficient enforcement.

In case of a civil service vacancy, the Civil Service Commission certifies to the appointive officer the names of three eligibles from the top of the existing list, leaving to that officer the duty of choosing from those three that person who, in his judgment, is best

qualified for the post. Theoretically this privilege of choice protects the appointive officer against the necessity of choosing a person who may have passed a good examination but who is unacceptable by reason of temperament, personality, or other intangible faults. Actually, the privilege of selection gives the appointive officer the chance to satisfy his personal prejudices or the prejudices of other interested parties regarding race or religion.

There is not an appointive officer in the State of New Jersey who would admit to the exercise of racial prejudice in the appointment of workers subject to his jurisdiction, and because of the wide latitude of authority vested in the appointive officer by the Civil Service Law, it is extremely difficult to prove the actual operation of such prejudice. Its existence is best shown in state, county, and municipal figures regarding the employment of Negroes in public departments. Out of 54 state departments, 48 responded to the questionnaire of this Commission, giving information regarding their employment rolls. Out of a total of 5,588 employees reported in all 48 departments, 192 (3.4 per cent) are Negroes. This percentage, it will be noted, is slightly more than half of the proportion of Negroes in the State population, but 115 of these Negro employees held unskilled and semi-skilled manual jobs; only 47 of them are clerical workers, and 4 hold executive or managerial positions. These figures exclude the Bordentown School which is operated by the State entirely for colored pupils.

Reports on county employment of Negroes were secured from only 17 of the 21 counties of the State, and in several of these the data was not complete. These returns report a total of 9,679 county employees of whom 165 are Negroes, constituting 1.7 per cent of county

employees. All but 15 of these 165 Negroes employed by county government are in unskilled or semi-skilled manual jobs. In Essex County complete figures show that though Negroes compose 7.2 per cent of the county's population they hold only 55, or 2.5 per cent, of the county's jobs. In Union County where Negroes compose 5.9 per cent of the population, they hold 3.5 per cent of the county jobs.

Of the 12 municipalities circularized for employment information, 6 have adopted the Civil Service Act. These 6 cities, Camden, Newark, Elizabeth, Jersey City, Paterson, and Trenton, have a total of 13,643 municipal employees of which 290 (2.1 per cent) are Negroes. Negroes in Newark compose 8.8 per cent of the population but they compose 1.9 per cent of the 6,037 municipal employees. In only one city, Camden, does the percentage of Negroes in municipal employment even closely approach the percentage of Negroes in the population. In that city 12.6 per cent of the 898 municipal employees are Negroes though only 9.6 per cent of the city's population is Negro. The large number of Negro teachers in the separate school system of Camden helps to increase this proportion of racial employment.

It is interesting to note that in 5 of the 6 cities which have not adopted the Civil Service Act, namely, Asbury Park, Atlantic City, Bridgeton, Hackensack, and New Brunswick, the proportion of Negro municipal employees is higher than in those cities where civil service regulations govern municipal employment; 11 per cent of the 1,555 municipal employees of these cities are Negroes. This may be accounted for, however, by the fact that in two of these cities there is an unusually large percentage of Negroes in the total population. In Asbury Park 23.7 per cent of the total population, and in

Atlantic City 23.6 per cent of the total population is Negro, and the separate school systems of both cities give employment to a large number of Negro teachers.

Several reasons may be advanced for the low proportion of Negroes in state, county, and municipal employment. One has been given above, namely, the general reluctance of appointive officials to name Negro eligibles who are certified to them. On the other hand, several of the state departments reported that no Negroes had ever been certified to them for appointment. Still other officials stated that Negroes when certified are seldom high enough on the list to warrant their appointment over the whites who do secure the jobs. It is probable that there is some ground in those two latter statements. Certainly the frequent unsatisfactory experience of Negroes with appointive officials and their failure to receive appointment, even when standing at the head of the list for a long period of time, would engender a certain defeatist attitude among them. Many would become reluctant to take examinations for departmental positions where they feel that they have no earthly chance of appointment, even though they pass the examination.

It should not be assumed that the charge of racial bias in selection of employees is made indiscriminately against all public appointive officers. Here and there in various municipal and state departments may be found a refreshing exception. The Director of the State Unemployment Compensation Commission, for instance, has already announced his policy to appoint persons from the eligible list without regard to racial or religious identity, and in the offices of the U. C. C. at Trenton are to be found several Negro

clerks. Generally, however, appointive officers have followed the example of private employers, instead of setting an example to private industry, and this tendency is strikingly shown in the employment figures of municipalities. Of the 15,198 employees of 11 New Jersey municipalities, 461, or 3 per cent, are Negro. Of these Negroes, however, 56.6 per cent are unskilled or semi-skilled workers; 21.1 per cent are skilled workers; 17.1 per cent hold professional positions (most of them teachers in segregated schools); and 2.6 per cent are clerical workers. There are no Negroes employed in executive or managerial capacities in any of the municipalities reporting.

It is to be admitted, of course, that the proportion of Negroes in the population is not always a fair measure for judging the proportion of jobs they might be expected to occupy in public employment. Frequently Negroes have difficulty in obtaining the training or experience needed to qualify for a designated civil service job, or they may be hampered by poor schooling in placing high enough on the eligible lists to receive consideration by appointive officers. It may justly be said that the training and experience available to Negroes in private employment will be reflected in their success or failure in obtaining civil service employment.

Even admitting this fact, however, this Commission has been impressed with the number and seriousness of the charges made by Negro citizens regarding apparent racial bias on the part of appointive officials over a long period of years. The case of Ira R. Collins is still under public discussion. This Negro war veteran stood eighth on June 16, 1937 in a list of 27 persons certified to fill 25

vacancies as Inspector, Department of Motor Vehicles. By the end of 1937 the Commissioner of Motor Vehicles had made 29 appointments from the Inspector's list, but Collins was never appointed, despite the Veterans' Preference Act. The Commissioner subsequently stated upon inquiry of the Civil Service Commission that Collins "lacked the business capacity to fill the position of Inspector." By taking this position the Commissioner stood carefully chosen grounds, since court decisions have held that the appointive official is the final judge of the business capacity of a person certified, in the absence of proof of abuse of his discretion. The fact, however, that no Negro has ever been appointed to such a post in New Jersey, and the fact that Ira Collins was passed over after he had qualified by all tests to which he was submitted, while men twenty places below him on the eligible list (some of them also veterans) were appointed - these facts naturally strengthen the impression held by Negro citizens that the discretion of the appointive officer will remain a bar against their appointment to certain positions, even after they have qualified by all announced tests.* In many cases brought to the attention of the Commission, Negroes who have been certified for appointment to various departments claim to have been told frankly by appointive officers that they did not believe that a "Negro would be happy" in the job, or that white workers would not be "satisfied to work with a Negro."

* The Supreme Court in its decision in the Collins case stresses the fact that Collins, if he did not have Veterans Preference, would have stood four hundredth on the eligible list; but the fact remains that Commissioner Magee appointed two disabled veterans rated below Collins.

Such an attitude is a gross betrayal of a public official's responsibility, for it violates the letter and spirit of the law and places upon Negro citizens the unfair burden of contributing as tax-payers for the maintenance of jobs which they are prohibited from filling, no matter what their qualifications. The appointive official is also guilty of rejecting the best qualified person and filling a post with an inferior appointee simply because of the latter's race. In any case democracy is violated and the public welfare suffers. It is a situation that should be repugnant, not only to Negroes and all persons who believe in principles of fair play, but also to citizens who have a disinterested belief in a soundly administered civil service.

There is an additional reason why the exclusion of Negroes from public service works a hardship upon the general public as well as upon the Negro population. Mention has already been made of the large proportion of Negroes who are committed to various State institutions or are receiving assistance from State departments. Of the persons receiving Old Age Assistance in 1938, 10.9 per cent were Negroes; 1,687 Negro children were adjudged dependent and neglected and under care of the Board of Children's Guardians; 296 Negroes were committed to State institutions for the mentally deficient and 817 were confined in State mental disease hospitals. Of adult offenders committed to penal institutions, 30.8 per cent were Negroes; and of juvenile delinquents in the State Homes for Boys and Girls, 41.7 per cent were Negroes.

It might be expected that heads of institutions and agencies working with large numbers of Negro cases would be glad to avail

themselves of the services of capable ~~Negro-workers as~~ members of their staffs, and would express this attitude in frequent provisional and permanent appointments. Especially would this be expected in agencies and institutions working with young people, with correctional cases and with sick or mentally diseased persons, for in such cases much of the success of treatment depends upon the skill and understanding of the person handling the case. Unskillful treatment prolongs commitment or increases its frequency, and adds tremendously to the public cost of protective and correctional care.

Reports to the Commission from the State Department of Institutions and Agencies show that actually very little attention is given to this question. In penal and correctional institutions where approximately 33 per cent of the inmates are Negroes, less than 2 per cent of the staff are Negroes. In the institutions for care of juvenile delinquents where 41 per cent of the children are Negroes, less than 3 per cent of the staff are Negroes. Similar proportions exist in personnel rolls of state hospitals and sanatoria. Out of 4,946 persons employed in the 10 divisions of the Department of Institutions and Agencies, only 55, or 1.1 per cent, are Negroes. Most of these are not in positions where they can render expert service to the State's charges, for 47 of them are in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs.

It is only fair to state that several officials in this Department who are entrusted with appointive power appear conscious of the need for more technically and professionally trained Negroes in their personnel. These have attempted on several occasions to reach the names of Negroes on eligible lists, but in the very existence of

such special efforts there lies an example of the kind of danger to civil service standards which has been referred to above. If one appointive official may drop past fourteen white and Negro eligibles on a list to appoint a Negro who stands fifteenth, there is nothing to stop another official from dropping past fourteen Negro eligibles to appoint a white person who stands fifteenth. The fact that the first official is animated by motives friendly toward Negroes should not blind Negroes themselves to the fact that any divergence from a strictly routine order of appointment opens the way for misuse of the appointive power and discrimination against any individual whose presence in the service is not desired.

It is the well-considered opinion of this Commission that appointive officials should be required to explain to properly constituted authorities and to the candidates affected their reasons for failing to follow the numerical order in appointments from the civil service list. A candidate should have opportunity to disprove such reasons, if they be invalid, and the Civil Service Commission should have the responsibility for over-ruling the official's objections and ordering the appointment of the aggrieved candidate when injustice is proven to exist. With this end in mind, this Commission includes in its report proposed amendments to the Civil Service Laws forbidding the employment of racial or religious bias in civil service appointments, and establishing procedures in both the competitive and non-competitive class of public employment for detecting and correcting the existence of such bias. It is a recommendation of this Commission that these proposals be adopted as amendments to existing laws.

PUBLIC RELIEF AND RELIEF WORK

The undemocratic attitudes responsible for discrimination against Negroes in public employment have also been responsible for discrimination against an especially helpless group - Negroes who are unemployed and on relief. Negroes, as has been stated above, compose 26 per cent of the State's total families on relief, a number which is more than 5 times their proportion in the total population. The accuracy of this percentage reported in 1936 by the State Emergency Relief Administration is borne out by the Commission's study of the relief rolls of 15 of the larger New Jersey municipalities. Figures in 1938 for these municipalities report that out of 33,928 families, 9,379 or 26.1 per cent are Negro. This high proportion of dependency or semi-dependency among Negroes is even more strikingly demonstrated by the Commission's study of 5,368 typical Negro families throughout the State. Of these families, 26 per cent are on relief and 22 per cent on W.P.A. In other words, this sample indicates that 48 per cent of the Negro families in New Jersey cities are dependent either upon public relief or emergency relief work. The predicament of these families is emphasized all the more when one remembers that of the Negro families on relief 48 per cent subsist on relief budgets of less than \$5 a week. By far the great majority of those on W.P.A. are classified as laborers at wages of \$60.50 a month.

This high proportion of dependency is inevitable for the reasons which have been indicated earlier in this report. Paid low wages when employed, Negroes have been unable to save for periods of unemployment. Confined to unskilled and semi-skilled jobs, they have been included among those workers first dismissed in time of employment retrenchment. Members of a handicapped minority group, they have been victims of employer prejudice, frequently dismissed to provide jobs for unemployed

Thoughtful citizens will be concerned with the manner in which the State has handled the problem of relief and work relief among such a group as this for it is evident that serious and unusual problems are bound to be created therein. The morale of an unemployed population is directly affected by the hopes which its members have of early reemployment. Negro working class families, "first to be fired and last to be hired," will be especially susceptible to breakdown of morale unless emergency measures are taken to guard against such a condition. One important method of preserving the morale of the unemployed is through some form of work relief and this is the purpose of the State's sponsorship of W. P. A. Programs.

It would be expected that in an intelligently planned W. P. A. program the Negro unemployed would certainly receive equal consideration, and possibly special consideration, since it has been proven beyond doubt that it is especially difficult for this group to find reemployment in private industry - more difficult even than for the foreign-born unemployed. That such consideration has not been effectively given is immediately apparent from study of the official figures on relief and W. P. A. As early as 1935 the Federal Works Progress Administration reported that Negroes made up 20 per cent of New Jersey's total employables on relief. That percentage has grown steadily during the past four years, according to reliable estimates from all over the country, for the reemployment of Negroes has consistently lagged behind that of whites and the disparity in unemployment has increased between the two groups. In spite of the fact that Negroes indubitably constitute more than 20 per cent of the State's unemployed, they composed 15.9 per cent of those assigned to W.P.A. jobs

during 1937.

This seeming injustice to Negro unemployed has been pointed out again and again by Negro citizens, but the figures on 1938 transfers of persons on relief to W. P. A. jobs fail to show any trend toward correction of this situation except in one or two municipalities. From data collected by the State Financial Assistance Commission, statistics are available regarding the proportion of Negroes among the relief cases of eight principal municipalities in 1938, but in only one of these municipalities does the proportion of Negro cases transferred to W. P. A. during 1938 equal their proportion on the relief rolls.

In Camden Negroes constituted 9.7 per cent of the population in 1930, 34.4 per cent of relief cases in 1938, but only 20 per cent of cases transferred to W. P. A. jobs in 1938. In Newark Negroes constitute 9.2 per cent of the population, 37.5 per cent of the relief cases, but only 17.6 per cent of transferrals to W.P.A. In Elizabeth Negroes constitute 4.2 per cent of the population, 28.5 per cent of the relief cases and 17.9 per cent of transferrals to W. P. A. In Plainfield the proportions are more nearly equal, for Negroes constitute 9.5 per cent of the population, 43.8 per cent of relief cases and 40 per cent of W. P. A. transferrals. In Jersey City where Negroes are 4.0 per cent of the population, they constitute 14.3 per cent of relief cases and 14.2 per cent of W. P. A. referrals. In Hackensack where a conscious attempt seems to be made to fill the job gap between relief and W.P.A., Negroes constitute 8.6 per cent of the population, 26.4 per cent of relief cases in 1938, and 41.8 per cent of referrals to W.P.A. in 1938.

The blame for the failure of W. P. A. to meet the job needs

of the Negro unemployed must be laid at the doors of both the State's Works Progress Administration and local directors thereof, for certainly sufficient complaint has been made to make the administration aware of the situation. Employable workers on relief are required by relief regulations to register for employment at the State Employment Offices. From the registration files of the employment office their names are selected by W.P.A. for assignment to projects as vacancies occur. Responsibility for assignment, or neglect to assign, thus falls at the door of W.P.A. It is the complaint of Negro eligibles in almost every city of the State that their names are passed over by assignment clerks or project supervisors, especially on skilled and white collar jobs. It is stated that on certain projects it is almost an impossibility for Negroes to receive job assignments, and this contention seems to be borne out by the "lily white" aspect of many W.P.A. projects in communities where Negroes are eligible and able to work thereon.

Various tentative efforts appear to have been made by the W.P.A. to adjust these complaints. Negroes have been placed on the state staff to act as "advisers" or special assistants on racial problems, and five such appointments have been made in the Labor Relations Division, the Adult Education Division, and the N.Y.A. Without any attempt to depreciate the value of the service rendered by these assistants or the motives that inspired their appointments, it is evident that specially compartmented assistance cannot go to the root of the evils which are disclosed in W.P.A. discrimination. As long as clerks, foremen, and supervisors may practice petty discrimination based upon racial or religious prejudices, and feel that their detection will bring nothing more serious than a reprimand or similar

discipline, we may expect such discrimination to flourish. Actually, such betrayal of official responsibility is more serious than financial dishonesty, for it involves not only the misuse of public funds but it also helps to corrupt still further the working habits and morale of a group in the population whose plight has already become a serious problem to the entire community.

The establishment of special Negro projects has been adopted as one way of giving W. P. A. employment to Negroes in technical and professional occupations, but it can be easily seen that this is an unsatisfactory stop-gap. Not only have such projects been frequently of short duration, but their adoption places the State openly in the position of sponsoring segregation of its Negro citizens - and this is repugnant to the civic ideals which have been constantly promulgated in the State's laws.

The root of this discrimination would appear to lie in the attitude which relief and W. P. A. of New Jersey have adopted toward Negro citizens since the very start of the depression. The Negro population has consistently been treated as a dependent group to which relief of a sort must be given, never as a group of citizens whose participation is needed in the direction and administration of that relief. No **governor** has appointed a Negro to an advisory board on relief. No Negro has been appointed to an executive post, except where he operates within carefully limited areas of "special advice" on racial problems. Out of 15 municipalities studied by this Commission, 9 employ no Negroes in their welfare agencies. With such an example set by the highest authorities, it is natural to expect that subordinates will adjust their attitudes by the same pattern. To treat with a group of citizens as with irresponsible dependents is to encourage the growth of irresponsible

dependency among them. It is hardly an exaggeration to state that the administration of relief and W. P. A. in many parts of New Jersey have served to accentuate rather than solve the problem of the State's unemployed Negro thousands.

While action in this field is hardly within the province of legislative action, this Commission feels that the attention of the Legislature and responsible officers of the State should be called to the conditions cited above. State and federal funds which are expended for the announced purpose of rehabilitating unemployed citizens should not be left to the unchallenged control of short-sighted subordinates who help to create social problems in the exercise of their personal prejudices. Regulations should be adopted and enforced, setting up within the Works Progress Administration of this State some machinery for more effective disposition of complaints of racial or religious discrimination, and providing for the dismissal from service of any official or subordinate found guilty of practicing discrimination. The ability and civic interest of Negroes should be recognized by their appointment to advisory boards and in executive or administrative capacities where they actually share in policy-making as well as policy-following.

REEMPLOYMENT IN PRIVATE INDUSTRY

However well administered a work relief program may be, not even the most optimistic observer would claim that the Negro's problem can be solved by a program of work relief or other public employment. If Negroes of New Jersey are to achieve economic stability and social healthfulness they will do so through escaping the status of a semi-dependent population and finding adequate employment in private industry. Among the barriers in the way of such escape must be included the

organized hostility of white workers as evidenced in racial discrimination by labor unions.

Labor Union Discrimination

The labor union movement in all parts of the United States is regarded by Negroes as frequently hostile to their interests. As late as 1930 authoritative studies have revealed that 10 unions in the A. F. of L. and 14 outside of the Federation excluded Negro workers from their memberships by constitutional and ritualistic provisions. The majority of the remaining unions either discouraged Negro membership or tolerated it as an onerous necessity. The racial policies of labor unions are increasingly important in the Negro's chances of private employment. Because of the present tendency for employers to sign collective bargaining agreements with unions and the increase of "closed-shop contracts", obviously if Negroes are not members of unions they will be barred from jobs where union agreements are consummated.

In recent years there has been a liberalization of racial policies within many A. F. of L. unions due partly to the rise of the rival Congress of Industrial Organizations (C. I. O.). The Commission is aware that practices of union locals frequently vary from policies of their internationals according to the localities in which they are located, and it has therefore circulated questionnaires among 976 local unions throughout New Jersey to discover what policies these locals follow regarding Negro membership. Replies to the questionnaire were received from 131 local unions of which 51 are C. I. O., 73 A. F. of L., and 7 Independent. These 131 locals represent 59 national or international organizations which are listed in the appendix. The total membership is 87,480 of which 3,195 (3.7 per cent) is Negro. Actually, the percentage of Negroes

included in all unions throughout the State is probably considerably less than 3.7, for it is a natural assumption that those locals which failed to report will be, for the most part, those which have no Negro membership. The majority of the membership reported is C. I. O., totaling 55,078, of which 1,065 is Negro; A. F. of L. unions reported 16,374 members of whom 1,100 are Negroes, 7 locals of the I. L. G. W. U. have 16,034 members of whom 1,030 are Negroes. In both the C. I. O. and the A. F. of L. over 50 per cent of the Unions reported Negro membership.

Of 34 A. F. of L. unions without Negro members, 25 state that none has ever applied, but this evidently means that no Negro has ever made formal application. It is obvious that Negroes will seldom make formal applications to unions which make it very evident that such applications will not be welcomed. Six (6) A. F. of L. unions admitted having had applications from Negro members which they failed to accept for reasons unspecified; 3 unions were uncertain about their Negro membership, 3 were noncommittal, and only one admits specifically that it will not admit Negro members.

It is, of course, impossible to obtain by the questionnaire method full and frank answers to any question probing into the problem of racial discrimination. The fact that out of nearly 1,000 unions which received questionnaires only 131 answered, is in itself sufficient proof of the reluctance of labor unions to be questioned regarding their membership policies. Among the unions circularized were 24 internationals reported to exclude the Negro by provisions of their constitutions, rituals, "gentleman's agreement" or otherwise. Only 9 locals representing 7 of these internationals answered the Commission's questionnaire, and lack of time and staff personnel prevented the Commission from

following up these questionnaires with further interviews. All 9 of these locals claims that they will accept Negroes as union members, though 3 state that "Negroes seldom, if ever, pass the required examination." One has a Negro as a charter member in spite of the fact that its constitution specifically eliminates Negro membership.

Among the C. I. O. unions which reported, 27 have Negro members while 24 have not. If one takes at face value the frequently repeated C. I. O. declaration that its unions bar no eligible worker because of race or religion, the absence of Negro membership in 24 C. I. O. unions would be taken as evidence that no Negroes have applied. Such a deduction is not justified by the facts revealed in this study. Three (3) C. I. O. unions, in reply to the Commission's questionnaire, definitely stated that they did not accept Negro members, and a fourth was noncommittal. In one case the union official stated that although his union had no members and none had applied, there was a constitutional restriction against the admission of Negroes. This union, a local of the American Federation of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, reported a total membership of 160. Another local of the same international, reporting a total membership of 380, stated that no Negroes had applied and that the union would not accept Negroes. The third local, a member of the Textile Workers Organizing Committee and with a total membership of 1200, likewise stated that no Negroes had applied and none would be accepted.

These figures for both A. F. of L. and C. I. O. unions indicate, in the first place, that the constitutional provisions of an international union does not necessarily bind a local to racial fairness in its membership policies. In the second place, it is clearly shown that public statements of racial fairness may be secretly contradicted

by the private policies of unions. In the third place, it becomes evident that as the labor union becomes more and more an instrument of public policy with power of control over the employment opportunities of large numbers of workers, it becomes increasingly necessary that the labor union submit itself to public inspection of its membership policies.

There are few friends of the labor movement, and few indeed of its enemies, who would wish that Government be given control over activities of labor unions; for a step in this direction is a step toward the state capitalism which is abhorred by the vast majority of American citizens. There is no intention on the part of this Commission that any law be passed stating who shall or shall not be admitted to the membership of any private organization. As long as the labor union remains a private organization self-sustaining in its contest with employers, the matter of membership policies remains something to be determined by the union itself and to be influenced by an enlightened leadership within and without the labor union.

The National Labor Relations Act, however, has altered the former status of the labor union as a completely independent organization. In the provisions of that act the Federal Government comes to the aid of the union in its efforts to bargain with the employer, and it specifically forbids employers, on the one hand, to interfere with the union's efforts to organize employees, or, on the other hand, to refuse to bargain collectively when union organization has been effected. Proposals for legislation are now being studied which would include similar legislation in the New Jersey law so as to provide labor union protection for employees in intra-state industry. This Commission holds the opinion

that when unions approach the Government seeking special protection against unfair policies of employers, a moral and legal obligation devolves upon that union to insure that it is itself a truly representative and democratic body of workers. It is ironical for the labor union to appeal to the State, of which Negro citizens are a part, to give special protection, when that labor union is itself discriminating against those very Negroes who are part of the State. The matter becomes one of concern for more than Negro workers for, as this Commission has already pointed out, it is essential to the welfare of the State that Negroes be included proportionately in whatever progress is made toward reemployment of the unemployed in private industry. It is a recommendation of this Commission, therefore, that as the Legislature studies proposals for the enactment of a State Labor Relations Act, it shall provide for the definition in such legislation of what actually constitutes a bona-fide labor union, eligible for the protection of the act. The Commission recommends that no union shall be considered as a bona-fide labor organization, entitled to the benefit of any special protective legislation, which bars from its membership any worker or group of workers because of their race, religion, or political affiliation.

Employment by Public Utilities

Just as labor unions which seek a special protection from the public owe their public a special responsibility, so do public utility corporations operating under special monopolistic charters owe the public a special responsibility in the matter of employment policies. That such a responsibility has not been acknowledged in their employment of Negroes is shown in reports received by this Commission answering its questionnaire addressed to the larger public utilities operating within the State. The 9 major corporations listed in these findings include telephone, electric, gas, telegraph, traction, and railroad companies. They present a total of 45,761 employees of whom only 629 (1.4 per cent) are Negroes. Only 17 Negroes are occupied with supervisory, professional, or clerical tasks, the remainder being assigned to skilled or semi-skilled labor.

The seriousness of this situation lies in several factors. Not only do public utilities have a special responsibility to give all citizens equal treatment in all relationships with them, but, in addition, their employment rolls total an imposing numerical and financial figure. One company alone, the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, employs more persons than all of the New Jersey State departments combined. Another factor is the example set by the personnel policies of public utilities. Every citizen in the State comes in contact over and over again with employees of public utilities - on buses, in business offices, over telephone wires, in railroad stations. A company which rigidly bars the employment of Negroes in certain capacities - or in any capacity - aids thereby in fixing the public stereotype of thinking regarding the capacities of Negro workers.

Personnel officers of these companies give varying reasons for their failure to employ Negroes. They declare that they are not skilled, overlooking the fact that they can receive certain skills only by being given opportunities for employment. They state that Negroes never apply, a statement which in specific instances is known to be not entirely accurate. They declare that other workers object to the employment of Negroes, showing a solicitude for the attitudes of their workers which is seldom exhibited in other instances of much deeper importance to their workers' welfare. Sometimes personnel officers simply state that it is "against company policy," a blanket statement which is merely a summation of the traditional employer prejudices which have been referred to frequently in this report.

None of these reasons for the non-employment of Negroes takes into consideration the fact that Negroes are users of the products of public utilities, are part of the great public which grants their monopolies, and are included among the citizens who, at their will, may cancel the special protection which public utilities enjoy. These reasons, moreover, definitely fail to acknowledge the existence of the tremendous unemployment problem affecting Negroes, or the responsibility which devolves upon good citizenship to aid in solving that problem. To state that white workers object to working with Negroes is to deny the existence of thousands of Negroes and whites who daily throughout New Jersey work side by side in perfect amity. To say that the public resents the employment of Negroes in preferred capacities is to ascribe to the general public a reasoned attitude of prejudice which actually does not exist. Negro and white magazines throughout the country frequently refer to the

performance by Negroes of "unusual jobs" involving their association and cooperation with, and supervision of hundreds and thousands of white workers. In the neighboring State of New York a Negro sits as a member of the Municipal Tax Commission; another is a member of the Board of Appeals of the State Department of Unemployment Insurance; Negro administrators direct the activities of relief offices where white clients apply for public aid and white social workers work under the administrators' supervision. A similar situation exists in the neighboring State of Pennsylvania. The employees of one of the largest department stores in New York City, numbering nearly three thousand, have organized an employees' association and have elected one of their sixteen fellow Negro employees as chairman of the executive committee. To say that these conditions may exist in New York and Pennsylvania and cannot be duplicated in the State of New Jersey is to cast unwarranted reflection upon the social intelligence and attitudes of New Jersey citizens.

The employment policies of public utilities are a matter of deep concern to the New Jersey public, for the convenience and frequently the very safety of the public depend upon efficient performance by these semi-public employees. It is essential to the welfare of the State that its citizens be served by the very finest possible group of employees. For this reason, which is exactly the reason behind the ideal of Civil Service regulations, there should be instituted some formal procedure by which public utilities shall be required to announce job vacancies, establish an eligible list according to the ability of the applicant and the order of his application, and fill vacancies from such an eligible list, once established, in order^{of}

seniority. This Commission recommends the study of such legislation by the appropriate committee of the Legislature and urges the early introduction and passage of legislation establishing the ideal of merit in the employment practices of public utilities. It goes without saying that this legislation should protect the right of all citizens to employment without racial or religious discrimination.

Professional, Skilled, and White Collar Employment

Job barriers which have been noted in public employment and in the personnel practices of public utilities are found to stand throughout New Jersey industry generally, with especial emphasis in the fields of professional, skilled, and white collar employment. A study made in 1935 by the Interracial Committee of the New Jersey Conference of Social Work in cooperation with the State Department of Institutions and Agencies and the New Jersey Urban League, inquired into the personnel practices of 1,867 industrial and commercial establishments in order to determine their policies regarding the employment of Negroes. Of these 1,867 concerns, all of which hired 25 or more workers, only 849 (45 per cent) employed any Negroes. Of the 1,018 firms which did not employ Negroes, 622 had a rigid rule against such employment. A total of 334,180 employees in the 1,867 firms studied included 12,505 (3.7 per cent) Negroes. Many of the companies were public service corporations, banks, insurance companies, and department stores. Job barriers were found to be most rigid in those communities most strongly industrial, with the lone exception of Jersey City. In Jersey City Negroes constitute 4 per cent of the population and 5 per cent of the employees in

industrial concerns hiring 25 or more persons. In Newark where Negroes constitute 8.8 per cent of the population, they compose 3.6 per cent of the industrially employed; in Camden where they are 9.6 per cent of the population, they are 3.6 per cent of the industrially employed; in Paterson the almost complete exclusion of Negroes from the great silk industry is shown by the fact that they constitute 2.1 per cent of the population and only 0.4 per cent of those employed in the larger industrial establishments.

Following up the findings of this 1935 study, this Commission made special inquiry into the employment practices of New Jersey banks as an important field of white collar employment. Sixty-two banks in 12 New Jersey municipalities received a questionnaire and 39 responded, 31 giving the information requested in full. These 31 banks employ a total of 2,587 persons in all positions. Twenty-three of the 39 employ no Negroes in any capacity; the remaining 16 employ a total of 53 Negro workers who compose 2 per cent of the total number of bank employees. Eight banks employ one Negro each and one bank employs 10. Actually, the proportion of Negro employees in banks is probably lower than 2 per cent for it is natural to assume that those 31 banks failing to reply, or failing to reply in full, did so because of their non-employment of Negroes. Only 2 of the 53 Negro bank employees may be classed as skilled workers - one, a stockroom clerk, and the other, a photostat operator. Several of the institutions responding expressed complete satisfaction with their Negro employees in unskilled capacities. None of them expressed a disposition to use this satisfactory performance in unskilled capacities as a basis for considering the employment of Negroes

in white collar or skilled capacities.

It would be difficult for this Commission to make any formal recommendations regarding legislative action which would correct the unsound social attitudes expressed in these employment policies. The Commission feels, however, that it cannot afford to omit mention of the situation or to fail to point out again that employers who are indifferent to the existence and ability of thousands of ambitious, well-trained, unemployed Negroes are not only persisting in an attitude of unfairness toward a minority group in the population, but they are also contributing to the social problems which have been described throughout this report, and helping to impose a serious burden upon the financial and social resources of the State of New Jersey.

State Employment Service

Though legislative action may not successfully be taken in the field of private employment, there is an approach which may be used successfully by the State to help in adjusting the disparity in job opportunities between Negroes and whites. With the establishment of the State Unemployment Service as a division of the New Jersey Unemployment Compensation Commission the policies of public employment offices become of increasing importance to the unemployed. Especially important to Negroes are the policies followed in the handling of employers' orders and the referral of work applicants to employers. Negroes constitute a large proportion of registrants for work with the State Employment Service. Of the 146,795 new applications made during the fiscal year, July 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938, 16,121 (11 per cent) were Negroes. This is approximately

double the Negro's proportion in the employable population of the State, but it only partly reflects the proportionate need of Negro citizens for State employment services. The Negro applicants represent 7.7 per cent of the total Negro population of the State while the white applicants represent 3.4 per cent of the total population.

While Negroes constitute 11 per cent of the total applicants for jobs, they constitute 24.8 per cent of the total number placed by the Division. From these figures it would appear that the Negro work applicant has fared remarkably well at the hands of the State Employment Service Division since his rate of placement is more than double his rate of application. Further examination of the placement record, however, reveals that these figures are partly misleading. Most of the Negro placement is concentrated in the field of domestic service; Negroes represent 34.4 per cent of the total number of applicants registered for domestic service and 41 per cent of the total placements. Whites, on the contrary, constitute 65.6 per cent of the total registrants for domestic service and less than that percentage, 59 per cent, of the total placements. On the other hand, Negroes constitute 2.4 per cent of total white collar applicants and only 0.2 per cent of the total number of white collar placements, while whites constitute 97.6 per cent of the total number of white collar applicants and 98.8 per cent of the placements in that field. Of 36,205 white persons applying for white collar positions, 4,361 (12 per cent) were placed, but of 891 Negroes applying for white collar positions only 9, or one per cent, were placed. Among the applicants for skilled labor jobs, 9.1 per cent of the white applicants were placed, and only 5.5 per cent of Negro applicants.

Placement of white applicants in domestic service constituted 105.1 per cent of the total applicants; placement of Negroes registered for domestic service constituted 134.6 per cent of the total registrants. There are two explanations for this high proportion of domestic service placement of Negroes as compared with whites. One is that the jobs to which they have been assigned were more apt to be of temporary duration, such as day's work placements. Another is that a large number of Negroes who were registered for other types of work were referred to jobs in domestic service. In either case the conclusion is that the job needs and ambitions of unemployed Negro workers have not been satisfactorily answered in the performance of the State Unemployment Service up to the present.

Part of this failure to give adequate service is, of course, directly traceable to the severe difficulties which Negroes meet in finding any employment other than domestic service. The State Employment Service should not be judged entirely on its ability to combat employer prejudices for this has proved to be a difficult task for all agencies which have attempted it. The test of the division's adequacy is rather to be found in study of the deliberate efforts which are being made to help Negroes combat their special difficulties, and any such study must take into account the philosophy which lies behind the establishment of a public employment service. A public employment service is presumably established, not only to furnish employers with a cheap and convenient means of finding labor, but also to put unemployed workers in touch with employers who are seeking labor. Where any group in the population meets with special and unusual difficulties in making proper contacts with

employers, it is reasonable to suppose that the State is under obligation to make special efforts to relieve that group of its difficulties. Such special effort is to be found nowhere in the policies and regulations of the State Employment Service Division, so far as this Commission has been able to discover.

The fact that the placement records of the Division generally follow the experiences of Negroes in private industry are an indication to the Commission that the Division has adjusted itself to conditions in industry as they have been found to exist. Proof of this adjustment is found in a statement contained in an annual report of the Division for the fiscal year 1936-1937 which reads as follows: "To justify the public expenditures for its maintenance, a State Employment Service Division must show that its placements result in a high percentage of workers placed in permanent employment to the satisfaction of both the employer and the worker. The mechanics of the operation of the New Jersey State Employment Service Commission are geared to this objective of job satisfaction." This principle is generally interpreted by the Division's staff to mean that there must be no attempt on the part of the staff to influence the racial, religious, or nationalistic prejudices of an employer in his placing of a job order. They overlook the fact that when 2,589 Negroes are placed in jobs outside the classification for which they register and qualify, it is doubtful that the Division has realized for that population group the stated objective of job satisfaction for the worker. If the high incidence of Negro families on the relief rolls is to be materially decreased, it must be done through a high placement of Negro males in private employment. Here the Division has a responsibility as well as an opportunity. This

responsibility is recognized in the 1937 revision of statutes covering employment services, which states that the department is authorized to establish the Division and among other objectives "to adopt the most efficient means to avoid unemployment" and "to provide employment and to prevent distress from involuntary idleness."

Special effort along this line in behalf of the Negro, or similarly distressed groups in the population, can be achieved in several ways. In the first place, employers may be interviewed in an effort to change their arbitrary prejudices against work applicants referred to them. In the second place, improved methods may be used to insure that Negroes will actually be registered in the job fields for which they are best qualified, and in which they wish to find work opportunity. It is freely claimed by Negroes, with facts to prove some basis for their claims, that interviewers in local offices are prone to urge skilled Negro workers to register for domestic service or other unskilled and semi-skilled jobs because "the opportunity for placement is better." Frequently it is claimed that interviewers will arbitrarily register in classifications other than those requested, and persons who register for white collar work receive notices of their referral to domestic service or labor jobs. One particularly impressive complaint received at the offices of this Commission is from a Negro woman who is a skilled dressmaker and who was refused opportunity to register for such work by the employment interviewer. She was told that she must register for domestic service or not be registered at all.

It is needless to point out that subordinates and officials guilty of such arbitrary misuse of their power have no proper place in a public department. It is more important to discover ways in

which these improper practices may be uncovered and eliminated.

One method of protection immediately comes to mind - the presence of a considerable number of Negroes in the employment service in both supervisory and subordinate capacities. Negro executives in the employment service would have, of course, the power to investigate the existence of improper racial practices. The presence of Negro subordinates scattered throughout the service would check in large measure the tendency of their white fellow workers to indulge in practices which they may now employ without serious danger of discovery. It goes without saying that strong regulations should be adopted by the administration of the Employment Service Division forbidding any display of racial or religious bias, and calling for effective disciplinary action to be taken against any staff member found guilty of charges along this line. These recommendations the Commission presents for the information of the Legislature and for consideration of the Unemployment Compensation Commission.

HOUSING

It has been stated earlier in this report that one of the most serious problems faced by Negroes in New Jersey is that of finding decent housing at reasonable sale or rental prices. The traditional community prejudices which assign to the Negro an inferior occupational status also relegate him to the less desirable residential areas. Negro families in almost every community of New Jersey, seeking residence in any but what is considered "the Negro neighborhood," meet with strenuous opposition from white property-owning interests. There is a persisting impression that the residence of Negro families - or even one Negro family - in a neighborhood tends

to depreciate property values, notwithstanding the fact that all over New Jersey Negroes of average, or better-than-average cultural standards live in amicable relationship with white neighbors, maintain their homes in good condition and generally prove good citizens in the finest neighborhood or community sense of the word.

This unwillingness to sell or rent desirable property to Negroes affects their living standards in two ways. They have choice of residence only among the least desirable dwellings of the community, and at the same time an artificial dwelling scarcity is created. It is a general law of real estate values that rental levels increase as available dwelling space decreases, regardless of property condition or tenant income. This law has operated with respect to the Negro population, and thus in every large city of New Jersey we have the tragic condition of a Negro population, already burdened with problems of low income, afflicted with an increased burden through paying higher rents than their white neighbors for inferior dwelling accommodations.

Even if there were no dwelling restrictions practiced against Negroes, it must be admitted, they would still face a serious housing problem, such as is faced by all families of low income. It is to be expected that families of low income will be renting families, and that their dwellings will be frequently sub-standard. The 1930 Census figures reported that 75 per cent of the Negro families in New Jersey rented their dwellings. In cities with the largest Negro populations this figure was even higher. In Camden 76 per cent of the Negro families, in Jersey City 83 per cent, In Atlantic City 84 per cent, and in Newark 93 per cent of the Negro families rented their homes.

Records of the Real Property Inventory, made four years later in 1934 by the New Jersey State Housing Authority, show an even lower percentage of home ownership in urban communities. In the 14 municipalities studied by this Commission, the Real Property Inventory showed an average owner-occupancy of 36.5 per cent for the general population, but one of only 11 per cent for the Negro population. In Woodbury, boasting the highest home ownership in the State, 57.1 per cent of the general population and 42.3 per cent of the Negro population occupied their own homes. In Newark at the other extreme, 22 per cent of the general population, but only five per cent of the Negro population occupied their own homes.

Confined by low income to a rental status, and confined by racial prejudice to the less desirable neighborhoods, it is inevitable that Negroes will be forced to live in sub-standard dwellings, and will frequently pay exorbitant rents for their quarters. The Real Property Inventory reports show that such is the case in New Jersey. Of the houses occupied by the general population in 13 urban communities, 20.8 per cent are in poor physical condition - that is, needing major repairs or classed as unfit for human occupancy. Of all the houses occupied by the Negro population in 13 urban communities, 69.5 per cent are in poor physical condition. Of total families in the general population, 17.6 per cent pay rents of less than \$15 a month; of Negro families in the same population, 41 per cent pay rents of less than \$15 a month.

No definite correlation between rents and property conditions has been established, but it is reasonable to assume that properties renting at less than \$15 a month are the least desirable dwellings.

If this is assumed, we have the situation of 3.2 per cent of the general urban population living in sub-standard dwellings but paying more than \$15 a month rent, while 28.5 per cent of the Negro population live in sub-standard dwellings and pay more than \$15 a month rent.

Recital of these bare facts scarcely does justice to an unlovely picture of housing conditions among a considerable group of New Jersey citizens - conditions which have been produced by forces beyond their control. To say that 69.5 per cent of the houses occupied by Negroes in New Jersey's urban communities are in "poor physical condition," does not emphasize the importance of these conditions to the State-at-large. The facts are better understood when we remind our citizens that 46.1 per cent of urban Negro families rent dwellings with no bath for private family use; 47 per cent have no hot water; 30 per cent share toilet facilities between two or more families. Seventy-six per cent of Negro tenants have no central heat in their homes, and 24 per cent have no electricity for lighting.

The importance of these housing conditions among Negroes is immediately appreciated by those citizens who realize the effect which poor housing has in producing other and more serious social problems. Houses without proper heat, toilets, and cooking facilities, are houses wherein ill-health is frequent and diseases spread rapidly. Unattractive and uncomfortable homes are homes without family cohesion; they form neighborhoods where juvenile delinquency and crime flourish. High rents, or a high proportion of a low income going for rents, mean that family food budgets are cramped. Milk is denied Negro babies; fresh vegetables are

withheld from expectant or nursing mothers; the rates of infant mortality, and pre-natal or post-natal mortality, mount to alarming levels in Negro neighborhoods. Over and over again, in various ways, the State pays for the poor housing conditions among the Negro population and meets the results of these conditions in the shape of grave social problems.

It would be pleasant to record that those responsible for public and private housing plans in our municipalities are awake to the urgency of these problems and are planning today to avert in New Jersey such slum conditions as have already developed on tremendous scales in New York and Philadelphia. Unfortunately this Commission does not generally find such to be the case. This report has already mentioned one municipality, New Brunswick, where city officials have not only housed Negro relief families in condemned dwellings, but have charged rent for their occupancy against their relief budgets. This is a shocking instance of official failure to understand the social costs of poor housing, but it is matched by the attitude of private citizens and property owners of other communities.

The headlines of the daily press recently described the action taken by the City Council of Montclair, which surrendered to pressure by prominent citizens and cancelled plans for a low-cost housing project originally designed to correct slum conditions prevailing among Negro and white residents of that community. It has already been convincingly shown in studies of the State and city housing authorities, as well as investigations of civic groups, that there does exist a serious need for such community action. The State Housing Authority reported that only 9.1 per cent of the houses

occupied by Negroes were in good condition and that 12.1 per cent were actually unfit for use. Thirty-six per cent of the houses occupied by Negroes needed major repairs and another 42.2 per cent needed minor repairs. The fact that 22.4 per cent of the dwellings were overcrowded might easily be one important reason for the deteriorated condition of the property.

In face of these conditions which were publicly revealed, the opposition of Montclair's leading citizens to a housing project is difficult to understand, especially when the reasons for that opposition are discussed. Fear of increased taxation was given as one reason; lack of understanding of and sympathy for the objectives of low-cost housing was another. Political factionalism no doubt played a small part, but an underlying and possibly all-compelling reason was disclosed by one of Montclair's most prominent citizens who is also an important figure in the New York business world. This citizen expressed the opinion that it would be undesirable to improve the housing of Montclair's Negro families through a low-cost housing project because it would attract to that city an influx of domestic workers. Plainly, by "domestic workers" this spokesman meant Negro workers, and in making such a statement he voiced a frequently expressed fear of civic groups throughout the State concerning an increase of the Negro population in New Jersey communities.

It is needless, in this report, to discuss the lack of social ethics exposed in such fears and the lack of understanding of what constitutes the true American community. It is sufficient to reiterate that the Negro population of New Jersey has increased, and will continue to increase, for the same reason that the foreign-born

population has increased in the past. These dark-skinned residents of our cities will develop good citizenship, or fail to develop it, according to the facilities for such development that are placed at their disposal. Certainly, decent housing is among those facilities considered essential to the development of good citizenship. The community which withholds good housing from any section of its population will certainly pay for the results of its attitude in the social and economic problems created in a slum community. This Commission, therefore, wishes to impress upon the Legislature, the New Jersey State Housing Authority, municipal housing authorities in the cities of the State, and enlightened public leadership, the necessity for continued emphasis upon the housing problems of Negroes and immediate action to improve those housing conditions through low-cost housing projects open to tenancy by Negro families.

HEALTH

Throughout this report constant reference has been made to the effect which low income and poor housing have upon the health of the Negro population. Negro health has long been a matter of public concern, since it was discovered more than forty years ago that the urban death rate of Negroes not only exceeded that of whites, but actually exceeded the Urban Negro birth rate. It was widely deduced from these findings that Negroes were physiologically unsuited to the demands of urban life, and that the race would tend to die out as it increased its proportion of urban residence. The largest insurance company of New Jersey, whose actuary adopted this point of view and expounded it in a widely published work, refused on that score, and still refuses, to insure Negro risks.

More scientific studies of succeeding years have disproved these older theories, and public health authorities all over the country are insistent in their agreement that the high death rate in Negro neighborhoods is caused by improper housing and clothing, malnutrition, and limited access to preventive and curative health facilities. Since it has been shown that New Jersey Negroes are especially subject to the hazardous conditions listed above, this Commission has sought to discover what has been their effect on the health rate, and what steps are being taken by the State and its municipalities toward their correction.

As would be expected, the mortality rate of Negroes in New Jersey is strikingly higher than that of whites, and especially is this true of those ills caused by malnutrition, exposure or congested

living conditions. In 1936 the mortality rate for Negroes was 16.1 per thousand population as compared with 10.4 per thousand for the general population. The five leading causes of death in 1936, in order of their importance, were:

NEGRO

1. Diseases of the heart
2. Tuberculosis of the respiratory system
3. The Pneumonias
4. Nephritis
5. Cancer and other malignant tumors

WHITE

1. Diseases of the heart
2. Cancer and other malignant tumors
3. Nephritis
4. Cerebral hemorrhage, cerebral embolism, Thrombosis
5. Violent and accidental deaths, excluding suicides and homicides

The rate of tuberculosis in 1936 was 37.3 per hundred thousand population for whites, but for Negroes the rate was 190.9. The white infant mortality rate was 44 per thousand live births the same year; for Negroes the rate was nearly double, 79.5 per thousand. The disparity in these rates for infant and tuberculosis mortality can be taken as a strong reflection of the differing conditions under which Negro and white babies are born, and Negro and white families live.

In several cities the 1936 rate of infant mortality among Negroes was so much higher than the State average of 44 as to be shockingly unbelievable to persons not closely familiar with the actual conditions. In Burlington, the Negro infant mortality rate was 230.8 - six times the white rate of 38.2! In Elizabeth the Negro rate was 101.0, the white rate 37.9.; in New Brunswick the Negro rate was 111.1, the white rate 43.4. Negro infants had their best chances of survival in Woodbury, with a mortality rate of 33.3 as compared with 31.3 for whites.

With these serious health problems so clearly displayed among the Negro population, there is no need to remark further upon the urgent necessity for effective attack upon them. This report has already criticized the lack of action that has been taken in attacking the causes of high mortality, through employment and housing programs. It is now proposed to show that even present health needs of the Negro population are not met by existing services. Hospital services, public and private, are especially important to the health of a low-income group, for this group not only suffers more frequently from illness, but lacking money for private physicians' attendance, they are more dependent upon the free or low-cost services of a hospital ward or clinic.

HOSPITAL SERVICES

It would be expected that since the Negro population suffers from illness and disease more than any other group of the State, the hospitals of the State, counties and municipalities would be especially careful to see that their services are available to this hard-hit low-income group. The testimony of Negro patients and their physicians is unanimously to the contrary. In an attempt to check upon the reliability of this testimony, the Commission circulated a questionnaire to the 162 hospitals now operating within the State, and interviewed the heads of some of these. One hundred, or 61 per cent of the hospitals responded to the questionnaire, and in these hospitals there were registered as in-patients in 1937, a total of 238,392 patients, of whom 12,977, (5.4 per cent), were known to be Negroes. There were 274,499 registrations in the out-patient departments of 55 hospitals, 17,949, (6.5 per cent), being Negroes.

The question immediately arises as to why the Negro population, with a tuberculosis rate of five times that of the white population and a general mortality rate of 16.1 per cent as compared with 10.4 per cent for the white population, would be represented in hospitals with only six per cent of the total cases treated, approximately their percentage in the population. Different answers come from different sources. Negroes claim that some hospitals refuse outright to treat them, that in other hospitals only the more serious cases of Negroes are admitted, and that in still others the attitude of staff members is such that Negroes will enter only as a last resort, and then reluctantly. These charges hospital heads generally deny, and give as reason for their small Negro registrations explanation that Negroes have not been made as aware as the white population of the importance of early medical attention, and that they are more apt not to have the money to pay even the more moderate hospital fees.

In support of the charges of discrimination made by Negroes, the Commission's study has revealed that seven hospitals (classified as hospital-homes) state that they will admit no Negroes; fifteen others admit that they practice segregation against Negro patients in one form or another. This segregation varies from complete separation of white and colored patients to separation in ward accommodations. It is entirely possible that other forms of discrimination are practiced which have not been reported to this Commission voluntarily; it is even more probable that an official spirit which prompts the segregation of sick and helpless patients in one aspect of hospital service will also prompt discrimination against those

patients in other services and in more serious fashion. Certainly, it is to be expected that a self-respecting Negro family would resent having the label of racial inferiority pinned upon it by separation in public or private hospital accommodations, and would be tempted to avoid entering such an institution as long as possible. Certainly, also, the effect of a humiliating experience upon the patient's spirits and temperament might seriously retard the chances of recovery in an illness where mental attitude of the patient is an important curative factor.

The small proportion of Negro patients in the State's Glen Gardner Sanitorium for tuberculosis patients possibly presents a problem, the significance of which this Commission has not had opportunity to explore. Patently, if the tuberculosis mortality among Negroes is five times that among whites, and if Negroes were admitted to Glen Gardner at a rate in keeping with that proportion, they would constitute approximately twenty-five per cent of the patients there. Actually they constitute only 6.8 per cent of the admissions in 1938.

If the proportion of Negro patients at Glen Gardner is a true reflection of proportions that exist in the various county hospitals for tuberculosis, then certainly, a serious problem presents itself for immediate attack by private citizens and public officials alike. It has been proven that tuberculosis can be controlled and cured, provided the patient secures early and adequate attention. It would be a serious reflection on the common humanity and intelligence of the State if it were found that the Negro group, with an extremely high tuberculosis rate, were deprived of

proportionately adequate facilities for its cure.

TRAINING OF NEGRO PHYSICIANS

There are, of course, other factors beside community indifference that may enter into the picture. The very fact that Negroes lack secure employment and work for low wages makes it difficult for them to leave their jobs and go away for treatment as readily as more fortunate groups in the population. Herein is emphasized the importance of preventive health work in the Negro community and the need for increasing the spread of health education. The appointment of a Negro physician as health lecturer by the State Department of Health, the presence of Negro physicians on the staffs of one or two county sanitoriums, the employment of a few Negro public health nurses on the staffs of county and private health agencies - these are steps in the right direction, but they are only tentative steps which have been made after terrific pressure from the Negro community for increased service.

As long as Negroes remain a culturally isolated group, health conditions among them will depend in large measure upon the efficiency of services rendered by physicians and nurses of their own race. Most Negroes when ill call a Negro physician; seldom are they served outside of hospitals by any but nurses of their own race. The Commission has therefore studied with interest the facilities which the State and its communities have placed at the disposal of Negro physicians and nurses for their training and improvement of professional skills. The results of that study are disheartening, for once again, the Commission has been impressed with the existence of a serious need and the lack of any plan to answer

that need. Negro physicians demand three services of hospitals which are available to whites and which are essential to the maintenance of proper professional morale. They need the right to treat their patients in hospitals upon occasion; they need the professional training and experience which work in hospital wards and clinics afford; they need opportunity to train in hospitals as internes.

Of the 100 hospitals answering the Commission's questionnaire, only 37 would permit Negro physicians to treat their own patients in the hospital. Forty denied them that privilege, although granting it to white physicians. Of the 37 which did grant the privilege, several made reservations such as "if patient is white." Only 11 hospitals reported Negroes on their staffs, nine of these having Negroes on their clinical staffs only, and only one, a hospital operated by and for Negroes, having Negro physicians on its consulting staff. Not one of the hundred hospitals has at present, or has ever had, Negro internes. One hospital stated that it would accept one now; nine others indicated that they would accept Negro internes without placing a numerical restriction. Seventy-seven hospitals stated that they would not accept Negro internes now, but forty of these seventy-seven accept no internes whatever.

Two reasons are usually given for not accepting Negro internes; first, that a racially mixed staff would cause undesirable problems of personnel adjustment; second, that the large number of white applications for internships and the small percentage of Negro patients would not justify the admission of Negro internes. The West Jersey Homeopathic Hospital in Camden is mentioned only

because the attitude of its heads is so typical of the responses received. This hospital receives 25.5 per cent of its income through public support of its patients, 8.4 per cent of its in-patient admissions are Negro, as are 20.6 per cent of the patients in the out-patient department. This hospital will not accept Negro internes because of the "excess of white graduates applying for internships." Camden, it will be noted, had a Negro infant mortality rate of 81.5 per cent in 1936, compared with a general State rate of 44.

Probably in continuation, or possibly as a result of this attitude, the services offered to physicians by forty-two hospitals in the form of lectures, institutes, case reviews, clinical and pathological meetings - these are seldom shared in by Negro physicians. From one to five Negro physicians attended meetings last year at eighteen hospitals. At the Negro hospital, where they were certain of being welcome, 37 of them were in attendance.

The important question that is involved herein concerns the health of the Negro community and the barriers which are placed in the way of adequate service to the Negro group by medical institutions themselves. It is an unflattering comment on the whole-hearted devotion of the medical profession to the ethics which supposedly inspire it, that the problem of training and professional experience for Negro physicians should still remain unsolved throughout the State.

Training of Negro Nurses

Likewise, unsolved is the problem of training for Negro nurses. Of the 35 more important training schools for nurses in the State, 33 answered the Commission's questionnaire dealing with

their racial policies. In these 33 schools, there are 522 supervisors and instructors who are charged with the training of 2,106 students. In the entire State, there is not one Negro supervisor or instructor, and only in Jersey City is there a Negro nurse-in-training. In that city, six Negro student nurses are now enrolled at the Margaret Hague Maternity Hospital, and two are enrolled at the Medical Center. Of the remaining 31 training schools which have no Negro student nurses, more than half admit frankly the existence of racial discrimination. Most of the others merely state that no Negro girls have ever applied. Interviews with citizens interested in this problem, including Negro nurses, disclose the fact that Negro girls of New Jersey who wish to pursue a nursing career have been made to understand, through repeated bitter experiences, that they must leave their own state in order to secure the necessary training.

The Newark City Hospital School of Nursing has no Negro among its 90 students, nor has it ever had one, though it is wholly subsidized by the City of Newark. The Atlantic City Hospital Training School receives a municipal appropriation, and reported 79 student nurses, but last year, it saw fit to refer its one Negro applicant to another school. One school head, after stating that she had formerly taught Negro student nurses in a southern training school, and that she had found them excellent students, stated that the problem here seems to be one of consumer demand for the colored registered nurse. "Few families can afford graduate nurse service."

Though it is perhaps true that only a small proportion of Negro families will willingly undergo the expense of a private graduate nurse when ill, there are, nevertheless, many fields of work

open for the Negro graduate nurse when properly trained. Hospital service, nursing in schools and clinics, public health work - all these are fields which demand capable workers, and fields in which the service of Negro nurses is badly needed. If New Jersey is to make an honest and effective attack upon the health problem of its Negro citizens, the program will require the services of hundreds of skilled Negro nurses, and the number, six, now in training throughout the entire State, will hardly be adequate to meet this demand.

INSURANCE

Life Insurance

From the very beginning of its inquiry this Commission has been impressed by the bitterness of Negro citizens who protest regarding discrimination practiced against their race by life insurance companies. Before examining the validity of these complaints the Commission has considered the importance which life insurance protection has for the Negro family, as well as the importance which proper regulation of life insurance companies have for the general state welfare. In thousands of families every year, sound life insurance policies appear as the family's only protection against the hazards and miseries of bereavement, dependent old age, helpless illness, or financial destitution. It is in recognition of this special importance that every state in the union has passed more or less stringent laws regulating the financing, chartering, and inspection of insurance companies, and especially those insuring the risks of life. The State of New Jersey has recognized, moreover, that the protection of life insurance should not be withheld from any group in the population because of its race, and has included in its insurance laws provisions designed to protect against discrimination in this direction. The State has provided, moreover, that greater premiums shall not be required from Negro families as payment on life insurance policies than those required from white families, solely on grounds of race.

In an attempt to discover how faithfully the provisions and the spirit of this law are followed by insurance companies operating in New Jersey, the Commission instituted an inquiry by questionnaire directed to 14 companies. Of these, 10 responded, and all 10 respondents stated that they do accept Negro risks; six of these specifically

state that there is no differential risk rate for white or Negro clients. A seventh replied that the company had established no differential but added, "we find that the sanitary condition (of Negroes) gives us a rejection of about 15 per cent." Another which reported no differential related that "we have not, however, made any effort to get such (Negro) business and make no effort at the present time."

The two companies writing the largest amount of insurance in the State give quite different answers. One admitted frankly that it does use a differential risk rate basis between white and Negro clients. In explanation the company's representative declared that "Negro lives are not insured at the same rates as normal white lives, but are insured at the same rates as white lives which are subject to some mortality in excess of the normal. We consider that this is called for under the law which requires us to make no discrimination between persons of equal prospect of longevity, since it has been proved statistically that the prospect of longevity of a Negro life is measurably less than that of a white life of the same age."

It is interesting to note that this is the same insurance company whose actuary over forty years ago published the work referred to earlier in this report under discussion of health of the Negro community. That study examined the high mortality rate of Negroes in urban communities and deduced therefrom that Negroes had structural defects of physique which made them unsuited to urban life dooming them as a race if they persisted in moving to urban environments. These "scientific" deductions were translated into a company policy which held any Negro life as a poorer risk than the normal white life. Though the findings of that work have long since been disproved by scientific studies of the present day, its influence evidently still

lingers in the company's administration and policy. The assumption is made here that in no case is the prospective longevity for a Negro equal to that for the normal white person "since it has been proved statistically that the prospect of longevity of a Negro is measurably less than that of white life of the same age."

This assumption is based on an undisputed fact that the majority of the members of a Negro community live under unusually hazardous health conditions. It ignores the fact that a considerable minority in the Negro community are not exposed to these hazardous conditions and actually attain, or exceed, equal longevity with the normal white population. If such a policy were followed with respect to other special groups among the white population, differentials would be established, for instance, against Italian applicants or Polish applicants or any population group with a large proportion of low-income immigrant families. Such a policy would be manifestly unfair, for the children of these immigrant families move as soon as possible from those neighborhoods in which unusual health hazards are encountered, and they establish living standards which produce equal prospect of longevity with that of the rest of the community. Exactly the same situation exists in the Negro community. Many Negro families, and possibly the majority of Negro families, live under conditions which produce a disproportionately high mortality rate in comparison with the community norm. Those with better incomes escape from such neighborhood conditions as soon as possible, yet the insurance company which is quoted above penalizes even those families because of their racial connection with an unfortunate resident of disadvantaged neighborhoods.

As a matter of fact, even among those companies which state that they establish no differential against Negro risks, there are several who are nevertheless accused by Negro citizens of actually practicing racial discrimination. It is stated that certain types of preferred policies are withheld from any Negroes; one company practically admits such discrimination by stating that "we have, however, made no effort to get such (Negro) business and make no effort at the present time." These practices are tantamount to racial discrimination in violation of the spirit of the insurance laws providing against such discrimination. In consequence of such discrimination and a widespread assumption by Negro citizens that their business is neither sought nor desired by the larger insurance companies, there has been a general disposition among Negro families to accept the industrial type of policy as their insurance protection. Such policies, it is well known, are more expensive to maintain and offer inferior protection as compared with the regular life insurance policies. As a result the average Negro family, even if it has kept up its insurance payments throughout the life of the insured, finds itself, upon the death of the wage-earner, with barely sufficient funds to provide for decent burial and with no provision for the bereaved dependents of the deceased. Such a family immediately becomes a matter of concern to the general community, for it assumes a status of public dependency, at least until such time as other wage-earners are able to assume the responsibilities formerly carried on by the family head.

It is an amazing fact that these conditions have existed for so long without the active interest of the State, for here is a matter that very distinctly concerns the general welfare of all citizens. Life insurance is recognized today as an important kind of saving -

probably the most important kind for the average family. To deny any group in the population the right to participate freely in this kind of saving is to deny the privilege of developing and exercising habits of thrift. No intelligently ordered community would permit a savings bank to refuse its services to members of any special population group at the whim of its officials, for banking services are vital to the security and progress of the community. The services of life insurance companies stand in similar relationship to the general community welfare. For these reasons the Commission has recommended an amendment to the present statutes governing life insurance. This amendment is proposed to make unlawful any refusal, based on race or color, by life insurance companies to accept an application or to issue a policy of life insurance to a Negro.

Casualty Insurance

Of similar importance are the practices of casualty insurance companies toward Negro applicants for insurance protection. Though complaints have been received concerning a wide area of casualty insurance, the Commission has confined its inquiry to companies insuring automobile owners and drivers against liability for damages incurred in operation of motor vehicles. Though it is not officially admitted by any casualty insurance company that it refuses to accept applications of Negroes for automobile insurance, nevertheless, advices to this Commission from agents and brokers handling the business of such companies, as well as statements made by Negro citizens and contained in the files of this Commission, are impressive evidence showing discriminatory policies on the part of most casualty insurance companies. To members of this staff, insurance brokers have talked frankly. They have explained that casualty companies are reluctant

to insure Negro driving risks because in accident cases a judge or jury is inclined to discriminate against a Negro defendant in awarding damages. Consequently, only the Negro who has benefit of special influence or prestige is able to place his application successfully with such insurance companies. If these reports which have consistently been made over a long period of years accurately describe the policies of casualty insurance companies, it is a shocking reflection on the standards of justice which exist in the New Jersey communities - a reflection which is distasteful to every member of the Legislature. Yet this attitude by "hard-boiled business men" is merely additional confirmation of an opinion that prevails widely and strongly among Negro citizens throughout the State.

Regardless of the validity of this indirect criticism leveled at the integrity of court justice, the inability of Negro motor vehicle owners and drivers to obtain insurance protection works a double hazard upon both the Negro population and the entire community. In the first place, when damage is incurred through the operation of a motor vehicle by an uninsured person, both the offending and aggrieved party are left without the protection which modern society has judged to be absolutely necessary. A driver of a motor vehicle which is operated on the public highway may inflict damages totaling into thousands of dollars. If he is unprotected by insurance he himself stands the risk of financial destitution, and the damaged parties stand equal risk of suffering injury and loss without the possibility of compensation. The Negro driver involved suffers additional hazard, for involvement in an accident requires him, under certain circumstances, to establish financial responsibility as required by the law, such as is secured through casualty insurance. Thousands of Negroes

throughout the State earn their livings and support their families as drivers of motor vehicles. To deny them, because of race, the possibility of obtaining insurance protection is to deny them, under certain circumstances, any chance for employment at their trade. Because of the above mentioned discriminatory practices and the hardships derived therefrom, an amendment is proposed to prohibit discrimination based on race or color by casualty insurance companies.

EDUCATION

New Jersey's 21 county school systems and 42 of its 44 municipal systems reported to this Commission a total 1938 enrollment of 60,221 Negro pupils in the public schools of New Jersey; ^{they} constitute approximately nine per cent of the total State public school population. It has long been a matter of common knowledge that Negro pupils in many public schools of New Jersey are denied the equal educational opportunity which is theoretically guaranteed to them in the laws of the State. The facts gathered by this Commission in its field studies, in its examination of school records and in its interviews with public school officials amply confirm the truth of this fact.

It is generally known that so far as the racial policies of their school systems are concerned, the counties of New Jersey divide themselves into two separate divisions of the State, with the 10 counties of southern New Jersey generally agreed upon a policy of racial segregation of their Negro pupils in elementary schools. Most of the Negro school teachers employed find their opportunity in separate school systems, for 95 per cent of the total Negro teachers in the State are assigned to separate schools of southern counties and to a few schools of the State where more than 75 per cent of their enrollments are Negroes. Most of the complaints regarding inequality of school opportunity for Negro pupils find their origin in the southern counties. It should be said at the beginning that many of these complaints come from white citizens, for they see in the establishment of a separate school system a ^{repetition} of the expensive procedure followed by southern states with such tremendous waste of school monies and inferior systems of education.

The existence of similar waste in southern New Jersey's separate school system is indicated in this fact - in five counties the average number of pupils per room is lower than the average number of pupils in other schools. These figures suggest that in those five counties a needless and additional burden is placed upon the shoulders of taxpayers in the maintenance of separate buildings and teachers for Negro pupils who might be distributed more efficiently throughout the other public schools without segregation or special cost to the community.

On the Other hand, in an equal number of counties the enrollment of pupils per room in Negro schools is considerably higher than the enrollment in white schools. This is, of course, one way in which pupils may be denied the benefits of equal educational opportunity. Manifestly, when a school room is overcrowded a teacher is unable to give proper instruction to her pupils, and education standards suffer in consequence. There are, however, other more striking exhibitions of discrimination against Negro pupils in many of the separate schools. In several counties Commissioners found large buildings where white students are housed under the most modern conveniences. The community's Negro pupils are segregated in small buildings without similar conveniences, and frequently without the minimum essentials for adequate instruction. Lack of gymnasium facilities, shop equipment, charts and maps and even books constitute some of the classroom lacks of which Negro teachers complain in these schools. In some of the larger separate school systems it does seem that there is a sincere attempt to achieve equal standards for the Negro school, not only in matter of buildings and equipment but also in the standards of teaching personnel. It is in the smaller schools that such a spirit is

most frequently entirely lacking.

A notable example of the latter type is to be found in Burlington county. A recent outbreak of racial friction between white and Negro children in the community of Westhampton Township near Mount Holly led the Commission to investigate conditions in Mount Holly and the Township. Many of the township children are sent by the board of education to Mount Holly schools. It was found that in the public schools of Mount Holly there are 137 Negro children. Eighty are enrolled at a separate Negro elementary school; 18 in the high school division which has enrollment of both white and Negro pupils, and 39 in the junior high school building which likewise has mixed enrollment. In the junior high school, however, all 39 of the colored children, regardless of their grades, are placed in one room and taught by a single Negro teacher, who is also principal of the separate Negro elementary school. It can easily be seen how such an arrangement developed racial tension between the colored students, and contributed to the personal conflict which broke out in December, 1938, and resulted in the jailing of five parents and relatives of the Negro school children. Plentiful material is in the files of the Commission, pointing to the fact that the school officials of Mount Holly and Westhampton Township have not only been guilty of gross discrimination against the Negro pupils in the public schools, but have developed a feeling of racial tension which has spread relationships between the adult Negro and white residents of the community.

It is evident even to a casual observer that equal educational opportunity is denied to Negro pupils of Mount Holly and Westhampton Township, and that this denial is in violation of several provisions of the State's law. Responsibility for enforcing the law and ^{protecting} ^

the legal rights of the Negro pupils and parents devolves upon the County Superintendent of Schools. This official is instructed by the educational law to have the custodian of school monies withhold monies from any school district found denying sufficient and suitable school facilities for all children who reside in the district and who desire to attend the public schools therein. In this particular case the Superintendent of Schools in Burlington County appears to have known for a long time of the existence of the Mount Holly violations. Nowhere in the Commission's investigation has it been discovered that he protested against this gross discrimination. On the contrary, he seems to have concurred with some members of the Board of Education who felt that the proper solution of the "school problem" was to institute a separate Negro high school for both junior and senior pupils. He is reported to have assisted a group of local officials in their request to the State Department of Public Instruction for financial assistance in erecting and maintaining a separate building for Negroes. It is very evident that no efficient separate high school can be maintained for 55 Negro pupils. It is equally evident that an official attitude which prompts separation of these children would act later to deprive them of equal educational facilities, once a physical separation had been established. It appears to the Commission that the attitude of the Superintendent of Schools in Burlington County is all the more serious in this case because it is typical of several situations that have been discovered in other counties in the southern part of the State.

There are other serious aspects of this problem aside from

the participation of the County Superintendent. The president of the Westhampton Township Board of Education declared to an interviewer, "it is very unfortunate that we cannot keep the colored children separated from the white children. . . . Our plan is to have a separate school for colored children from the first grade through high school. The reason is because the colored children are objectionable." This point of view differed from that of the president of the Mount Holly Board of Education who stated, " a separate school for the colored children would not be practical, because it would be impossible to secure adequate facilities for such a small group." Nevertheless, the Commission was informed that the supervising principal of the Rancocas Valley Regional High School, a county judge and prosecutor, the president of the Westhampton Township Board of Education, and the County Superintendent of Schools not only planned together for the establishment of a separate school, but made request of the State for financial aid. Even more disturbing is the report that refusal of their request by the State department was not based upon the obvious racial inequality involved, but rather upon the community's inability to supply 75 per cent of the cost involved.

The flagrant abuses of school administration exhibited in the Burlington County incident and their prevalence on a lesser scale in several other counties of the State indicate the need for a new and thoughtful evaluation of educational standards in New Jersey. They show the need for careful consideration of the long-time results of a segregated school system. Too often racial segregation has been established in a community's schools as a hasty "solution" of an emergency situation. Negroes have been led to accept separate

educational facilities because of the promise of teaching jobs for trained young Negroes, or because of more selfish personal reasons - or often simply because they have been cowed by their comparatively helpless community status. White citizens have approved expensive and anti-social developments because of their incomplete understanding of the responsibilities of a truly democratic community and the costs of duplication.

The need for new evaluation is all the more urgent because of signs in recent years that many communities in northern New Jersey have either instituted or plan to institute experiments of their own in separate school facilities, for reasons similar to those that have influenced communities in southern New Jersey. In several of these northern municipalities where there has formerly been no serious complaint of unequal educational facilities for Negroes, these same citizens now report inferior accommodations for their children. The Commission's reports from Bergen County show that 62 per cent of all Negro enrollment and 100 per cent of the Negro teachers are to be found in school buildings with at least 75 per cent Negro enrollment. In this same county there is an average attendance-per-room of 59.7 pupils in these "Negro" schools, as compared with an average attendance-per-room of 27.1 pupils in so-called "white" or "mixed" schools.

Recent moves by the Montclair Board of Education toward segregation of its Negro pupils are a matter of court record. Though legality of the zoning law, by which the Board effected increased separation of white and Negro pupils in 1934, was upheld in the courts, there has never been any attempt to conceal the

fact that racial segregation was the school board's objective - an objective which was at least partially accomplished. During 1938 Negro citizens of Englewood unsuccessfully opposed a decision of the City Council to enlarge the Lincoln School, with an all-Negro attendance, by adding a junior high school department. Proponents of the plan declared that it was a move to reduce congestion in the present junior high school. Negroes, and those who supported them, protested that congestion was to be relieved by establishing an all-Negro junior high school and increasing educational segregation. The plan was adopted over these protests.

Teacher Training

It must be admitted that some encouragement for these moves toward educational segregation comes from within the Negro community itself. As this report has indicated, the natural desire of intelligent young Negroes for employment other than domestic work and laboring jobs has caused some of them to look with favor upon any school system, even a segregated system, which offers them hope of employment as teachers. At present there are approximately 30 Negro teachers employed in the schools of northern New Jersey, whereas the 64 Negro schools reported for the 10 southern counties employ a total of 404 Negro teachers - not including the State Manual Training School at Bordentown. This greater teaching opportunity in Negro schools has not only caused some Negro citizens to look upon their existence with favor, it has also influenced the placement policies of the State teachers colleges, if we judge from expressions by several of their officials. In September, 1938, there were 101 Negro students, 3.1 per cent of the entire enrollment,

in the six State teachers colleges. This figure may be compared with the 9 per cent proportion of Negro pupils in the total school population to gain an idea of the comparative opportunity which Negro teaching applicants have in this State. College heads are inclined to look upon the separate school as the only employment possibility for Negro teachers, and we have no record of any teachers college making active and sustained efforts to find openings for its Negro graduates in communities which do not now employ Negro teachers. On the other hand, it must be said that presumed lack of placement possibilities has evidently not interfered with the admission of Negro students who apply and meet the entrance requirements of teachers colleges.

Strong proof of racial discrimination in a State teachers college was found at Glassboro, where the president of the Glassboro State Teachers College wrote in answer to an inquiry: "The Negro residents of Glassboro seem desirous of having Negro students at the college room and board at their homes, as such an arrangement brings additional income to them. During my administration here, which began in July, 1937, we have followed the procedure of past years in helping our students find suitable homes in town among people of their own race where they can live more economically than at the dormitories."

Further investigation of this situation convinced the Commission that the college administration is not an innocent collaborator as the president's letter attempts to explain. The college has actually barred Negro students from rooming in the dormitories, and has forced them to drive long distances from their homes each

day, or board with local families whose homes are lacking in the privacy and comfort that serious college study requires. Several of the homes "suggested" by the college administration were lighted by kerosene lamps. It should not be necessary for this report to emphasize that here is another situation involving misuse of authority by one of the State's educational officials and calling for action by the State Commissioner of Education.

It is not possible, in the space which this report affords, to discuss at length the numerous examples of dereliction in duty by school officials observed by this Commission; nor is it possible to point out the efforts made by Negro citizens in defense of their educational opportunities. This report is concerned mainly with stressing the part that the school system of the State should play in solving the serious social problems which have been described in preceding pages. Solution of the State's problems of racial relationships will come through development of sound attitudes of American Democracy. The school room is one of the places where such attitudes should be explained and exemplified. This can in no wise be accomplished under a school system which arbitrarily, separates children because of race and - as in the Mount Holly case - creates racial tension between them and throws them into racial conflict.

Vocational Training

Vocational training policies as they are applied to Negro pupils deserve special mention in this report because of their importance in an employment program. It has already been pointed out that one of the barriers to skilled employment of Negroes is

their frequent lack of training. The racial attitudes of most craft unions make it impossible for Negroes to secure training through apprenticeships in the larger cities; the influence of unions in school systems frequently makes it difficult for Negroes to obtain their training in vocational schools.

The vocational program of the Elizabeth public schools is described here because it is typical of a large number of cities. Of the 526 students enrolled at the Thomas Edison Vocational school, only six are Negroes. School officials explained the small enrollment on the following grounds:

An advisory board, composed of a labor representative and other leading white citizens, formulates the vocational program of the city's schools. Labor representation has encouraged a policy of permitting the enrollment of students in the vocational division only where there are employment possibilities for them upon completion of their course. The advisory board has decided that most industrial companies do not employ Negroes; therefore, their admission to vocational courses should be confined to trades capable of independent management, so that they can open their own businesses upon graduation.

No effort is made by school guidance and placement counselors to influence employers' attitudes regarding employment of Negroes. The trade unions of Elizabeth and Union County are reported to bar or discourage Negro membership. Negro leadership in the community has not attacked the trade union barriers, nor the prejudices of employers, nor the attitude of the advisory board on vocational training.

Here we have the perfect example of a vicious circle. Negroes may not get jobs because they are untrained; they may not receive training because they have difficulty in getting jobs. Unions will not accept them because they have not mastered apprenticeship courses; they may not receive apprenticeship training because of union opposition.

The obvious and natural way of breaking this vicious circle is to emphasize vocational training of Negroes and to redouble efforts to find employment for them in industry. Ironically enough, efforts along this line seem to be made by only four of the 22 vocational schools in the State - two of them maintained for Negro pupils only and staffed entirely by Negro teachers. The largest of these is the State Manual Training School at Bordentown, New Jersey; out of the 816 Negro students enrolled in New Jersey's vocational schools, more than half (436) are in the Bordentown School. One hundred sixty-two others are enrolled in the Indiana Avenue Girls' Vocational School of Atlantic City, a separate school, and the Boys' Vocational School of the same city, attended by both white and Negro boys.

A Bordentown School report on 48 of its 55 graduates of June, 1938, shows that 35, or 72.9 per cent of the 48, were employed in regular jobs in January, 1939. A remaining 12 were continuing in school and the one graduate who was unemployed was nursing an ill parent. More than forty per cent of the graduates were placed in the trade for which they were trained. These figures, indicate quite different possibilities than those reported by vocational schools of northern New Jersey, where the bulk of Negroes live and where vocational school enrollment is very slight. The presence of Bordentown graduates over a ten-year period in 26 different occupations indicates a wider occupational choice than that which is usually prophesied for them by white guidance counselors and vocational school heads. The proportion of Bordentown's 1938 graduates who are now employed shows what is possible when

an active placement program is carried out for Negro pupils, and encouragement is given to them rather than active or passive discouragement. If these results are possible in a segregated school system, they are all the more possible in communities where Negroes have the benefit of free participation in educational facilities. It remains, then, for schools in these communities to insure that sympathetic guidance and intelligent placement for Negro pupils be made part of a soundly-planned vocational program.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The foregoing pages of this report have been devoted to an attempt by the Commission to describe in rough outline what are the major problems that face the Negro citizens of New Jersey, and how far these problems constitute a failure of democracy in New Jersey. Emphasis has been placed upon the way in which the welfare of the Negro population affects the general welfare for better or worse, and recommendations have been made for legislative or departmental action to improve conditions which are dangerous and unjust. It remains for the members of the Legislature and for citizens of the State to decide on the soundness of these recommendations, or to propose alternative ways of attacking problems which can no longer be ignored with safety to the State.

No statement of opinion has been made without careful reference to the facts in question, and no facts have been presented for which the Commission has not found convincing authority. Several situations presented in the report have actually been played down in order not to impair their credibility. In pursuing its inquiry the Commission has been aware of the fact that many problems suffered by Negroes are inherent in the general economic problems that face the State as a whole; attention has therefore been centered on special problems which grow out of the Negro population's status as a disadvantaged minority.

Little space has been given to the high incidence of delinquency among the Negro population and the high proportion of Negro commitments to State correctional and penal institutions. The reason for this omission is easily explained. Crime and delinquency are a result of social problems, rather than their cause. The fact that Negroes constitute 41 per cent of juvenile delinquents

under care in 1938 is merely a reflection of the fact that they constituted 26 per cent of relief cases in 1937, and that their average family income last year was \$880. Rather than discuss these delinquency rates, it is more important to discuss means of reducing them.

One need has been continually revealed to the Commission throughout the five months of its study - the need for more effective partnership of Negroes in community programs for their benefit. Negroes are needed on school boards and as administrative officials to attack some of the perplexing racial questions facing many school communities, but in only two important cities of the State, we are informed, have Negroes ever been appointed to school boards, and in none to an executive post higher than that of supervising principal of colored schools. No Negro is member of a board or advisory committee of any of the State's institutions or agencies, notwithstanding the fact that Negro commitments to these institutions run to impressively high proportions and totals. State Departments of Health and Public Instruction, the Unemployment Compensation Commission, the Board of Tenement House Supervision, the State Housing Authority, the Civil Service Commission - all of these are departments which are closely concerned with the most pressing problems of Negro citizens; no Negro, however, in the history of the state has served on one of these boards, and municipalities have, almost without exception, followed the state's example.

The amount and method of increase in the Negro population have been subjects for discussion by numerous groups of citizens, and the Commission has been impressed by the inaccuracy of many reports which have had wide-spread circulation. For instance,

many citizens have become concerned over reports that large numbers of Negroes were coming to New Jersey from southern states for the purpose of getting on relief. Figures gathered by the State Financial Assistance Commission, and quoted in the opening of this report, effectively disprove that belief. Between the beginning of 1935 and the end of 1937, the Negro relief total saw smaller increase than did the white; 53.8 per cent of white cases known to relief agencies and only 43.2 per cent of the Negro cases were opened during those three years. As has been stated, less than 10 per cent of total relief cases of either Negroes or whites in 1937 had been in this State for less than five years.

There is strong indication that the Negro population has increased considerably since 1930. If the reports of school attendance gathered from county and city superintendents are complete and accurate, Negro pupils constitute nine per cent of the school population, and that percentage should approximate the proportion of Negro families in the present total population. This is a considerably higher proportion than existed in the 1930 Census estimate of 5.2 per cent.

If such an increase has taken place, it should accentuate rather than diminish the anxiety of enlightened citizens to take action in solving these problems. State-to-state migration in this country has been a historical accompaniment of periods of economic unrest. It is a national duplication of the tremendous immigration to these shores from foreign countries which New Jersey, with other states, experienced up to the past decade. If the 20.9 per cent of New Jersey's foreign-born citizens have made happier adjustment to the local scene than her 5.2 per cent of

Negro citizens, it is because these latter have met with more formidable obstacles in their attempt to become integral elements in the community pattern. A recent statement by Mr. Chester I. Barnard, president of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, an officer of the Prudential Life Insurance Company, the L. Bamberger Company, and numerous other important financial organizations emphasizes this point. Mr. Barnard said, "My belief is that the economic difficulties past and present lie chiefly in the unequal distribution of the opportunities for productive employment, and that the correction of these difficulties requires direct attack at that fundamental point as a social rather than an economic process".

The Commission has confined its study to five of the major areas of social problems affecting the Negro population - employment, housing, health, education, and insurance. In respect to these problems the Commission presents the following findings:

1. Negroes are generally restricted in private employment to unskilled and semi-skilled occupations regardless of their ability or desire to do other work
2. Because of this restriction the income of Negro workers has been especially hard hit by unemployment and loss of income
3. Because of a severe rate of unemployment and long confinement to low-paid jobs, Negro families generally suffer from extremely low incomes
4. In addition to the burden of low income, residential segregation imposes additional suffering upon the Negro population
5. Low income and poor housing conditions together with restriction of opportunity and blighting of ambition combine to produce in Negro neighborhoods a high rate of ill health, delinquency, and crime

6. The attempts of Negro families to train their children properly are hampered by unequal educational opportunities especially manifested in many of the separate schools established for Negroes in southern counties and several northern municipalities of the State
7. Attempts of Negro family heads to provide security for their families in event of death, illness, or accident are made more difficult by discriminatory policies practiced against Negroes by insurance companies
8. Efforts of the Negro community to maintain proper standards of health meet with inadequate support from public and private health agencies
9. Equal opportunity in civil service employment, in W.P.A. work, and in non-competitive State, county, and municipal employment is denied to Negro workers

To meet with legislative and departmental action the conditions cited above, the Commission has made the following recommendations:

1. Amendment of the Civil Service Law to provide against discrimination based on race in the appointment or promotion of eligibles in the competitive class of Civil Service
2. Further amendment to prohibit discrimination because of race in the labor class of public employment
3. Amendment of the insurance laws to prohibit discrimination on account of race in the issuing of life insurance
4. Further amendment of the insurance laws to prohibit discrimination because of race in liability insurance against damage due to automobile accident
5. Proposals for provisions to be included in a State Labor Relations Act so as to deny the protection of that Act to any union refusing to admit workers to membership on account of race or religion
6. Proposals for study by the Legislature of regulations providing for a merit system to be instituted as part of the employment practices of public utilities
7. Recommendations to State and municipal housing officials that instant steps be taken to provide immediately for low-cost housing facilities for Negro families

8. Recommendations to health officials looking toward the increase of opportunities for the training of Negro physicians, nurses, and public health workers to attack the health problems of the Negro community
9. Recommendations to the State Department of Public Instruction calling for an investigation of discriminatory practices suffered by Negro school children in public schools of the State
10. General recommendations calling for the appointment of Negroes to State and local boards such as health, education, housing, and relief to provide the benefit of Negro participation in problems most closely affecting the welfare of the Negro population

Though this report has been prepared under legislative authorization and is addressed to the members of the Legislature, the Commission hopes that its findings and recommendations will be widely read and accepted by the general public as a challenge. Action open to the Legislature must be through the medium of laws, and laws can never be completely effective until they become an expression of the public will. It is the general public of New Jersey, white and Negro, that stands to gain or lose in solving or ignoring these problems of community relationships. Nearly every American citizen is a member of some minority, whether that minority be racial, religious, national, or economic. What attacks the interests of the Negro minority is an attack on the integrity of democratic government, and therefore on the safety of any citizen whose minority membership might some day be unpopular. To the Legislature of the State of New Jersey, therefore, and through the Legislature to the citizens of the State, the Commission presents this report which, because of limitations of time and funds, is definitely circumscribed in its coverage, and recommends favorable action thereon.

A P P E N D I X

Growth of the Total Population of New Jersey

1900 - 1930

Year	Total Population	Increase	
		Number	Per cent
1930	4,041,334	885,434	28.1
1920	3,155,900	618,733	24.4
1910	2,537,167	653,498	34.7
1900	1,883,669	438,736	30.1
1890	1,444,933		

Growth of Negro Population in New Jersey, 1900 - 1930

Year	Number	Increase Over Preceding Ten Year Period	
		Number	Per cent
1930	208,828	91,696	78.3
1920	117,132	27,372	30.5
1910	89,760	19,916	28.5
1900	69,844	22,206	46.6

Negroes in the U. S., 1920 - 1932 - Bureau of Census (pp.9-10)

Nativity of the White and Negro Population in New Jersey Cities of 50,000 or more, having a
Negro Population of 5,000 or more, showing Ratios according to Place of Birth. ← 1910 - 1930

	Born in N. J., % of Total						Born in Other States, % of Total						Foreign Born, % of Total					
	1930		1920		1910		1930		1920		1910		1930		1920		1910	
	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White
Atlantic City	19.9	28.6	17.6	32.9		34.3	76.2	55.2	77.7	51.8		50.5	3.3	15.8	4.1	14.8		14.7
Camden	35.7	50.5	36.3	49.7	41.8	50.5	63.2	33.5	62.6	32.6	57.0	32.6	.6	15.8	.6	17.5	.7	16.7
Jersey City	25.1	56.5	23.4	53.2	25.2	49.1	72.7	20.9	73.1	21.0	71.8	21.6	1.7	22.3	3.0	25.6	2.6	29.1
Newark	24.5	51.9	28.8	54.6	41.5	52.8	73.3	21.4	68.9	16.7	56.3	14.9	1.2	26.3	1.8	28.4	1.6	31.9
Trenton	32.0	59.6		59.6		58.1	66.0	18.2		15.1		14.4	1.0	21.8		25.3		27.2

Negroes in the U. S., 1920 - 1932, Bureau of Census (p. 32)
Fifteenth Census of the U. S., 1930, (Table 35, p. 199)

Migration of Native Population to New Jersey from the South, 1900-1930

Year	Born in South		Increase (+) or Decrease (-)			
	Negro	White	Negro		White	
			No.	%	No.	%
1930	121,992	70,868	+62,654	+105.6	+ 33,954	+ 92.0
1920	59,338	36,914	+18,351	+ 44.8	-36,381	-49.6
1910	40,987	73,295	+11,496	+38.9	+ 23,310	+46.6
1900	29,491	49,985				

Negro Population in U. S., 1790-1915, Bureau of Census, p. 68

Negro Population in U. S., 1920-1932, Bureau of Census, p. 25

Thirteenth Census of the U. S., 1910, Vol. III, Table 4, p. 133

Fourteenth Census of the U. S., 1920, Vol. II, Table 20, p. 641

Fifteenth Census of the U. S., 1930, Vol. II, Table 22, p. 158

Migration of Native White and Negro Population, by States, to and from New Jersey - 1930

Negro				White				State	Negro				White			
Born In		Living In		Born In		Living In			Living In		Born In		Living In		Born In	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
80,937	100	64,352	79.5	2,460,998	100	2,062,040	83.8	N.J.	203,536	100	64,352	31.6	2,971,482	100	2,062,040	69.4
		6,354	7.9			157,298	6.4	Va.			36,635	18.0			11,354	.4
		4,940	6.1			87,217	3.5	Ga.			22,380	11.0			3,559	.1
		5,291	6.5			154,443	6.3	*O.S.			80,169	39.4			894,529	30.1

er States

es in the United States, 1920 - 1932 - Bureau of Census (pp. 40 and 44), Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930 - Bureau
 ensus (Table 22, pp. 158 - 159)

Total and Negro Population

By Counties

New Jersey

1930

County	Total Population	Negro Population	Per Cent Negro in Total Population
New Jersey(State)	4,041,334	208,828	5.2
Atlantic	124,823	19,703	15.8
Bergen	364,977	8,872	2.4
Burlington	93,541	6,762	7.2
Camden	252,312	16,813	6.7
Cape May	29,486	2,782	9.4
Cumberland	69,895	4,748	6.8
Essex	833,513	60,236	7.2
Gloucester	70,802	6,077	8.6
Hudson	690,730	15,970	2.3
Hunterdon	34,728	407	1.2
Mercer	187,143	11,949	6.4
Middlesex	212,208	5,895	2.8
Monmouth	147,209	13,897	9.4
Morris	110,445	3,269	3.0
Ocean	33,069	1,258	3.8
Passaic	302,129	5,518	1.8
Salem	36,834	4,763	12.9
Somerset	65,132	1,628	2.5
Sussex	27,830	119	0.4
Union	305,209	17,859	5.9
Warren	49,319	303	0.6

Negro Population of New Jersey Cities

City	Total Population	Negro Population	Per Cent of Total
NEW JERSEY (State)		208,828	5.2
Asbury Park	14,981	3,567	23.7
Atlantic City	66,198	15,611	23.6
Bridgeton	15,699	1,526	9.7
Burlington	10,844	1,408	12.9
Camden	118,700	11,340	9.6
Elizabeth	114,589	4,761	4.2
Hackensack	24,568	2,520	10.3
Jersey City	316,715	12,575	4.0
Lawnside	1,379	1,224	88.8
Newark	442,337	38,880	8.8
New Brunswick	34,555	2,086	6.0
Paterson	138,513	2,592	2.1
Plainfield	34,422	3,648	10.6
Trenton	123,356	8,057	6.5
Woodbury	8,172	951	11.6

Negroes in the U. S. 1920 - 1932, U. S. Bureau of the Census

Births, Deaths, and Infant Mortality among Whites in Selected Cities of New Jersey 1933 - 1937*

	1933			1934			1935			1936			1937		
	Deaths Rate	Births Rate	Infant Mortal- ity Rate	Deaths Rate	Births Rate	Infant Mortal- ity Rate	Deaths Rate	Births Rate	Infant Mortal- ity Rate	Deaths Rate	Births Rate	Infant Mortal- ity Rate	Deaths Rate	Births Rate	Infant Mortal- ity Rate
Asbury Park	14.7	11.7	22.6	14.1	11.0	64.0	13.1	11.0	39.7	13.1	11.3	15.5	13.0	12.1	14.5
Atlantic City	13.3	11.2	42.3	13.9	10.8	89.7	14.3	10.9	41.7	13.6	11.5	34.4	13.5	11.8	36.8
Bridgeton	12.0	75.5	50.0	16.9	17.3	106.1	14.3	14.5	58.5	14.5	15.5	40.9	14.0	14.3	34.7
Burlington	13.8	14.9	63.8	13.0	14.4	58.8	11.4	17.2	30.9	10.5	16.6	38.2	14.9	18.3	57.8
Camden	10.6	13.9	59.0	11.1	14.2	53.7	11.1	13.8	65.7	11.2	13.9	45.5	12.1	14.1	49.4
Elizabeth	9.5	13.4	38.7	9.7	12.6	30.3	8.7	12.8	39.2	9.7	12.5	37.9	10.5	13.1	38.3
Hackensack	10.2	11.6	35.3	9.0	12.3	25.9	10.5	13.5	57.2	12.0	13.3	65.1	11.2	14.1	29.0
Jersey City	11.3	14.3	46.9	10.7	13.8	53.4	10.7	13.2	43.5	10.7	13.0	40.9	10.9	13.3	34.6

* 1930 population figures used to compute death and birth rates

(Cont'd)

Births, Deaths, and Infant Mortality among Whites in Selected Cities of New Jersey 1933 - 1937*

	1933			1934			1935			1936			1937		
	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Infant Mortality Rate	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Infant Mortality Rate	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Infant Mortality Rate	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Infant Mortality Rate	Death Rate	Birth Rate	Infant Mortality Rate
Newark	10.4	13.9	42.5	10.1	13.1	44.0	10.3	13.2	50.4	10.8	12.4	41.7	11.2	13.0	36.6
New Brunswick	10.6	13.2	37.5	10.1	14.0	41.8	10.8	13.0	49.6	11.6	12.1	43.4	11.0	12.7	21.8
Paterson	10.7	13.3	44.4	10.6	12.9	45.3	10.6	12.2	42.9	11.2	12.3	43.7	11.3	11.9	44.1
Plainfield	11.4	13.7	28.4	11.8	14.0	46.6	11.3	12.6	20.6	10.5	13.0	32.6	11.8	14.2	27.4
Trenton	10.6	13.7	46.3	10.8	12.9	63.1	11.2	12.5	50.1	11.0	12.7	53.3	10.6	12.4	42.8
Woodbury		12.6	87.9		11.6	83.3		12.3	33.7		13.3	31.3		13.7	20.2

* 1930 population figures used to compute death and birth rates

Births, Deaths, and Infant Mortality among Negroes

in Selected Cities of New Jersey

1933 - 1937*

	1933					1934					1935					1936					1937		
	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor- tality	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor- tality	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor- tality	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor- tality	Births		Infant Mor- tality
	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate
New Jersey	f		f		76.7	f		f		93.7	f		f		77.4	f		f		79.5	f		f
Asbury Park	74	20.7	45	12.6	44.4	61	17.1	46	12.9	108.7	75	21.0	61	17.1	65.6	70	19.6	51	14.3	78.4	53	14.9	18.9
Atlantic City	310	19.9	263	16.8	91.3	318	20.4	236	15.1	80.5	299	19.2	232	14.9	77.6	323	20.7	237	15.2	63.3	215	13.8	79.1
Bridgeton	32	21.1	26	17.0	38.5	29	19.0	41	26.9	146.3	25	16.4	42	27.5	119.0	37	24.2	44	28.8	90.9	43	28.2	23.3
Burlington	16	11.4	23	16.3	f	27	19.2	22	15.6	272.7	14	9.9	30	21.3	f	22	15.6	26	18.5	230.8	31	22.0	64.5
Camden	205	18.1	244	21.5	94.3	215	19.0	247	21.8	137.7	217	19.1	250	22.0	92.0	222	19.6	270	23.8	81.5	254	22.4	70.9
Elizabeth	77	16.2	139	29.2	100.7	73	15.3	115	24.2	87.0	63	13.2	116	24.4	43.1	69	14.5	99	20.8	101.0	101	21.2	79.2
Hackensack	44	17.5	55	21.8	72.7	34	13.5	78	31.0	64.1	41	16.2	69	27.4	72.5	29	11.5	56	22.2	53.6	65	25.8	30.8
Jersey City	210	16.7	290	23.1	58.6	220	17.5	276	21.9	83.3	208	16.5	254	20.2	90.6	208	16.5	300	23.9	50.0	278	22.1	43.2
Lawnside	f		17	13.9	f	f		29	23.7	f	f		24	19.6	f	f		34	27.8	f	30	24.5	f

* Birth and Death rates for all municipalities, excepting Newark, are computed on the basis of 1930 population figures

l Data on deaths not available

f Data not available

Births, Deaths, and Infant Mortality among Negroes

in Selected Cities of New Jersey

1933 - 1937*

	1933					1934					1935					1936					1937 ¹		
	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor-tality	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor-tality	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor-tality	Deaths		Births		Infant Mor-tality	Births		Infant Mor-tality
	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate	No.	Rate	Rate
Newark	726	18.1	928	22.8	91.1	674	16.9	880	22.0	94.3	693	17.3	873	21.8	84.8	789	18.8	883	21.0	89.5	846	19.7	f
New Brunswick	41	19.7	45	21.6	88.9	28	13.4	56	26.8	35.7	91	43.6	46	22.1	152.2	93	44.6	36	17.3	111.1	47	22.5	63.8
Paterson	68	26.2	87	33.6	126.4	57	22.0	89	34.3	89.9	f		79	30.5	25.3	57	22.0	81	31.3	74.1	75	28.9	80.0
Plainfield	45	12.3	85	23.3	35.3	49	13.4	78	21.4	64.1	f		71	19.5	42.3	70	19.2	79	21.7	88.6	75	20.6	66.7
Trenton	118	14.6	189	23.5	111.1	113	14.0	138	23.3	58.5	f		184	22.8	119.6	112	13.9	149	18.5	67.1	68	20.9	73.4
Woodbury	f		20	21.0	f	f		23	24.2	43.5	f		21	22.1	47.6	f		30	31.5	33.3	16	16.8	62.5

* Birth and Death rates for all municipalities, excepting Newark, are computed on the basis of 1930 population figures

¹ Data on deaths not available

f Data not available

Source: Fifty-sixth, Fifty-seventh, Fifty-eighth, Fifty-ninth, and Sixtieth Annual Reports of the Dep't of Health of the State of New Jersey and Health Reports for the City of Newark for 1930 - 1937

Death Rates from Five Leading Causes, per 100,000 Total Population, of Whites in
New Jersey with Comparable Rates from Same Causes for the Negro Population
1932 - 1936

	1932		1933		1934		1935		1936	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Diseases of the Heart	229.0	278.7	257.4	322.3	284.0	318.0	284.3	300.3	300.1	329.9
Cancer and other Malignant Tumors	114.2	90.8	117.2	88.5	124.6	96.5	125.2	98.9	129.1	97.2
Nephritis	89.2	129.2	81.5	118.3	80.8	122.5	78.1	95.8	73.3	115.0
Cerebral Hemorrhage, Cerebral Embolism and Thrombosis	76.8	98.4	78.8	97.0	79.8	99.8	74.8	95.8	80.0	93.7
Violent and Accidental Deaths (excepting suicide and homicide)					63.4	92.7	61.2	79.9	63.6	92.1
The Pneumonias			64.1	164.2						
Other Diseases	139.6	238.0								

Fifty-sixth, Fifty-seventh, Fifty-eighth, Fifty-ninth, and Sixtieth
Annual Reports of the Dep't. of Health of the State of New Jersey
(Table XV)

Death Rates from Five Leading Causes, per 100,000 Total Population of Negroes in
New Jersey with Comparable Rates from Same Causes for the White Population
1932 - 1936

	1932		1933		1934		1935		1936	
	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White
Diseases of the Heart	278.7	229.0	322.3	257.4	318.0	284.0	300.3	284.3	329.9	300.1
Tuberculosis of the Respiratory System	228.1	45.4	204.4	42.1	203.5	40.0	165.6	38.1	190.9	37.3
The Pneumonias	167.0	63.9	164.2	64.1	175.6	60.4	150.1	58.4	149.5	63.1
Nephritis	129.2	89.2	118.3	81.5	122.5	80.8	95.8	78.1	115.0	73.3
Cancer and Other Malignant Tumors							98.9	125.2	97.2	129.1
Cerebral Hemorrhage, Cerebral Embolism, and Thrombosis			97.0	78.8	99.8	79.8	95.8	74.8		
Other Diseases	238.0	139.6								

Fifty-sixth, Fifty-seventh, Fifty-eighth, Fifty-ninth, and Sixtieth
Annual Reports of the Dep't. of Health of the State of New Jersey (Table Xv)

Total and Negro Urban Public School Enrollment

for

Forty-two Municipalities in the State of New Jersey

	Total		Elementary		Secondary		Vocational		Other	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	336,102	100.0	213,554	100.0	116,125	100.0	2,092	100.0	4,331	100.0
Negro	30,815	9.2	23,175	10.9	6,637	5.7	229	10.9	774	17.9

Total and Negro Percentage Distribution of Urban

Public School

Enrollment for Forty-two Municipalities in the State of New Jersey

	Total	Elementary	Secondary	Vocational	Other
Total	100.0	63.5	34.6	.6	1.3
Negro	100.0	75.2	21.5	.8	2.5

Number of Negro Teachers and Negro Pupils in all City Schools
and the Number of Negro Teachers and Negro Pupils in City Schools in which
Seventy - five Per Cent or more of the Pupils are of the Negro Race,
in the State of New Jersey

City	No. of "Negro" Schools	N e g r o			
		E n r o l l m e n t		F a c u l t y	
		Total	In "Negro" Schools	Total	In "Negro" Schools
Trenton	2	1,569	1,252	38	38
Newark	2	10,947	2,105	8	3
Atlantic City	4	2,939	2,458	83	83
Woodbury	1	198	198	8	8
Englewood	1	486	*	0	0
Cape May	1	70	70	4	4
Bordentown	1	114	114	4	4
Wildwood	1	91	91	4	4
Long Branch	1	84	*	5	5
Hackensack	1	585	285	3	3
Salem	1	255	221	9	8
Asbury Park	1	627	626	19	19

*Data not available

Number of Pupils per Room in all City Schools
and the Number per Room in Schools in which over
Seventy-five Per Cent of the Pupils are of the
Negro Race, in the State of New Jersey

City	Pupils per Room in all Schools	Pupils per Room in "Negro" Schools
Trenton	39.2	48.2
Newark	*	*
Atlantic City	*	30.3
Woodbury	29.8	24.7
Englewood	27.5	*
Cape May	22.0	17.5
Bordentown	34.9	28.5
Wildwood	*	22.8
Long Branch	*	*
Hackensack	*	23.8
Salem	23.9	27.6
Asbury Park	33.4	39.1

* Data not available

Faculty Members and Enrollment of County
 Schools in New Jersey showing the
 Number and Per Cent of Negroes in each Group

	T o t a l		N e g r o	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Faculty	29,179	100.0	322	1.1
Enrollment	566,424	100.0	44,816	7.9

Number of Negro Teachers and Negro Pupils in County Schools of
New Jersey in which Seventy - five Per Cent or more of the Pupils
are of the Negro Race along with the Number of Pupils per Room
in these schools as compared with the Number per Room in all
County Schools

County	No. Negro Schools	N e g r o				P u p i l s per Room	
		T e a c h e r s		P u p i l s		In all County Schools	In "Negro" County Schools
		Total	In Negro Schools	Total	In Negro Schools		
Burlington	12	40	40	1,727	1,212	32.5	30.3
Salem	8	22	22	417	*		
Ocean	1	3	3	232	67	29.5	22.3
Monmouth	5	40	40	*	*		
Gloucester	9	33	33	1,918	1,076	29.1	32.6
Cumberland	3	6	6	1,445	233	34.2	38.8
Cape May	5	14	14	699	317	28.5	22.6
Mercer	4	52	52	3,074	1,683	34.7	42.1
Bergen	2	3	3	2,379	1,493	27.1	59.7
Atlantic	4	89	83	3,845	2,470	28.7	31.3
Union	1	1	0	4,962	159	33.7	22.7
Totals	54	303	296	19,698	8,710		

*Data not available

f DATA for CITY Schools INCLUDED

f CAMDEN	13	105	105	4,458	3,337	32.9	32.7
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Teachers and Pupils in Vocational Schools of New Jersey

Showing the Number of Negro Teachers and Pupils

	No. of Teachers		No. of Pupils	
	Total	Negro	Total	Negro
I. Middlesex Co. Voc. Schools	38	0	881	7
1. Boys, New Brunswick				
2. Boys, Perth Amboy				
3. Girls, South River				
II. Elizabeth City Voc. Schools	37	0	637	14
4. Thos. A. Edison for Boys				
5. Thos. A. Edison for Girls				
III. Jersey City Voc. Schools	24	0	407	31
6. J. C. Voc. School				
7. El. Voc. Dep't. - P. S. #24				
8. El. Voc. Dep't. - P. S. #25				
9. El. Voc. Dep't.				
IV. Atlantic City Voc. Schools	42	8	650	162
10. Boys' Voc. Sch.				
11. Monterey Ave. Girls' Voc.				
12. Indiana Ave. Girls' Voc. (Negro)				
V. Essex County Voc. Schools	100	1	2,582	145
13. Essex Co. Boys' Voc. Sch., Newark				
14. Essex Co. Boys' Voc. Sch., Bloomfield				
15. Essex Co. Boys' Voc. Sch., Irvington				
16. Essex Co. Girls' Voc. Sch., Newark				
VI. Passaic County Voc. Schools	17	0	442	0
17. Passaic Day Voc. Sch.				
18. Passaic Evening Voc. Sch.				
VII. 19. Camden Co. Voc. School	28	0	553	18
VIII. 20. Bordentown Manual Tr. and Ind. Sch. (Negro)	34	34	436	436
IX. 21. Hudson Co. Voc. Sch.	43	0	808	3
X. 22. Paterson Voc. Sch.-Edison	14	0	350	0

Faculty, Enrollment, and Graduates of Twenty-two New Jersey Vocational Schools
showing the Total Number and the Number of Negroes, in all Schools and those in
which Seventy-five Per Cent or more of the Pupils are of the Negro Race, 1938

Total	Negro	Negro Per cent of Total	Number	Negro in Negro Schools		Negro in Other Schools			
				Per cent of Total Negro	Per cent Total	Number	Per cent of Total Negro	Per cent of Total	
Number of Teachers	377	43	11.4	42	97.7	11.1	1	2.3	.3
Number of Students	7,746	816	10.5	598	73.3	7.7	218	26.7	2.8
Number of Graduates	1,439	103	7.2	59	57.3	4.1	44	42.7	3.1

Job and Apprenticeship Placements made by New Jersey
Vocational Schools Showing the Ratio of Placements
for White and Negro Pupils, 1937

	Total		White		Negro	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Job Placements	883	100.0	800	90.6	83	9.4
Apprenticeship Placements	128	100.0	115	89.8	13	10.2

Number and Per Cent of Graduates Placed by New Jersey State Teacher's Colleges
from 1934 to 1938 showing the Number and Per Cent of Negro Graduates Placed

	Glassboro				Jersey City				Montclair				Newark				Paterson ¹				Trenton			
P l a c e m e n t s																								
	Total		Negro		Total		Negro		Total		Negro		Total		Negro		Total		Negro		Total		Negro	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1934	F.		5	41.7	42	38.2	0		F.		0		213	11.0	1	25.0	100	87.0			205	87.2	2	100.0
1935	F.		6	150.0	60	38.5	0		F.		0		306	124.9	3	300.0	93	83.8			210	92.2	1	50.0
1936	F.		4	100.0	97	76.4	1	20.0	F.		0		206	106.7	3	150.0	66	82.5			187	93.0	2	40.0
1937	66	78.6	6	85.7	112	120.4	0		F.		0		188	122.1	2	66.7	46	97.9			160	89.4	1	33.3
1938	55	392.9	4		75	937.5	0		F.	72.0	0		F.		F.		3	60.0			118	78.7	1	50.0
Total	121	123.5	25	92.6*	386	78.1	1	10.0	F.	72.0	0		913	110.5	9	90.0	308	86.0			991	88.9	7	50.0

*Ten Placements outside the State included.

1- No Negro grads. since 1933 when 1 Negro student graduated.

F.- Not ascertainable.

Occupations of Gainful Negro Workers in New Jersey - 1930

	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	% Gain. Empld.	No.	%	No.	%
All Occupations	107,114	100.0	68,487	100.0	38,627	100.0
Agriculture	5,292	4.9	5,143	7.5	149	.4
Domestic & Personal Service	61,986	57.9	34,014	49.7	27,972	72.4
Mfg. & Mechanical Industry	4,576	4.3	4,136	6.0	440	1.1
Trans. and Communication	1,782	1.7	1,782	2.6	—	—
Trade	3,102	2.9	2,907	4.2	195	.5
Professional Service	2,093	1.9	1,544	2.3	549	1.4
Public Service	1,482	1.4	1,482	2.2	—	—
Clerical Occupations	1,026	.9	904	1.3	122	.3
Forestry and Fishing	75	.1	75	.1	—	—
Other Occupations	25,700	24.0	16,500	24.1	9,200	23.8

Negroes in the U. S., 1920 - 1932, Bureau of Census (p. 307)

Employment in New Jersey State Departments by Occupational
Classification Showing the Number and Per Cent of Negro Employees

1 9 3 8

	Total	Negro
Number	5,588	192
Per cent	100.0	3.4

Classification of Negro Employees

	1
Executive and Managerial	4
	2
Professional and Sub-Professional	47
Clerical	14
Skilled Manual	12
Unskilled and Semi-skilled Manual	115
Total Negro	192

1 - Two at institution which has an entire Negro personnel

2 - Thirty-four at institution with entire Negro personnel

Total and Negro Employment by Counties
for the State of New Jersey 1938

County		Total	Negro
Atlantic			
Bergen	c	790	30
Burlington	c	287	23
Camden	s	817	
Cape May	p		
Cumberland	p		
Essex	c	2,139	55
Gloucester			
Hudson	s	2,340	
Hunterdon	c	90	
Mercer	p	327	2
Middlesex	s	647	
Monmouth	p		23
Morris	s	272	
Ocean	s	433	
Passaic	s	668	
Salem			
Somerset	c	114	3
Sussex			
Union	c	706	26
Warren	c	35	

c - complete returns

p - partial returns

s - data from Civil Service Report, 1937-1938

Municipal Employment in Selected New Jersey Cities
showing the Number and Per Cent of Negro Employees
and the Ratio of Negro to Total Population

	Municipal Employees			Negro Percentage in the Total Population
	Total	N e g r o		
		Number	Per Cent	
Asbury Park	242	39	16.1	23.7
Atlantic City	760	112	14.7	23.6
Bridgeton	71 ¹	f	f	9.7
Burlington	f	0		12.9
Camden	898	113	12.6	9.6
Elizabeth	755	9	1.2	4.2
Hackensack	212	16	7.5	10.3
Jersey City	3,636	5 *		4.0
Newark	6,037	116	1.9	8.8
New Brunswick	270	4	1.5	6.0
Paterson	2,033	11	.5	2.1
Trenton	1,191	41	3.4	6.5

1 - Municipal Yearbook, 1937
f - Not ascertainable
* - Incomplete returns

Municipal Employment in Six New Jersey Cities by Occupational
Classification showing the Number and Per Cent of Negro Employees 1938

Municipality	Total			Executive and Managerial			Professional			Clerical			Skilled			Unskilled and Semi-Skilled		
				Total	Negro		Total	Negro		Total	Negro		Total	Negro		Total	Negro	
		No.	%															
Asbury Park	242	39	16.1	26	0	-	16	1	6.3	14	0	-	100	5	5.0	86	33	38.4
Atlantic City	760	112	14.7	29	0	-	47	6	12.8	80	2	2.5	510	61	11.9	94	43	45.7
Camden	898	113	12.6	34	0	-	93	6	6.5	116	2	1.7	386	18	4.7	269	87	32.7
Elizabeth	755	9	1.2	22	0	-	78	4	5.1	39	0	-	365	2	.5	251	3	1.2
Hackensack	212	16	7.5	6	0	-	12	0	-	18	0	-	109	4	3.7	67	12	17.9
Trenton	1,191	41	3.4	21	0	-	114	0	-	104	0	-	548	3	.5	404	38	9.4
Totals	4,058	330	8.1	138	0	-	360	17	4.7	371	4	1.1	2,018	93	4.6	1,171	216	18.4

Applications and Placements by Race and Sex of the

New Jersey State Employment Service

July 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938

	Total						White						Negro					
	Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
White Collar, App. ¹	37,096	100.0	21,533	58.0	15,563	42.0	36,205	97.6	21,026	56.7	15,179	40.9	891	2.4	507	1.4	384	1.0
White Collar, Pl. ²	4,370	100.0	1,870	42.8	2,500	57.2	4,361	99.8	1,865	42.7	2,496	57.1	9	.2	5	.1	4	.1
Domestic Service, App.	21,756	100.0	7,347	33.8	14,409	66.2	14,274	65.6	5,372	24.7	8,902	40.9	7,482	34.4	1,975	9.1	5,507	25.3
Domestic Service, Pl.	24,553	100.0	3,365	13.7	21,188	86.3	14,482	59.0	2,692	11.0	11,790	48.0	10,071	41.0	673	2.7	9,398	38.3
Labor, App.	84,261	100.0	70,493	83.7	13,768	16.3	76,740	91.1	63,730	75.6	13,010	15.5	7,521	8.9	6,763	8.0	758	.9
Labor, Pl.	10,336	100.0	8,113	78.5	2,223	21.5	9,673	93.6	7,596	73.5	2,077	20.1	663	6.4	517	5.0	146	1.4
Skilled, App.	30,119	100.0	28,072	93.2	2,047	6.8	29,173	96.9	27,233	90.4	1,940	6.4	946	3.1	839	2.8	107	.4
Skilled, Pl.	2,719	100.0	2,490	91.6	229	8.4	2,667	98.1	2,462	90.6	205	7.5	52	1.9	28	1.0	24	.9
Semi-skilled, App.	27,670	100.0	19,816	71.6	7,854	28.4	25,852	93.4	18,434	66.6	7,418	26.8	1,818	6.6	1,382	5.0	436	1.6
Semi-skilled, Pl.	3,502	100.0	2,095	59.8	1,407	40.2	3,318	94.7	2,016	57.5	1,302	37.2	184	5.3	79	2.3	105	3.0
Unskilled, App.	26,472	100.0	22,605	85.4	3,867	14.6	21,715	82.0	18,063	68.2	3,652	13.8	4,757	18.0	4,542	17.2	215	.8
Unskilled, Pl.	4,115	100.0	3,528	85.7	587	14.3	3,688	89.6	3,118	75.8	570	13.8	427	10.4	410	10.0	17	.4

1 - Applications

2 - Placements

Placements by Sex and Race

Made by the New Jersey State Employment Service

July 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938

	Total		White		Negro	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Total	39,259	100.0	28,516	75.2	10,743	24.8
Male	13,348	100.0	12,153	91.0	1,195	9.0
Female	25,911	100.0	16,363	63.2	9,548	36.8

Placements by Occupational Classification and Race

Made by the New Jersey State Employment Service

July 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938

	Total			White			Negro		
	Applicants	Placements No. %		Applicants	Placements No. %		Applicants	Placements No. %	
White Collar	37,096	4,370 11.2		36,205	4,361 12.0		891	9 1.0	
Domestic Service	21,756	24,553 112.9		14,274	14,482 101.5		7,482	10,071 134.6	
Labor	84,261	10,336 12.3		76,740	9,673 12.6		7,521	663 8.8	
Skilled	30,119	2,719 9.0		29,173	2,667 9.1		946	52 5.5	
Semi-Skilled	27,670	3,502 12.7		25,852	3,318 12.8		1,818	184 10.1	
Unskilled	26,472	4,115 15.5		21,715	3,688 17.0		4,757	427 9.0	

Employees, by Sex and Race, of the State Employment Service

1 9 3 8

	Total	W h i t e						N e g r o					
		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
		No.	% of Tot.	No.	% of Tot. Male	No.	% of Tot. Fem.	No.	% of Tot.	No.	% of Tot. Male	No.	% of Tot. Fem.
Clerical Workers	124	123	99.2	23	100.0	100	99.0	1	0.8	0	0.0	1	1.0
Interview- ers	120	120	100.0	91	100.0	29	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other	24	24	100.0	23	100.0	1	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Total and Negro Employees by Occupational Classification
in a Selected Group of Public Utility Companies

	Total Employees	Negro Employees	Negro Per Cent
Total (Nine Concerns)	45,761	629	1.4
Supervisory & Professional	784	16	2.0
Clerical	868	1	-
Skilled & Semi-skilled	4,698	25	.5
Unskilled	3,846	444	15.4
Classification not given	34,565	143	.4

Unemployed Census for the State of N. J. - 1937 showing the Number and Per Cent
of Unemployed Negroes Including Emergency Workers by Sex

	Negro Population		Negro Unemployed Including Emergency Workers					
	Total	Per Cent of Total	T o t a l		M a l e		F e m a l e	
			No.	Per Cent of All Unempl.	Total	Per Cent of All Male	Total	Per Cent of All Female
New Jersey	208,828	5.2	35,314	12.3	25,345	11.2	9,969	14.0
Camden	11,340	9.6	2,761	19.8	2,022	20.1	739	18.9
Elizabeth	4,761	4.2	694	9.9	540	10.1	154	9.5
Jersey City	12,575	4.0	1,570	6.4	1,104	6.0	466	7.3
Newark	38,880	8.8	7,115	19.6	5,059	18.2	2,056	21.9
Paterson	2,952	2.1	625	4.6	465	4.7	160	4.3
Trenton	8,057	6.5	1,061	14.3	1,257	14.3	344	14.2
Cities 10,000 to 100,000			13,502	13.3	9,148	12.3	4,354	16.5

Biggers Census - New Jersey pp.1-2

Unemployment Census for the State of N. J. - 1937 showing the Number and Per Cent
of Negro Emergency Workers by Sex

	Negro Population		Negro Emergency Workers					
	Total	Per Cent of Total	T o t a l		M a l e		F e m a l e	
			No.	Per Cent of all Emergency	Total	Per Cent of all Male	Total	Per Cent of all Female
New Jersey	208,828	5.2	10,638	15.0	9,362	15.4	1,276	12.8
Camden	11,340	9.6	804	25.8	732	26.2	72	22.3
Elizabeth	4,761	4.2	227	17.1	206	18.4	21	10.1
Jersey City	12,575	4.0	319	6.5	272	6.6	47	6.0
Newark	38,880	8.8	2,080	24.1	1,879	24.6	201	20.4
Paterson	2,952	2.1	222	7.2	177	7.3	45	6.6
Trenton	8,057	6.5	555	16.2	523	17.8	32	6.7
Cities 10,000 to 100,000			4,132	16.4	3,452	16.3	680	16.9

Biggers' Census - New Jersey pp. 1-2

Unemployment Census for the State of N. J. - 1937 showing the Number and Per Cent
of Totally Unemployed Negroes by Sex

	Negro Population		Negro Totally Unemployed					
	Total	Per Cent of Total	T o t a l		M a l e		F e m a l e	
			No.	Per Cent of all Unempl.	Total	Per Cent of All Male	Total	Per Cent of all Female
New Jersey	208,828	5.2	24,676	11.4	15,983	10.3	8,693	14.3
Camden	11,340	9.6	1,957	18.1	1,290	17.8	667	18.7
Elizabeth	4,761	4.2	467	8.3	334	7.9	133	9.5
Jersey City	12,575	4.0	1,251	6.3	832	5.9	419	7.5
Newark	38,880	8.8	5,035	17.7	3,180	15.8	1,855	22.1
Paterson	2,952	2.1	403	3.9	288	3.9	115	3.8
Trenton	8,057	6.5	1,046	13.4	734	12.5	312	16.1
Cities 10,000 to 100,000			9,370	12.3	5,696	10.6	3,674	16.4

Biggers' Census - New Jersey - pp. 1-2

Total Family Income By Race, Trenton New Jersey

1933

	Total	White		Negro		Other	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No. Reporting	2,031	1,747	100.0	215	100.0	119	100.0
No Income	206	159	9.1	35	16.3	12	10.1
\$ 1.00 - \$ 249.00	222	166	9.5	39	18.1	17	14.3
\$ 250.00 - \$ 499.00	281	223	12.8	51	23.7	7	5.9
\$ 500.00 - \$ 749.00	338	273	15.6	44	20.5	21	17.6
\$ 750.00 - \$ 999.00	254	216	12.4	25	11.6	13	10.9
\$1,000.00 - \$1,499.00	390	356	20.4	13	6.1	21	17.6
\$1,500.00 - \$1,999.00	194	180	10.3	5	2.3	9	7.8
\$2,000.00 - \$2,999.00	140	124	7.1	3	1.4	13	10.9
\$3,000.00 - \$4,499.00	39	34	1.9			5	4.2
\$4,500.00 - \$7,499.00	16	15	.8			1	.9
\$7,500.00 - and over	1	1	.1				

Financial Survey of Urban Housing, p. 260

Percentage Distribution of Negro and White Families
by Income Classes

Trenton, New Jersey¹ - 1933

	Total	White	Negro
No income	8.0	7.5	15.6
\$ 1.00 - 499.00	19.7	18.4	39.1
500.00 - 999.00	27.5	27.4	30.2
1,000.00 - 1,499.00	20.6	21.4	9.8
1,500.00 - 1,999.00	10.7	11.2	3.1
2,000.00 - 2,999.00	9.0	9.5	1.8
3,000.00 - 4,999.00	3.3	3.4	.4
5,000.00 - 6,999.00	.9	.9	-
7,000.00 - 9,999.00	.3	.3	-
10,000.00 - 14,999.00	-	-	-
15,000.00 and over	-	-	-

Consumer Use of Selected Goods and Services, by Income Classes,
Trenton, N. J. - Dep't. of Commerce, Market Research Series
No. 5.6 (p.2)

¹ -Sample study including 225 Negro families, or 6.1% total
study; Negro population of Trenton - 8,057 or 6.5 of total
population.

Income to 5,303 Negro Families in Fourteen Municipalities in the
State of New Jersey*

Range	M.	F.	F.M.
0 - 24.99	12.50	625	7,812.50
25 - 49.99	37.50	1,006	37,725.00
50 - 74.99	62.50	1,448	80,500.00
75 - 99.99	82.50	837	77,302.50
100 - 124.99	112.50	603	67,837.50
125 - 149.99	137.50	281	38,637.50
150 - 174.99	162.50	185	30,062.50
175 - 199.99	182.50	83	15,147.50
200 and over	212.50	135	28,687.50
		<u>5,303</u>	<u>393,712.50</u>

Average Monthly 73.38

5,303

Average Annually 880.56

N.A . 65
5,368

* - Total Number of Families Covered - 5,368 65 Not Reporting Income

Racial Distribution of New Jersey

Relief Families - 1934

	Per cent of Total No. of Families	Per cent of Relief Families
Total	100.0	100.0
Native White	58.5	39.9
Foreign White	36.4	33.6
Negro	4.9	26.5
Unknown	.2	—

Neighbors in Need - New Jersey Emergency Relief Administration (p. 11): (p. 71)

Workers on Relief by Race, - New Jersey - 1935

	Total		Negro		White		Other & Unknown	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Total	191,675	100.0	37,551	19.6	152,829	79.7	1,295	.7
Male	139,871	100.0	23,942	17.1	114,980	82.2	949	.7
Female	51,804	100.0	13,609	26.3	37,849	73.1	346	.6

Workers on Relief in the U. S., M'CH, 1935 - W.P.A., Div. of Social Research (p. 88)

Classification of Case Heads as to Color and Length of Residence in the State of New Jersey
Employable and Unemployable Cases

Families by Case Heads

Length of Residence in the State												
	Total Known White Case Heads		Total Known Negro Case Heads		Less than one year				Since 1932 and including 1936 More than one, less than 5 years			
					W h i t e		N e g r o		W h i t e		N e g r o	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
State Total	35,111	100.0	11,185	100.0	62	0.2	24	0.2	1,041	3.0	645	5.7
Employable Total	26,098	100.0	8,199	100.0	59	0.2	19	0.2	1,048	3.3	499	6.1
Unemployable Total	9,013	100.0	2,986	100.0	3	0.1	5	0.2	223	2.4	146	4.8
Length of Residence in Municipalities												
State Total	35,025	100.0	11,161	100.0	295	0.8	61	0.6	3,011	8.6	975	8.7
Employable Total	26,019	100.0	8,198	100.0	256	1.0	50	0.6	2,352	9.0	756	9.2
Unemployable Total	9,006	100.0	2,963	100.0	39	0.4	11	0.4	659	7.3	219	7.4

(Cont'd)

Classification of Case Heads as to Color and Length of Residence in the State of New Jersey

Employable and Unemployable Cases

	Prior to 1932 but after 1927 More than 5 years, less than 10				Prior to 1927 Ten years or more				Five or more years Percentage Ratios	
	W h i t e		N e g r o		W h i t e		N e g r o		W h i t e	N e g r o
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
State Total	2,743	7.8	2,065	18.5	31,235	89.0	8,454	75.6	96.8	94.1
Employable Total	2,157	8.3	1,587	19.5	23,034	88.2	6,098	74.3	96.5	93.8
Unemployable Total	586	6.5	478	16.0	8,201	91.0	2,360	79.0	97.5	95.0
State Total	4,146	11.8	2,333	20.9	27,573	78.8	7,792	69.8	90.6	90.7
Employable Total	3,178	12.2	1,796	21.9	20,233	77.8	5,596	68.3	90.0	90.2
Unemployable Total	968	10.8	537	18.1	7,340	81.5	2,196	74.1	92.3	92.2

Negroes on the Relief Rolls in Selected Cities
of New Jersey - 1938

City	Number		Per Cent Negro Families in General Population	Per Cent Negro Families on Relief Head
	White	Negro		
Camden	2,150	1,125	9.7	34.4
Elizabeth	432	172	4.2	28.5
Hackensack	131	47	8.6	26.4
Jersey City	4,140	694	4.0	14.3
Newark	7,629	4,572	9.2	37.5
Paterson	2,522	198	2.1	7.3
Plainfield	113	88	9.5	43.8
Trenton	1,533	573	5.8	27.2

Analysis of Relief Case Load of Thirty New Jersey Municipalities,
Department of Institutions and Agencies (Data collected by State
Financial Assistance Commission prepared by Division of Statis-
tics and Research)

New Jersey - WPA*

1937

Total number of W. P. A. workers	56,302	(end of 1937)
Number of Negro W. P. A. workers	8,736	(end of 1937)
Percent Negro of total W. P. A. workers	15.5	(end of 1937)

Total employables on relief	191,675	(1935)
Negro employables on relief	37,551	(1935)
Percent Negro of total employables on relief	19.6	(1935)

Negro N. J. - 5.2% of entire population 1930

Negro N. J. - 6.35 of gainfully employed workers

*From confidential reports - 1938

Total and Negro Employees,
Cases, and Transfers to W.P.A. for Municipal
Welfare Bureaus in Selected Cities

1 9 3 8

City	Employees		Cases		Transfers to WPA	
	Total	Negro	Total	Negro	Total	Negro
Burlington	3	0	140	48	7	4
Hackensack	8	0	363	140	67	28
Trenton	76	0	3,200	340		a
Asbury Park	5	1	259	186		a
Camden	79	5	4,250	1,275	565	113
New Brunswick	12	0	823	314	178	77
Paterson	51	0	2,061	138	683	a
Woodbury	2	0	22	11	17	11
Middle Township (Whitesboro)			106	37	10	4
Jersey City	39	2	6,730	1,055	429	161
Elizabeth	25	0	777	136	146	26
Plainfield	15	0	347	139	91	37
Newark	540	26	16,830	5,560	1,408	250
Total	855	34	35,928	9,379	3,601	611

a - Data not available or withheld

Patients in New Jersey Hospitals¹ - 1938

Department	Total	Negro	Per cent Negro
In-Patient	238,392	12,977	5.4
Out-Patient	274,499	17,949	6.5

¹ These figures include patients in In-Patient Departments of 95 hospitals and in Out-Patient Departments of 55 hospitals having Out-Patient Departments

Accommodations available to Negro
Patients in New Jersey Hospitals - 1938

Accommodations	No. of Hospitals
Private and semi-private rooms available to Negroes	56
Private rooms only available to Negroes	5
Negroes not admitted	7
Private and semi-private rooms not available to Negroes	15
All rooms private	1
No rooms private	10
Not ascertainable	6

Specifications Governing Policy of
Segregation in Fifteen New Jersey Hospitals - 1938

Specification	No. of Hospitals
Separate ward accommodations for Negroes	9
Separate accommodations for chronic and contagious disease patients	2
Private rooms at semi-private rates	1
Separate eating and sleeping quarters	1
Not ascertainable	2

Policy Governing Treatment of Patients in
New Jersey Hospitals by Private Physicians

1938

Policy	No. of Hospitals
Negro physicians not permitted to treat their patients	40
Negro physicians permitted to treat their patients	37
No physicians permitted to treat their patients	14
Not known	1
Not ascertainable	8

Conditions Governing Treatment of Patients by
Negro Physicians in Thirty-seven New Jersey Hospitals

1938

Condition	No. of Hospitals
If private or semi-private cases	10
If members of courtesy staff or in association with staff member	9
If member of County Medical Society in good standing in community	5
"If patient is white"	1
No specific restrictions	10
Not ascertainable	2

Distribution of Nurses in Training Schools Showing the
Enrollment of those which have Negro students

Distribution of Enrollment	No. of Schools	Negro Enrollment
None		30
0 - 24	1	2
25 - 49	9	
50 - 74	10	
75 - 99	5	
100 - 124	4	
125 - 149	1	
Not Ascertainable	2	

Per Cent Of Budgets in Fifteen Semi-Private Training
Schools for Nurses Coming from Public Sources

Per Cent Of Budget	Training Schools
0 - 9.9	2
10.0 - 19.9	3
20.0 - 29.9	5
30.0 - 39.9	1
Not Ascertainable	4

Distribution of Faculty Members in Training
Schools for Nurses in the State of New Jersey Showing
Those which have Negro Instructors

Distribution of Faculty Members	Number of Schools	
	Total Instructors	Negro Instructors
None		31
0 - 09	5	
10 - 19	13	
20 - 29	6	
30 - 39	3	
40 - 49		
50 - 59	1	
Not Ascertainable	4	1

Method of Selecting Students From Applicants For Admission
To Training Schools For Nurses in the State of New Jersey

Basis For Selection	No. of Schools
Academic Standing	3
Academic Standing and Recommendation	4
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Oral Examination, and Selection by Committee	4
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Race, and Selection by Committee	3
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Oral Examination, Race, and Interview	2
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Oral Examination, Race, Interview and Intelligence Tests	1
Academic Standing and Probation	1
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Oral Examination and Race	1
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Race, Personal Interview, and Intelligence Tests	1
Academic Standing, Oral Examination, and Committee	1
Academic Standing, Oral Examination, and Race	1
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Race, and Personal Interview	1

Continued

Method of Selecting Students From Applicants For Admission
To Training Schools For Nurses in the State of New Jersey

Basis for Selection	No. of Schools
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Race, and Physical Requirements	1
Academic Standing, Recommendation, and Race	1
Academic Standing, Recommendation, and Oral Examination	1
Academic Standing, Recommendation, Selection by Committee, Intelligence Tests, and Physi- cal Examination	1
Contract with Affiliated Schools of Nursing	1
Not Ascertainable	3

Distribution of the Negro and White Population
In New Jersey State Institutions

1 9 3 8

End of Fiscal Year	Total	Negro		White		Ratio Negro to White
		No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	
1938	21,078	2,636	12.6	18,442	87.4	14.4
1937	20,410	2,596	12.7	17,814	87.3	14.5
1936	19,491	2,379	12.3	17,112	87.7	14.0
1935	18,914	2,053	10.9	16,861	89.1	12.2
1934	18,388	2,049	11.1	16,339	88.9	12.4
1933	17,998	2,044	11.4	15,954	88.6	12.9
		Av. 2,293		Av. 17,087		

Distribution of Negro and White Court Commitments of
Adult Males to Penal and Correctional
Institutions in the State of New Jersey

Fiscal Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e		Ratio Negro to White
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1938	1,346	414	30.8	932	69.2	43.5
1937	1,411	406	28.8	1,005	71.2	40.4
1936	1,398	367	26.3	1,031	73.7	35.7
1935	1,344	336	25.0	1,008	75.0	33.3
1934	1,485	371	25.0	1,114	75.0	33.3
1933	1,682	408	24.3	1,274	75.7	32.1
1932	1,656	413	24.9	1,243	75.1	32.2
1931	1,757	425	24.2	1,332	75.8	31.9
		Av. 392		Av. 1,117		

Distribution of Negro and White Adult Males in
Penal and Correctional Institutions in the
State of New Jersey

Fiscal Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e		Ratio Negro to White
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1938	3,329	1,039	31.2	2,290	68.8	45.3
1937	3,080	947	30.7	2,133	69.3	47.2
1936	2,871	804	28.0	2,067	72.0	38.9
1935	2,865	777	27.1	2,088	72.9	37.1
1934	3,051	838	27.5	2,213	72.5	37.9
1933	3,178	887	27.9	2,291	72.1	38.8
		Av. 882		Av. 2,180		

Court Commitments to Institutions for Adult Offenders
in the State of New Jersey showing the Number and
Per Cent of Negroes

Year	T o t a l		N e g r o	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1938	1491	100	459	30.8
1937	1596	100	470	29.4
1936	1553	100	414	26.6
1935	1506	100	483	32.1
1934	1620	100	407	25.1
1933	1798	100	450	25.0

Distribution of Negroes and Whites Admitted to Penal and
Correctional Institutions in the State of New Jersey

	Total in Institutions	Negroes		Whites		Ratio of Negroes to White
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
1938	1,867	615	32.9	1,252	67.1	49.0
1937	2,115	682	32.2	1,433	67.8	47.4
1936	1,966	580	29.5	1,386	70.5	41.9
1935	1,945	613	31.5	1,332	68.5	46.2
1934	2,092	550	26.2	1,542	73.8	35.5
1933	2,228	565	25.3	1,663	74.7	33.8
1932	1,244	580	26.4	664	73.6	35.8
1931	2,501	618	24.7	1,883	75.3	32.8
1930	2,295	*		*		*
1929	1,919	*		*		*
		Av. 600		Av. 1,394		

* Data not available

Negro and White Commitments
To New Jersey Homes for Juvenile Delinquents

Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e		Ratio of Negroes to Whites
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
1938	376	156	41.5	220	58.5	70.9
1937	519	212	40.8	307	59.2	67.6
1936	413	166	40.1	247	59.9	67.1
1935	439	130	29.6	309	70.4	42.5
1934	472	143	32.4	329	67.6	47.9
1933	430	115	26.7	315	73.3	36.4
1932	452	134	29.6	318	70.4	42.5
1931	583	128	21.9	455	78.1	28.2

Negro and White Population in
New Jersey Homes for Juvenile Delinquents

Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e		Ratio of Negroes to Whites
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
1938	825	344	41.7	471	58.3	71.5
1937	892	358	40.1	534	59.9	66.9
1936	838	317	37.8	521	62.2	60.8
1935	850	289	34.0	661	66.0	51.5
1934	857	281	31.6	576	68.4	46.2
1933	829	254	30.8	575	69.2	44.6
		Av. 307		Av. 556		

Number and Per Cent of White and Negro
Male Juvenile Delinquents in the
New Jersey State Home for Boys

Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e	
		Total	Per Cent	Total	Per Cent
1938	544	208	38.2	336	61.8
1937	575	207	36.0	368	64.0
1936	564	195	34.6	396	65.4
1935	567	190	33.5	377	66.5
1934	558	163	29.2	395	70.8
1933	538	144	21.2	394	78.8
1932	564	*	*	*	*
1931	641	154	24.0	437	76.0

* Data not available

Number and Per Cent of White and Negro
Female Juvenile Delinquents in the
New Jersey State Home for Girls

Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e	
		Total	Per Cent	Total	Per Cent
1938	281	136	48.4	145	51.6
1937	317	151	47.6	166	52.4
1936	274	122	44.5	152	55.5
1935	283	99	35.0	184	65.0
1934	299	118	39.5	181	60.5
1933	291	110	37.8	181	62.2
1932	301				
1931	306	96	31.4	210	68.6

Distribution of White and Negro First and Re-Admissions to the
New Jersey State Sanatorium for Tuberculosis

Fiscal Year	Total Number	Negro		White		Ratio of Negro To White
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1938	366	23	6.3	343	93.7	6.7
1937	404	14	3.5	390	96.5	3.7
1936	468	18	3.8	450	96.2	4.0
1935	468	17	3.6	451	96.4	3.7
1934	522	35	6.8	487	93.2	7.3
1933	592	37	6.3	555	93.7	6.7
1932	595	39	6.6	556	93.4	7.0
1931	638	26	4.1	612	95.9	4.2
1930	686	27	3.9	659	96.1	4.1
1929	549	18	3.3	531	96.7	3.5

Distribution of Negro and White Patients in the
New Jersey State Sanatorium for Tuberculosis

Fiscal Year	No. in Inst. End of Year	Negro		White		Ratio of Negro to White
		No.	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1938	475	23	4.8	452	96.4	4.9
1937	450	16	3.5	434	96.6	3.6
1936	465	21	4.5	444	95.5	4.7
1935	458	18	3.9	440	96.1	3.0
1934	456	5	1.1	451	98.9	1.1
1933	458	4	.9	454	99.1	.9
1932	465	5	1.1	460	98.9	1.1
1931	458	3	.7	455	99.3	.8

Distribution of Negroes and Whites Admitted
To Mental Disease Hospitals in the State of New Jersey

Year	Total in Hospital	N e g r o		White and Other		Ratio of Negro to White
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
1938	2,798	266	9.5	2,532	90.5	10.4
1937	2,921	208	8.2	2,713	91.8	8.9
1936	2,795	201	7.1	2,594	92.9	7.5
1935	2,565	182	7.0	2,383	93.0	7.5
1934	2,442	197	8.0	2,245	92.0	8.6
1933	2,310	180	7.7	2,130	92.3	8.3
1932	2,426	186	7.2	2,240	92.8	7.7
1931	2,199	171	7.7	2,028	92.3	8.3
1930	2,004	138	6.8	1,866	93.2	7.2
1929	1,814	127	7.6	1,687	92.4	8.2
		Av. 186		Av. 2,242		

Negro and White Population in Mental
Disease Hospitals in the State of New Jersey

Year	Total	N e g r o		W h i t e		Ratio Negroes and Whites
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
1938	10,420	817	7.9	9,603	92.1	8.6
1937	10,167	755	7.4	9,412	92.6	8.0
1936	9,676	758	7.8	8,918	92.2	8.5
1935	9,262	519*	5.6	8,743	94.4	5.8
1934	8,758	498*	5.7	8,260	94.3	6.3
1933	8,253	467*	2.6	7,786	97.4	2.6
		Av. 627		Av. 86,204		

* Includes Negroes in Greystone and Marlboro Only.

Total and Negro Employees of the New Jersey State Department of
Institutions and Agencies by Occupational Classification
Showing the Ratio in Each Category and the Ratio of
Negro Employees to the Total

	Total	Negro	Negro Per Cent in Group
Unskilled and Semi-Skilled Manual	17.1	63.7	4.1
Skilled Manual	7.0	14.5	2.3
Clerical	11.2	1.8	.2
Attendant or Guard Service	44.6	7.3	.2
Sub-Professional	5.4	--	--
Technical Professional	12.5	12.7	1.1
Executive and Managerial	2.2	--	--
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	1.1

Membership of A.F. of L. Labor Unions

Answering Questionnaires of the

Negro Welfare Commission

Name	Membership	
	Total	Negro
Bakery Workers	78	0
Barbers	48	0
	94	0
	18	0
Blacksmiths	8	1
Bookbinders	175	0
Bricklayers	32	0
	110	0
	80	0
	(?)	(?)
	130	2
	140	1
	40	0
Carpenters	49	0
	280	3
	65	0
	225	1
	(?)	0
	60	0
Culinary Workers	60	8
Delicatessen Workers	250	15
Electrical Workers	98	1
	1,145	0
	33	0
Firemen and Oilers	400	2
Fireman's Association	387	0
Glass Bottle Blowers	250	0
Hod Carriers	90	20
	158	41
	460	30
	113	75
	90	7

(Cont'd)

Membership of A.F. of L. Labor Unions
Answering Questionnaires of the
Negro Welfare Commission

Name	Membership	
	Total	Negro
Hotel & Restaurant Workers	160	0
	300	3
Lathers	56	3
Letter Carriers	37	0
	204	2
	61	1
Linoleum Workers	100	0
Masters, Mates, and Pilots	118	0
Molders	200	0
Musicians	650	5
	1,200	5
	96	0
	200	3
	(?)	6
	300	1
	170	2
Musicians (Subsidiary)	36	36
Oystermen	900	500
Painters and Decorators	73	0
	155	0
	103	6
	19	1
P.O. Clerks	140	4
Potters	525	10
Printing Pressmen	400	1
	12	0
Roofers	60	0
Sign Writers	48	1
Stage Employees & Motion Picture Operators	39	0

(Cont'd)

Membership of A.F. of L. Labor Unions

Answering Questionnaires of the

Negro Welfare Commission

Name	Membership	
	Total	Negro
State, County Municipal Employees	250	(?)
State & Electrical Railway	275	1
	326	0
Teachers	(?)	(9%)
Teamsters	2,600	300
	(?)	(?)
Typographical	35	0
	600	0
	215	2
	45	0
	130	0
Total	16,374	1,100

MEMBERSHIP OF C. I. O. LABOR UNIONS
ANSWERING QUESTIONNAIRES OF THE
NEGRO WELFARE COMMISSION

MEMBERSHIP

NAME	TOTAL	NEGRO
American Gas Workers	100	0
Architects, Engineers, & Chemists	50	1
Automobile Workers, United	100	0
Cannery Workers	300	25
	75	50 (?)
Clothing Workers, Amalgamated	2,000	150
	2,500	0
	3,600*	0
Dyers	?	12
Dyers Finishers	2,889	5
Electrical Radio Workers	7,000	(?)
	750	6
	200	0
	130	5
	526	0
Fur Dressers & Dyers	800	0
Furniture Workers	175	30
	150	10
Hosiery Workers	1,000	0
	380	0
	160	
Iron, Steel & Tin	511	2
Lamb & Rabbit Workers	800	3
Leather Workers Association	1,200	100
	201	0
Loose Leaf & Blank Book Workers, United	150	0
Marine & Shipbuilding Workers	800	0
Neckwear Workers, United	600	5
Newspaper Guild	185	0
	46	0

*South Jersey Joint Board

Continued

MEMBERSHIP OF C. I. O. LABOR UNIONS
ANSWERING QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE
NEGRO WELFARE COMMISSION

NAME	MEMBERSHIP	
	TOTAL	NEGRO
Office & Professional Workers,	210	0
United	55	0
	750	0
Rubber Workers	600	43
	779	4
	570	0
S.W.O.C.	275	137
	135	17
	150	5
	345	10
	250	0
	1,600	150
	500	3
Sugar Refining Workers, United	961	259
Tailors	230	2
T.W.O.C.	350	0
	350	0
	1,200	0
	400	0
	200	0
	450	30
	17,000 (12 Locals)	0
Waterman's Fountain Pen	340	1
Total	39,782	1065

MEMBERSHIP OF INDEPENDENT UNIONS
ANSWERING QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE
NEGRO WELFARE COMMISSION

NAME	TOTAL	NEGRO
I.L.G.W.U.	1,800	75
	1,600	60
	2,634	150
	3,200	200
	2,800	500
	1,000	10
	1,800	10
	<u>1,200 *</u>	<u>25</u>
	16,034	1,030

*South Jersey Joint Board

Family Heads of Negro Families in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities by Sex*

Municipality	T o t a l		M a l e		F e m a l e	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total	5,368	100.0	4,021	74.9	1,347	25.1
Asbury Park	258	100.0	167	64.7	91	35.3
Atlantic City	724	100.0	544	75.1	180	24.9
Bridgeton	75	100.0	49	65.3	26	34.7
Burlington	72	100.0	61	84.7	11	15.3
Camden	569	100.0	424	74.5	145	25.5
Elizabeth	226	100.0	179	79.2	47	20.8
Hackensack	139	100.0	114	82.0	25	18.0
Jersey City	613	100.0	491	80.1	122	19.9
Lawnside	60	100.0	46	76.7	14	23.3
Newark	1,848	100.0	1,330	72.0	518	28.0
New Brunswick	109	100.0	86	78.9	23	21.1
Paterson	170	100.0	131	77.1	39	22.9
Trenton	460	100.0	361	78.5	99	21.5
Woodbury	45	100.0	38	84.4	7	15.6

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population -
A Study of 5,368 Urban Families, 1939

Assessed Valuation of Homes Owned by Negro Families in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

Municipality	Less than \$1,000.00	\$1,000.00 to \$1,499.99	\$1,500.00 to \$1,999.99	\$2,000.00 to \$2,499.99	\$2,500.00 to \$2,999.99	\$3,000.00 to \$3,499.99	\$3,500.00 to \$3,999.99	\$4,000.00 to \$4,499.99	\$4,500.00 to \$4,999.99	\$5,000.00 and over	N. A.
Total	65	48	68	52	56	52	25	25	16	67	45
Asbury Park	8	6	11	6	3	4	2	6		7	5
Atlantic City	6	2	6	8	9	7	5	4	4	7	2
Bridgeton	9	4	3	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Burlington	6	5	1	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
Camden	11	9	9	11	15	17	-	-	-	-	7
Elizabeth	1	2	6	3	5	4	3	2	-	1	4
Hackensack	1	1	8	4	5	4	-	2	-	4	1
Jersey City	-	1	3	3	6	7	4	7	6	33	-
Lawnside	11	7	5	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Newark	-	2	1	2	1	4	6	2	6	14	13
New Brunswick	-	1	4	1	5	-	2	1	-	1	-
Paterson	1	-	2	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	2
Trenton	1	3	8	7	4	1	3	1	-	-	4
Woodbury	10	5	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	3

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Summary of Rentals Paid By Negro Families
in the State of New Jersey,
Grouped According to Class Interval*

Class Interval	Number	Per Cent
Total	4,849	100.0
Under \$10.99	540	11.1
\$11.00 - \$15.99	1,291	26.7
\$16.00 - \$20.99	1,453	30.0
\$21.00 - \$25.99	606	16.6
\$26.00 - \$30.99	428	8.8
\$31.00 - \$35.99	99	2.0
\$36.00 - \$40.99	71	1.5
\$41.00 and over	49	1.0
Services Rendered in Lieu of Rent	2	-
Relief and Not Ascertainable	110	2.3

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition
of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368
Urban Negro Families, 1939

Conditions of Crowding Among Negroes in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

	Dwelling Units		Persons in Units	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total	5,368	100.0	22,502	100.0
Crowded ¹	1,513	28.2	10,034	44.6
Adequate	3,839	71.5	12,456	55.4
Not Ascertainable	16	.3	12	--

¹ A dwelling is considered crowded if there is more than one person per room

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population -

A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Condition of Structures Occupied by Negro Owners in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

Municipality	Good Condition		Needs Minor Repairs		Needs Major Repairs.		Unfit for Use	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total	253	48.7	190	36.6	70	13.5	6	1.2
Asbury Park	24	41.4	18	31.0	13	22.4	3	5.2
Atlantic City	36	60.0	20	33.3	4	6.7	—	—
Bridgeton	8	25.0	9	45.0	6	30.0	—	—
Burlington	5	31.3	7	43.7	4	25.0	—	—
Camden	38	48.1	30	38.0	10	12.6	1	1.3
Elizabeth	19	61.3	10	32.3	1	3.2	1	3.2
Hackensack	17	56.6	11	36.7	2	6.7	—	—
Jersey City	48	68.6	17	24.3	5	7.1	—	—
Lawnside	7	25.0	12	42.9	9	32.1	—	—
Newark	25	49.0	20	39.2	6	11.8	—	—
New Brunswick	11	73.3	1	6.7	2	13.3	1	6.7
Paterson	5	55.6	4	44.4	—	—	—	—
Trenton	9	28.1	21	65.6	2	6.3	—	—
Woodbury	4	20.0	10	50.0	6	30.0	—	—

* New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population -
A Study of 5,368 Urban Families, 1939

Condition of Structures Occupied by Negro Tenants in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

Municipality	Good Condition		Needs Minor Repairs		Needs Major Repairs		Unfit for Use	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total	995	20.5	1,861	38.4	1,579	32.6	414	8.5
Asbury Park	28	14.0	85	42.5	58	29.0	29	14.5
Atlantic City	301	45.3	214	32.2	140	21.1	9	1.4
Bridgeton	12	21.8	15	27.3	23	41.8	5	9.1
Burlington	5	8.9	17	30.4	31	55.4	3	5.3
Camden	56	11.4	190	38.8	203	41.4	41	8.4
Elizabeth	36	18.5	76	38.9	60	30.8	23	11.8
Hackensack	39	35.8	39	35.8	23	21.1	8	7.3
Jersey City	123	22.6	277	51.0	115	21.2	28	5.2
Lawnside	4	12.5	9	28.1	15	46.9	4	12.5
Newark	311	17.3	615	34.2	673	37.5	198	11.0
New Brunswick	11	11.7	21	22.3	36	38.3	26	27.7
Paterson	28	17.4	60	37.3	49	30.4	24	14.9
Trenton	39	9.1	232	54.3	144	33.6	13	3.0
Woodbury	2	8.0	11	44.0	9	36.0	3	12.0

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population -
A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Facilities Available to Negro Owners In Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

	Private Bath			Inside Run- ning Water				Private Indoor Toilet			Central Heat			Lighting				Cooking								Heating						
	Yes	No	N.A.	Hot & Cold	Cold Only	None	N.A.	Yes	No	N.A.	Yes	No	N.A.	Elec.	Kero.	Gas	Other	Elec.	Gas	Wood	Coal	Kero.	Other	Oil	N.A.	Coal	Wood	Kero.	Oil	Other	N.A.	
Total	411	107	1	391	91	37	-	438	81	-	347	172	-	465	44	6	4	6	259	13	134	49	52	5	1	411	2	25	45	35	1	
Asbury Park	51	7	-	43	14	1	-	56	2	-	24	34	-	46	10	1	1	-	17	-	29	12	-	-	-	42	-	11	5	-	-	
Atlantic City	58	2	-	58	2	-	-	59	1	-	50	10	-	56	2	2	-	4	47	-	6	2	1	-	-	46	-	1	8	5	-	
Bridgeton	7	13	-	5	7	8	-	6	14	-	7	13	-	19	1	-	-	1	8	4	4	3	-	-	-	13	1	4	-	2	-	
Burlington	7	9	-	7	8	1	-	11	5	-	9	7	-	11	5	-	-	-	2	-	9	2	3	-	-	12	-	1	3	-	-	
Camden	48	31	-	44	32	3	-	56	23	-	49	30	-	68	8	1	2	-	37	2	26	2	6	5	1	66	-	-	4	8	1	
Elizabeth	27	4	-	26	5	-	-	29	2	-	22	9	-	29	-	2	-	-	11	-	6	6	8	-	-	26	-	-	4	1	-	
Hackensack	26	4	-	26	3	1	-	29	1	-	25	5	-	29	1	-	-	-	20	-	6	4	-	-	-	28	-	-	1	1	-	
Jersey City	67	3	-	69	1	-	-	69	1	-	60	10	-	70	-	-	-	-	48	-	11	3	8	-	-	50	-	3	14	3	-	
Lawnside	8	20	-	8	0	20	-	8	20	-	13	15	-	19	9	-	-	1	-	1	9	8	9	-	-	24	-	1	-	3	-	
Newark	48	3	-	47	4	-	-	47	4	-	35	16	-	49	1	-	1	-	31	1	7	-	12	-	-	40	-	1	3	7	-	
New Bruns- wick	13	1	1	11	4	-	-	15	-	-	10	5	-	13	2	-	-	-	13	-	1	1	-	-	-	13	-	1	1	-	-	
Paterson	9	-	-	9	-	-	-	9	-	-	8	1	-	9	-	-	-	-	7	1	-	1	-	-	-	8	-	-	1	-	-	
Trenton	29	3	-	29	3	-	-	30	2	-	24	8	-	31	1	-	-	-	11	-	16	1	4	-	-	29	-	1	1	1	-	
Woodbury	13	7	-	9	8	3	-	14	6	-	11	9	-	16	4	-	-	-	7	4	4	4	1	-	-	14	1	1	-	4	-	

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 9,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Facilities Available to Negro Tenants In Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

	Private Bath			Inside Running Water			Private In-Door Toilet			Central Heat			Lighting				Cooking								Heating						
	Yes	No	N.A.	Hot & Cold	Cold Only	None	N.A.	Yes	No	N.A.	Yes	No	N.A.	Elec.	Kero.	Gas	Other	Elec.	Gas	Wood	Coal	Kero.	Other	Oil	N.A.	Coal	Wood	Kero.	Oil	Other	N.A.
Total	2606	2237	6	2571	2129	145	4	3388	1455	6	1154	3690	5	3684	1143	10	12	3	1054	108	2848	492	253	84	7	3396	28	517	344	558	6
Asbury Park	127	73	-	110	76	13	1	166	33	1	38	162	-	113	87	-	-	-	18	2	147	28	3	2	-	144	-	48	3	5	-
Atlantic City	609	55	-	519	143	2	-	618	46	-	353	311	-	545	119	-	-	2	347	2	287	17	12	-	-	553	1	5	28	79	-
Bridgeton	7	48	-	7	31	17	-	22	33	-	3	52	-	34	21	-	-	-	10	11	10	12	12	-	-	19	5	-	10	21	-
Burlington	3	53	-	2	52	2	-	18	38	-	7	49	-	34	22	-	-	-	2	2	31	12	9	-	-	53	1	-	-	2	-
Camden	172	317	1	161	291	38	-	180	308	2	106	383	1	302	186	1	1	-	70	48	271	4	19	75	3	372	8	-	62	45	3
Elizabeth	68	127	-	61	129	5	-	132	63	-	13	182	-	152	42	1	-	-	19	5	97	49	25	-	-	112	1	45	-	37	-
Hackensack	66	43	-	57	51	1	-	97	12	-	40	69	-	90	19	-	-	-	40	4	46	17	1	1	-	79	1	17	3	9	-
Jersey City	296	247	-	357	183	3	-	407	136	-	97	446	-	457	85	1	-	-	83	7	317	98	38	-	-	305	4	112	10	112	-
Lawnside	13	19	-	10	3	19	-	13	19	-	15	17	-	19	13	-	-	-	-	6	6	16	4	-	-	25	1	-	2	4	-
Newark	890	907	-	953	818	26	-	1,250	547	-	320	1,475	2	1,438	351	3	5	1	369	12	1,130	202	80	-	3	1152	3	249	181	212	-
New Brunswick	36	55	3	34	58	2	-	11	32	1	13	81	-	61	29	4	-	-	21	1	60	12	-	-	-	72	2	12	8	-	-
Paterson	97	64	-	88	71	2	-	158	23	-	30	131	-	125	36	-	-	-	36	3	94	15	13	-	-	118	-	15	1	26	1
Trenton	213	213	2	204	215	6	3	275	151	2	111	315	2	299	123	-	6	-	33	3	346	10	35	-	1	317	1	10	38	-	2
Woodbury	9	16	-	8	8	9	-	11	14	-	8	17	-	15	10	-	-	-	6	2	9	-	2	6	-	15	-	4	-	-	-

New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families,

Nativity of Negroes in Fourteen
New Jersey Municipalities*

State of Birth	Number	Per Cent
Total	5,368	100.0
New Jersey	878	16.3
Virginia	916	17.1
Georgia	861	16.0
South Carolina	628	11.7
North Carolina	614	11.5
Other States	1,371	25.6
Foreign Born	96	1.8

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Reasons for Migration of Negroes to Fourteen
New Jersey Municipalities*

Reason	Number	Per Cent
Total	4,490	100.0
Work Opportunity	2,143	47.7
Came, as Minors, with Parents	699	15.6
Join Relatives	639	14.2
Better Conditions	367	8.2
Remained after Visit	60	1.3
Health	58	1.3
Other	285	6.4
Not Ascertainable	239	5.3

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Education of Negro Parents in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

Education	Total		Mothers		Fathers	
	Number	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total Mothers	Number	Per Cent of Total Fathers
Total	9,745	100.0	5,215	100.0	4,530	100.0
No Formal Education	347	3.6	148	2.8	199	4.4
Less Than Three Years	479	4.9	240	4.6	239	5.3
Three to Six Years	3,290	33.8	1,789	34.4	1,501	33.1
Seven to Nine Years	2,993	30.7	1,774	34.0	1,219	26.9
Ten to Twelve Years	1,263	13.0	785	15.1	478	10.6
High School Graduate	150	1.5	94	1.8	56	1.2
One to Three Years Normal or College	212	2.2	101	1.9	111	2.5
Normal School Graduate	71	.7	58	1.1	13	.3
College Graduate	88	.9	44	.8	44	1.0
Technical School Graduate	2	-	-	-	2	-
Professional School Graduate	22	.2	2	-	20	.4
Not Ascertainable	828	8.5	180	3.5	648	14.3

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population -
A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Occupational Status of Negroes in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

	Male or Husband		Female or Wife		Children		Other	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total	5,189	100.0	5,025	100.0	3,265	100.0	969	100.0
Employed	3,141	60.5	1,038	20.6	690	21.1	169	17.4
Unemployed	773	14.9	907	18.1	801	24.6	263	27.2
Not Pertinent and Unemploy- able	1,275	24.6	3,080	61.3	1,774	54.3	537	55.4

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population -
A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Occupational Classification of Negro Male and Female Heads
of Families in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities*

	Total Number	M a l e		F e m a l e	
		Number	Per Cent Tot. Males	Number	Per Cent Tot. Females
Total	5,368	4,021	100.0	1,347	100.0
Skilled	612	548	13.6	64	4.8
Semi-skilled	441	404	10.0	37	2.7
Unskilled	2,518	2,169	54.1	349	25.9
Unemployed	1,084	601	14.9	483	35.9
Unemployable	713	299	7.4	414	30.7

*New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Types of Jobs Held by Negroes in Forteen

New Jersey Municipalities

Showing Family Status *

	Total		Male or Husband		Female or Wife		Children		Other	
	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent
Total	5,038	100.0	3,141	100.0	1,038	100.0	690	100.0	169	100.0
Domestic Service	1,034	20.5	109	3.5	662	63.9	195	28.3	68	40.2
Government	243	4.8	176	5.6	28	2.7	31	4.5	8	4.7
N.Y.A. and C.C.C.	112	2.2	5	.2	3	.3	100	14.5	4	2.4
Private Industry	2,053	40.8	1,524	48.5	205	19.7	256	37.1	68	40.3
Proprietor	364	7.2	240	7.6	98	9.4	19	2.8	7	4.1
Public Utilities	114	2.3	105	3.3	1	.1	6	.8	2	1.2
P.W.A.	12	.2	3	.1	-	-	9	1.3	-	-
W.P.A.	1,106	22.0	979	31.2	41	3.9	74	10.7	12	7.1

1-Includes federal, county, and municipal employees

*-New Jersey State Temporary Commission on the Condition of the Urban Colored Population - A Study of 5,368 Urban Negro Families, 1939

Monthly Wages of Negro Workers in Fourteen New Jersey Municipalities

Showing Family Status*

Monthly Wages	Total		Male or Husband		Female or Wife		Children		Other	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total	5,038	100.0	3,141	100.0	1,038	100.0	690	100.0	169	100.0
Under 20	395	7.8	42	1.3	216	20.8	110	15.9	27	16.0
\$20 - 39.99	737	14.6	109	3.5	346	33.3	244	35.4	38	22.5
\$40 - 59.99	917	18.3	450	14.3	283	27.3	141	20.4	43	25.4
\$60 - 79.99	1,514	30.1	1,257	40.0	105	10.1	115	16.7	37	21.9
\$80 - 99.99	583	11.6	498	15.9	35	3.4	40	5.8	10	5.9
\$100 - 124.99	525	10.4	478	15.2	21	2.0	19	2.8	7	4.1
\$125 - 149.99	133	2.6	126	4.0	5	.5	2	.3		
\$150 - 199.99	115	2.3	101	3.2	6	.6	6	.9	2	1.2
\$200 and over	36	.7	30	1.0	5	.5	1	.1		
Not Ascertainable	83	1.6	50	1.6	16	1.5	12	1.7	5	3.0

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Duration of Employment of Negroes in Fourteen New Jersey

Municipalities, Showing Family Status

Employment Duration	Total		Male or Husband		Female or Wife		Children		Other	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Under one yr.	572	11.3	236	7.5	124	11.9	177	25.7	35	20.7
1 yr., under 2	510	10.1	303	9.6	90	8.7	103	14.9	14	8.3
2 yrs., under 3	555	11.0	311	9.9	98	9.4	130	18.8	16	9.5
3 yrs., under 4	722	14.3	521	16.6	91	8.8	89	12.9	21	12.4
4 yrs., under 5	315	6.3	234	7.4	48	4.6	27	3.9	6	3.6
5 yrs., under 10	846	16.8	564	18.0	191	18.4	64	9.3	27	16.0
10 yrs., and over	1,190	23.6	898	28.6	234	22.6	29	4.2	29	17.1
Part-Time	255	5.1	49	1.6	141	13.6	52	7.5	13	7.7
Not Ascertainable	73	1.5	25	.8	21	2.0	19	2.8	8	4.7

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