THE SOCIOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION
TO THE NEEDS OF THE NEGRO

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The 1930 census revealed that the United States has a total population of 122,775,046 people.¹ Of this number approximately 12,000,000, or one tenth, are of African descent, or Negroes. Those persons were introduced into America in large numbers with the beginning of "black slavery" in 1619. It is generally agreed that the type of slave brought to America was physically healthy and adaptable. There is something inherent in the Negro's temperament that makes for adjustment and adaptability under both normal and adverse conditions. There were many attempts made to enslave the American Indian, but rather than become subjected he would commit suicide. The same phenomenon did not seem to be inherent in the ^{negro}Indian. Today the Red Man is vanishing while the Negro lives on.

The black man came to America with neither diamond nor gold, but brought with him a wealth of physical power, folklore, music, magic and the results of centuries of animistic practices. Many captured Africans were already skillful workers of iron and other metals and produced beautiful and useful instruments here in America. The African was born into an environment of rituals, ceremonies, native beliefs, superstitions and mysticisms. In America his unaccustomed environment forced him farther and farther to the belief in a supernatural person as the controller of all the forces of nature. It has been said that the Negro by nature is religious; however, by nature he is no more religious than the purest Nordic. His "social heritage" and conditions of servitude forced him to believe strongly in some great delivering power. While in bondage suffering the cruelties and assaults of his masters, he found

1. U. S. Department of Commerce - Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930 - p. 5.

escape through "stolen worship". With God as his counsellor and redeemer, his trials and toils of this life were lightened as he became a religious people. Of course, his religion was modeled after that which he found here.

The folklore and music which the slave gave us was unique within itself. Here again, that which he knew in Africa was blended with that which he found in the United States, giving him a product which was neither distinctly African nor American. Thus, the Negro developed his own philosophy of life, seemingly happy and carefree. He sang and prayed as he worked by day, and he sang and danced as he stole his pleasure at night.

The Afro-American is an exceptionally rhythmical person. The entire universe is rhythmical; nature - animal life, plant life, the winds and waters as well as the coming and going of the seasons; so why should not the Negro be rhythmical? However, he expresses his rhythm in a manner that is peculiar to his race. In his native country it was to the beat of the tom-tom or the drums of the hunt or the song of war. In America it was to the tune of the plow, the dance of the whip or the ode to his God that he wailed his "blues" or sang his "spirituals". The Negro's unique and vivid musical expressions have long been generally recognized. At first he was known for his spirituals, today he is known for his jazz. Both forms of music are simple creative expressions of the race, dedicated to the rhythm of the body and the mercies of his God.

The transportation of this race from its native environment brought with it many health adjustment problems. The unstable climatic conditions of America was a great contrast to the tropical jungles of the happy Africa. Of course, only the best physical specimens were brought here, but the great change caused another weeding out. This time only those survived who were inherently physiologically strong. The Negro, to be sure, had his own health hazards, but was now exposed to new diseases for which his body had built up neither

immunity nor resistance and for the control of which he had no adequate techniques. Respiratory diseases, quite naturally to which he was most susceptible, caused the greatest number of deaths.

The Negro's emancipation from slavery came January 1, 1863, as one result of the Civil War. This liberation brought with it the well known "Negro Problem" about which volumes have been written. More than 3,000,000 illiterate people were set free without either economic security or training for citizenship.¹ One can picture the dangers inherent in a situation where freedom, ignorance helplessness and uncertainty tumultuously prevailed. The sudden change was almost too much to be thrust upon any people. To be sure, the slave had a different set of morals from his master. Wherever there exists an imperialistic system this will be true. There is one criteria for what is right or wrong, moral or immoral, for the ruler and another for the subject. Character, if the slave knew the term, meant something different, while even God for him, was entirely different than for the master. There had been no defined set of sex standards, injury and disease were curable mostly through superstitions, mystical and magical practices, and he knew very little about the richer things in life. This called for a reeducation and readjustment of a "nation within a nation".

One repercussion of the Civil War resounded in the "Reconstruction" of the Southern States. This spelled further tragedy for the Negro, and later lead to the "Negro Exodus".² Certain political leaders in their attempt to reorganize the South sought to turn the table and make the black man the leader. State constitutions were drawn up, governing bodies were formed, free schools were instituted and the Negro was put in office. This did not work.

1. Brawley, Benjamin, A short History of The American Negro, the McMillan Co., p. 118, - 1931.

2. Ibid, p. 129

In the first place, the Negro had no background and training for such a radical step; secondly, the political bosses in their greed for the spoils corrupted the entire system with bribery and scandle. The Negro again suffered a setback. However, there were some things in his favor; he was strong physically and had been trained technically for agriculture and industry. The domestic and skilled working slaves were often taught to figure or read simple instructions as a matter of economic advantages, therefore, he was not altogether helpless.¹ The big questions for the United States Governing bodies were: What shall we do with and for the Negro? What will be his social status? Where will he live? How shall we educate him? How will we give him economic independence?

The emancipation supported by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, effective December 18, 1865 freed the Negro. The Fourteenth Amendment gave him his citizenship and the Fifteenth Amendment gave him the right to vote. Theoretically this was beautiful but practically, the work had just begun.

The above is a survey showing that the question is of national rather than sectional importance. We have two major racial groups living within the same political and industrial areas, faced with racial, social, religious and economic problems, many of which are common to both. There is not only a difference in cultural heritage but also one in racial stock that cannot be overlooked. For more than seventy years there have been attempts made to reach a solution whereby the fundamental needs of the Negro might be at least partially satisfied and whereby harmonious adjustment between the races might be perfected. Theoretically, America is democratic, and each citizen regardless of race, religion or previous condition of servitude enjoys the cultural advantages and privileges of the nation. Practically, life is institutionalized, being divided

1. Ibid, p. 129.

into the family, school, vocation, church, state, recreation and many other institutions. The problems arise as to the definition of the nature and extent to which the Negro shall participate in each. In various sections different attitudes and practices exist. Several factors have served to bring about these inconsistencies, among which the disfranchisement of the Negro has played its part. Commenting on the situation in the South, Dr. Locke has this to say:¹

"When all favorable progress has been taken into account, therefore, there is still much injustice to be remedied; the persistence of lynching and mob-terror, the increasing tension and competition of white and Negro unskilled and semiskilled labor, the crowding of the Negro out of the higher ranks of labor, some of which he occupied earlier in the century, the continuation of the traditional policies of segregation in public, civic and educational activities, the inequitable distribution of the Negro share in public tax funds for schools and civic improvements, and continued lack of respect for the advancing class of Negroes, except from the few enlightened liberal elements in the Southern communities."

The race problem in America gives us an isolated group -- "a nation within a nation". Even within the largest cities there is a special section for the Negro. His barriers are very numerous. In industry there is a special wage or special job, if any at all for him. His earnings are so small that they hardly permit him to survive, let alone provide for a comfortable home, insurance, education, recreation and security. On his job he knows that he can advance so high and no higher. He knows that certain activities and opportunities that are really worth while are entirely closed to him and that which he does get he has to work almost twice as hard and be twice as efficient as his white competitor. (However, this particular fact has served to strengthen and make more aggressive a larger number of Negroes.) Because the masses have been uncultured, obsequious, boisterous, blunt and black; all of these factors have augmented prejudices against him. Thus, the race suffers malnutrition,

1. Locke, Alain, The Negro In America, p. 37, American Library Association, 1933

unhealthy living conditions, high mortality rates and social maladjustment. At present there are many federal, state, religious and philanthropic forces at work trying to alleviate these insatiable conditions. The Negro is deeply interested in his future and is working hard to better it. In spite of numerous handicaps he has made considerable progress in art, literature, science and along many other lines since his emancipation.¹

The "Negro Problem" is of fundamental significance to the American Society. There is an increasing momentum of interest on the part of thinking Americans who are looking for new techniques toward a satisfactory solution. Where a people constitute one-tenth of a nation's population it would be unwise for its cultural, social, economic and religious developments to go unnoted. It is true that for the culture of any group to be advanced to its maximum, each component that constitutes that group must concomitantly be advanced. There is an imperative need in the interest of a synthesized and well motivated personality and character of the Negro. There is a need for integration and correlation of the lives of the individuals so that they might reconstruct their own experiences as well as those of the race. There is a need for new direction and new attainable ideas in terms of practicable every day life. Definite success and progress for this group undoubtedly means a contribution to the society to which it belongs.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It was stated above that the Negro, because of his background, is very sensitive in regard to rhythm and music and that he has long been stimulated by a characteristic folklore. These tendencies have given rise to much creative literature and art. It has also been shown that the Negro is maladjusted in American life. Fundamentally and biologically the black man's

1. Brawley, Benjamin, A short History of the American Negro, (Social and Economic Progress).

needs are just the same as those of any other man. Science has discovered that his appetites, pleasures and pains or satisfactions and wants are common to all human beings. Therefore, if the race problem is going to be solved, it cannot be done without education -- education of both whites, blacks, and others to understand these facts and the soundest methods to be used in coping with them.

The established benefits accruing from our modern programs of physical education are such that there is a manifest need for exploring the possibilities of these programs as aides in the improvement of the social adjustment and physical status of the Negro. A program adequate to meet the requisites of the Negro cannot be determined until there is a clear understanding of the basic factors which create the above mentioned maladjustments. Further, the solution of the "Negro Problem" cannot be attained without adequate provisions for physical education. We, therefore, see that there is a felt urgency for a study reaching the basic causes of these conditions in relation to specific needs for physical education. It then seems that a service could be rendered by determining these needs upon the basis of our findings in general education, the Negro's socio-economic and health status.

It is not suggested that physical education is a panacea. However, it is recognized that if supported by adequate nurture it does help develop stronger bodies, keener minds and shape fuller and richer lives. It is further the purpose of this study to suggest the types of activities for the Negro based upon the discoveries made in these findings.

CHAPTER II

METHODS OF PROCEDURE

In attempting to apply the sociological contributions of physical education to the needs of the Negro, the writer has followed the methods indicated below:

I. A brief historical review reveals that the Negro has a unique social heritage, is sensitive to rhythm and music, and is stimulated by a characteristic folk lore. But, fundamentally and biologically the black man's needs are much the same as any other man's.

II. The best way to determine the state and quality of his education is to weigh the extent and nature of his participation in society.

III. A recognition that if education is to carry on as a process of growth and continuous reconstruction of experiences it will do so only to the extent which it provides for learning through activity.

IV. The sources of information relative to the socio-economic status of the Negro are as follows:

- (1) United States Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census
- (2) United States Department of Interior
Office of Education

Bureau of Public Health

Federal Housing Administration

Federal Emergency Relief Association

- (3) United States Department of Labor
Children's Bureau
- (4) United States Department of Justice
- (5) The National Recreation Association
- (6) National Youth Administration Office
- (7) Congressional Library
- (8) Various Library References

CHAPTER III

CHARACTERISTICS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

The educator today has been made to realize the complexity of our changing society and also that of the changing individual. Education, philosophy, government, and religion are all searching for new truths and larger controls. They are reconstructing their theories so that they may become rehabilitated and gain renewed positions in our present social order. Scientific and mechanical forces discovered have so increased the tempo of life that even the promoters and inventors are trembling with fear of the "uncontrollable monster". Our mechanical ingenuity has preceded our social invention so far that our entire social equilibrium has been upset.

The world today is suffering with a hysteria. There is human restlessness everywhere. Revolutions and wars have terrorized and threatened every civilized nation almost to the saturation point. Weaker and minority nations and races are suffering iniquities; animosities, armies and navies are being increased on every hand. The pragmatist of yesterday would have concluded that some great curse has been cast upon mankind. Thus, if we are going to preserve and protect our centuries of progress, some force will have to redirect our present trends. This direction will have to come through another course of education; from the intelligence and courage of man and confidence and faith in his brother.

Society is an organization of institutions created by man as instruments and techniques to help satisfy his original and acquired needs that he might gain maximum self-expression and happiness in the here and now. It is the purpose of the individual to open up the avenues of life and to enrich the GROWING POINT of social evolution. Therefore, it is the function of education to develop a race of individuals who will continue to improve and enrich the institutions of society, promoting continued social growth. The question might

be asked -- How is education going to guide individuals so that they will further social development? There are four main ways. First; modern education is trying to develop a race of farsighted people who can see the consequences of an act before it happens. We need self-assertive and highly moral people. The only way to develop these traits is to start in childhood at pre-school and school ages when the youngster first begins to see the meaning of acts. We should have children to understand that if they should commit an act that they have to bear the responsibility for it.

"One may learn by doing something which he does not understand; even in the most intelligent action, we do much which we do not mean, because the largest portion of the connections of the act we consciously intend are not perceived or anticipated. But we learn only because after the act is performed we note results which we had not noted before. But much work in school consists in setting up rules by which pupils are to act of such a sort that even after pupils have acted, they are not led to see the connections between the result - say the answer - and the method pursued." 1

We want to develop a farsighted, rational race which will foresee a greater array of results of an act before it takes place. The greater number of consequences and meanings that the individual is able to see resulting from one little act, the stronger and more effective type of society are we going to be able to build. If we stop and think before impulsive action the stimulus is being spiritualized - it is being transformed and instead of getting a "spinal cord" reaction it is changed and we get an intelligent one. We will continue to suffer social confusion until we are able to develop more individuals possessing these characteristics.

Secondly; modern education is striving to develop a more REPRESENTATIVE type of individual. It is striving to develop a technique whereby the child will reflect the likes and dislikes of the group, community, and of society. With high and plainly defined standards of what is a like or a dislike, it is not hard for the individual to misunderstand. The group likes honesty, thrift, persistence, high intelligence, virtue, good morals, indifference to personal

1. Dewey, John, Democracy and Education, p. 91 - MacMillan Co., N. Y., 1916.

pleasures, aggressiveness, unselfishness, continued growth and the ability to get along with others. It is the business of education to develop these traits and discourage the dislikes or negatives such as stealing, cheating, hating, jealousy, superstitions, and laziness. The group does not want the individual to feel that society is indebted to him or that he can enjoy the resources and happiness of life without putting forth an honest effort in return. Instead, there is a desire for an inspirational and healthy individual who craves cooperation and group progress. One of the best ways to measure these results is seen in the extent to which the members of a community reflect the likes and dislikes. The best way to develop these desires is to start with the school curriculum. This curriculum should not only embody what the adult thinks is best, but also include those things of interest to the child. "It is not some social interest above or apart from or undiscoverable in the individual which some self constituted observer attempts to tabulate. The curriculum is found in the individual purpose of men, women and children."¹ Therefore, if the curriculum is properly constructed it will include child interests. By so doing, the school will be a place of fun and pleasure where boys and girls go not only to sit tiredly and monotonously through a formal program but also gain knowledge about life, and enjoy participation through living. There will be a natural outlet and expression which can be given in an approved way. This will help us to eliminate a large amount of nervousness, neurasthenia, hysteria, day dreaming and delinquent practices. Youth will be instructed in a technique whereby he can realize definite success in something; the community will be given a technique for developing a representative person for expressing the likes and dislikes of the group, of which it will be proud.

Thirdly, it is the function of education to develop the technique of relating momentary interest, whims and appetites to larger interests. If all

1. My Philosophy of Life and Education - William A. McCall, Teacher's College Record, Vol. 35, April, 1934, p. 565.

of man's activities were tied up into the appetite of the moment we would not get very far. Our real interests are those that determine our behaviour seven days out of the week. They are like our religion. If it is a religion that is with us only on Sundays while we are at church, it will be of little life-giving value to us. If it is the sort that influences our thinking; every decision that we make and our total behaviour, then we have a worth while religion. A very beautiful example of smaller interests growing into larger is brought out in the few lines below:

"Boys who are at first interested in skill in playing marbles or ball simply because it is a factor in a game which interests them, become interested in practicing the acts of shooting at a mark, or throwing, catching, etc., and so ardently devote themselves to the perfecting of skill. The technical exercises that give skill in the game become themselves a sort of a game. Girls who are interested in making clothes for a doll, simply for the sake of the interest in playing with dolls, may develop an interest in making clothes till the doll itself becomes simply a sort of an excuse, or at least just a stimulus for making clothes."¹

To further express it we might say that on a rainy day we wear a rain coat and carry an umbrella. To keep from getting wet is the small interest but the protection of the health is the greater. Again, we get a position and work hard, year in and year out. The monetary reward is the primary interest, but in back of that are numerous larger interests. Nice clothes, owning a comfortable home, a fine car and being able to provide one's family and himself with all of the necessities and comforts of life are those basic aims. We want to develop interests that will multiply. In short, stimulate the individual so that he will make his optimum and maximum contribution to society.

Finally, it is the business of education to develop a race of people who can solve its problems. We want individuals who are able to enrich their lives by thinking. Thinking arises out of routine activity where there is very little cortical organization and grows into more activity and organization. Dewey says:

1. Dewey, John, Interest and Effort in Education, p. 39, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1913

"Routine, action, action which is automatic, may increase skill to do a particular thing. In so far, it might be said to have an educative effect. But it does not lead to new preceptions bearings and connections; it limits rather than widens the meaning-horizon." 1

We go along enjoying this routine action until we strike a check, a block or a hindrance. There are two ways of solving these problems, namely; through the process of trial and error or through intelligent insight into the relationships of the parts to the whole.² Education is concerned mostly with the latter when teaching children to solve problems. The first step in this procedure is that we make sensory observations. The scientist calls it collecting facts or data, the physician says that he looks for symptoms and the detective searches for what he calls clues, all of which are merely forms of observation.

Secondly, the object is to look for facts that have a bearing upon the problem and when a sufficient number have been collected we say that we understand it. If we want a nation of good thinkers we have to make all members good observers. We have to be able to isolate or recognize certain characteristics, qualities, properties and relationships. Instruments such as microscopes, telescopes, thermometers and test tubes help us to observe and collect data. "Understanding objects, events and acts enable one to participate effectively in associated activities."³

In the third step, after we have found a sufficient number of facts that have a bearing upon our problem we build our theories. When man is theorizing he is trying to get some larger objects or some events which possesses the observed characteristics. For example, man had a very different conception of the earth until Copernicus, dissatisfied with the old Ptolemaic explanation, advanced his own theory.⁴ He had observed the daily course of the sun from the

1. Dewey, John, Democracy and Education, p. 91.

2. Koffka, K., The Growth of the Mind, pp. 167-170, Harcourt, Brace Co., London

3. Dewey, John, Democracy and Education, p. 43.

4. Cubberley, Ellwood P., The History of Education, p. 386, Houghton Mifflin Co.

rising in the morning until the setting in the evening. He had also noted how ships seemed to disappear, getting smaller and smaller, then going over the "hill". He had observed many other characteristics and relations, one of which was a spherical type of object which lead him to the conclusions of the great similarities between the shape of the earth and a sphere. Therefore, he set forth the theory that the earth is round.

In the fourth step, education aims to increase the ability to reason. The act of reasoning takes the concepts, qualities and properties that we have observed and understand and compares them with those observed by authorities or experts in the field. That is, if a physician diagnosis a disease which a patient has, he finds that the patient has symptoms a, b, c, d, and e. These are his own observations. Now, say that tubersulosis causes a person to have these same symptoms. The physician compares his findings with l, m, n, o, and q, or the observations made by experts. If a, b, c, d, and e check with the latter, then it is concluded that the patient has tuberculosis and it is for that which he is treated.

Finally, after recognizing these factors, we have solved our problems and go into increased or enriched automatic activity.

The above are the characteristics of general education applicable to any race or nation. We are interested in developing people who are able to make free and independent judgements in their every day living. We want to see people who are controlled by science and not by superstitions, magic or dreams.

"Education may be conceived either retrospectively or prospectively. That is to say, it may be treated as a process of accommodating the future to the past, or as an utilisation of the past for a resource in developing the future."¹

In case of the former, the individual would find his standards and patterns in the past or that which has gone before. In case of the latter, the individual, gets from the past eachniques for adding deeper and broader meaning

1. Dewey, John, Democracy and Education, pp. 92-93.

to the present and future. Instead of experiencing routine action and current habits, he thus becomes able to improve the new over the old. He grows and develops for there is a continuous reorganization or reconstruction of his experiences. The best way to determine the state and quality of his education is to weigh the extent and nature of his participation in society. Therefore, we see education as an instrument for preserving our past achievements and giving man a better method of reacting to the forces of his environment; to broaden his outlook; to help him take more consequences into account and to help promote a more enriched and effective social order.

1. Ibid, p. 128.

CHAPTER IV

SOME OF THE SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The modern educator has become fully aware of the values resulting from a well rounded program of physical education. The early Athenians were the first civilized people, as recorded by historians, to recognize this fact.¹ They made ample provision for "gymnastics" or athletic activities which constituted one-half of the educational curriculum, with "music" or music and literary subjects accounting for the rest. The Athenians had a keen aesthetic sense which permeated their philosophy, literature, art and athletics. The body was looked upon as a gift from the gods and all citizens in their youth were given training by expert teachers in all of the known sports, exercises and physical movements. The object in back of this was to gain health, strength, grace, poise, endurance and beauty in all acts of living. These people looked upon life as a unity and believed that for man, theoretically to be separated into two parts, mind and body, that he would not function properly in their society.

There came a period in our history known as the "Dark Ages", which lasted from about 476 A.D. until 1453. This era came about after the fall of the Roman Empire and with the domination of the Barbarian tribes. These new people were large, strong and healthy but had taken on little of the higher civilization.

"In general they represented a degree of civilization not particularly different from that of the better American Indians in our colonial period, though possessing a much larger ability to learn. The two terrible centuries' which brought these new peoples into the Empire were marked by unspeakable disorder and frightful destruction. It was the most complete catastrophe that had ever befallen civilized society."²

During this Medieval period or the Dark Ages, the church took over formal education and schools. Out of the teachings and doctrines of the church there

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1. Rice, Emmett A., A Brief History of Physical Education, pp. 23-29, A. S. Barnes Co., New York, 1926.
 2. Cubberley, Ellwood P., History of Education, pp. 115-116.

arose the era of Scholasticism.¹ In the latter part of the twelfth and the thirteenth century it was at its height. The work of Scholasticism was characterized by a systematization and organization into good teaching form of what had grown up during the past thousand years.² The "Scholars" or the followers of that dogma practiced the glorification of the mental or all education and acts of reasoning.³ Because of the long period of ignorance and brutishness which dominated, or because they wrongly interpreted the philosophers of the ancient Greeks, there was a neglect or degradation of the physical.

There was also another dogma known as Asceticism which grew out of the Medieval christian church.⁴ Asceticism gave rise to Puritanism in America. Those who held this belief viewed the body as an implement of the devil and anything which gave satisfaction to it was sinful. Thus, the Medieval period contributed little to physical education. Instead, the high ideals of body grace, poise, strength and beauty which civilization had once known, had been long lost by the end of the era.

The period known as the "Revival of Learning" was an awakening era of the scholar to the true meanings of the Greek philosophy, art and athletics and life. Later, through the exponents of the "Scientific Method" and the writings and teachings of Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, John Dewey and others, the world was given a new insight upon the function of the mind and body.

Physical education today represents a form of education which has been influenced by many philosophies. It emerged from the retarding effects of the Middle Ages; it has been colored by the teachings of the afore-mentioned philosophers; it has withstood the barrage of military enthusiasts; it has run the gantlet of the German, Swedish, Danish and other so-called systems, and it

1. Ibid, p. 190.

2. Ibid, p. 191.

3. Nixon, Eugene W., and Cozens, Fredrick W., An Introduction to Physical Education, p. 42., W. B. Saunders Co., 1934.

4. Rice, Emmett A., A Brief History of Physical Education, p. 54.

has managed to salvage what might be considered best from the many 'conditioning agencies' and emerged to take its place as a worthy phase of modern education.

Educators today recognize that if education is to carry on as a process of growth and continuous reconstruction of experiences, it will do so only to the extent to which it provides for learning through activity. Psychologists have long recognized this fact. Recent leaders in physical education became aware of this fundamental principle also. Physical education and play activities are used as our first steps in progressive education and socialization of our youth.

We are faced often with the question - What is physical education?

Hetherington has defined it as follows:¹

"Physical education is that phase of education which is concerned, first, with the organization and the leadership of children in big-muscle activities, to gain the development and adjustment inherent in the activities according to social standards; and second, with the control of health and growth conditions naturally associated with leadership of the activities, so that educational processes may go on without growth handicaps."

It is quite clear that physical education does not mean just exercise.

It means far more than that; it is education, it is a controlled and directed activity. In the light of this definition we see at once that good organization becomes a fundamental factor in physical education. Without it even in our informal types of teachings we cannot be very effective. Good environment and proper leadership are necessary for the highest and best types of learning. Good organization and facilities under inadequate leadership spell disaster.

By the statement, "to gain the development and adjustment inherent in these activities according to social standards," is meant, to reap those physical

1. Hetherington, Clark W., A School Program in Physical Education, p. 45, World Book Co., 1924.

and mental racially old or natural benefits accrued through participation in these activities, supported by adequate nurture as approved by our society.

Last of all, if we should do all of the above with no regard for the health and growth conditions of the individual it would be in vain. This we shall see even clearer in the following paragraph on aims.

AIMS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

A philosophy of education naturally precedes methods and practices in education, or any phase of it. Thus, the philosophers of general education, mentioned above, preceded those of physical education. The principles of physical education as set forth by Dr. Jesse F. Williams, Dr. Hetherington, and others in the field, closely parallel the theories of modern education. The writer, therefore, has accepted these men as leaders.

Any discussion of physical education necessarily carries with it a clear and concise statement of the aims that should be followed in the application of the program. Dr. Williams states the aims of physical education in the following:¹

"Physical education should aim to provide skilled leadership and adequate facilities that will afford an opportunity for the individual or group to act in situations that are physically wholesome, mentally stimulating and satisfying, and socially sound."

As the reader might recognize, Williams may have been influenced by the Greek philosopher who advanced the concept of "a sound mind in a sound body" or he may have been influenced by a naturalistic concept of Rousseau, or motivated by the "doing process" of John Dewey. Without much stretch of the imagination one may realize that Williams might have been influenced in his thinking by all three of the afore-mentioned philosophies. Thus, our present concept of physical education probably not only extends into the past but is conceivably colored by the present.

Since it's likely that any phase of education will be effected by the

1. Progressive Education Association, Committee Report on Relations of Secondary Schools and Colleges, 1935.

past and contemporary philosophers it is reasonable to believe that the present system of education and its underlying social philosophy will influence present day thought. The most recent educational method advanced by the leaders today is that of progressive education and its roots reach deep into our accepted democratic philosophy.

Progressive education denotes, that education which enables the individual independently to reconstruct his experiences, and intelligently to evolve a philosophy of life.¹ It enables him to solve individual and social problems in a discriminating manner for his greatest social usefulness and private happiness. Those who believe in the democratic philosophy of education, or the progressive school seek to attain these ends through emphasis on the following concepts: 1. Freedom to learn; 2. creative self-expression; 3. motivation through child interest; 4. purposeful activity; 5. social-mindedness; 6. self-integration through intelligence; 7. teacher sensitivity to individual differences, and 9. conscious school experimentation.

The writer is assuming that Williams is one of the foremost leaders in the field of physical education; that his philosophy of aims and principles are sound and in accordance with recent trends of education and based upon the democratic philosophy. Upon this assumption the writer will summarize the principles set forth by Williams as a guide to the aims of physical education.²

1. Physical education can never be satisfied and cannot justify its work with correction of defects, physiological exercises, and motor skill as the chief or sole aim of its program.

2. The aim for physical education at one period may be totally unacceptable at another, due to new facts discovered or changes in points of view.

1. Progressive Education Association, Committee Report on Relations of Secondary Schools and Colleges, 1935.

2. Williams, J. F., Op.cit., Ibid., pp. 289-290.

3. Physical education will require overwhelming proof for the validity a procedure that is antagonistic and contrary to natural impulses.

4. The aim of physical education must reflect the characteristics of human beings and the needs of society.

5. It is short sighted to build the aim upon the basis of physical limitation of equipment.

6. The aims and objectives of physical education must be expressed in harmony with the established facts of psychology, biology and sociology.

OBJECTIVES OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

In interpreting objectives of Physical Education the writer has taken the liberty to quote Dr. Oberteuffer who is a former student of Williams. This seems to be the reasonable thing to do in order to have a thread of continuity between aims and objectives.

The objectives of physical education differ from the aims in that they represent the specific points along the way which contribute to the realization of the aim. The aim is never realized. The objectives are within the reach of practical accomplishments. Dr. Oberteuffer lists three main objectives of the program of physical education in terms of education, namely,¹

1. To promote organic vigor through motor activities.
2. To teach recreative skills so as to contribute to education in the worthy use of leisure time.
3. To assist the individual in making a harmonious adjustment to the social world, to teach those significant lessons of the play-field conducive to getting along better with his fellowman; in a word, to educate in socialization.

1. Oberteuffer, D., Health and Physical Education Series, III, p. 13, State of Ohio Department of Education, Herr Co., Columbus, Ohio.

Similar objectives have been proposed by Williams¹, Hetherington², Rogers³, Nash⁴, Sharman⁵, and others. For this purpose the writer will discuss the objectives of physical education from the standpoint of some of their sociological contributions.

SOCIOLOGICAL.

A person may be so conditioned by an environment that may be favorable or unfavorable. If it is favorable we say that he turns out to be a good citizen. Likewise, if the individual is conditioned by an unfavorable environment, it is likely that he will become an asocial member of society.

The objectives discussed here comprise those of a social nature: social standards, values, attitudes and ideals. "Social standards" include all that is involved in character training, moral education, education in manners and ideals, leisure, recreation, training for leadership, followership and citizenship. Generally speaking, the school is primarily concerned with two main results that accrue from methods of teaching. One relates to technical skill, knowledge and information. The other, which is closely associated, relates to values and standards that have the approval of society. They may be described as ways of performing skills or exercising knowledge, namely: neatness in writing, cleanliness of hands, walking and sitting in good posture. They may be achieved in school, in the home, and in other institutions. Kilpatrick would call these "concomitant learnings" and they are largely dependent upon the methods used, recognition of a need and the subsequent approval and efforts of the teacher. Nixon and Cozens organize this group as follows:⁶

1. To cultivate an attitude of fairness which will take into account habitually the rights and welfare of others.

1. Williams, J. F., Principles of Physical Education.
2. Hetherington, C. W., A School Program of Physical Education.
3. Rogers, F. R., Educational Objectives of Physical Activity.
4. Nash, J. B., The Administration of Physical Education, A. S. Barnes Co. N.Y.1931.
5. Sharman, J. R., Introduction to Physical Education, A. S. Barnes Co., N.Y.1934.
6. Nixon, E. W., and Cozens, F. W., An Introduction to Physical Education, pp.89-90.

2. To cultivate an attitude of cooperation in enterprises intended for the common good. These are not only virtues found lacking in human beings, but they are by all means the most important for the welfare of our society.

3. To develop an interested participation in stimulating activities with a strong emotional element, to counteract the influences of the radio, motion picture and other sedentary forms of entertainment which tend to make this an age of vicarious emotional experience and synthetic participation.

4. To offer favorable opportunities for participation in socializing activities that will counteract tendencies toward injurious or vicious forms of play and various types of juvenile delinquency.

5. To offer the adolescent group opportunities for the acquisition of skills in recreational activities of the big-muscle type which can be used profitably in later life.

6. To develop the capacity for quick adjustment to the motives, moves, and intentions of others, so as to be better equipped to meet changing conditions of modern society.

The above mentioned writers believed that the following questions are asked as a basis for the formulation of objectives:

1. What are the needs in terms of growth development, and adjustment of the individual or groups to be educated?

2. What activities will best contribute to the satisfaction of these specific needs?

3. What are the characteristics of an environment which will best promote such desirable activities?

They believe that ultimately the objectives formed will relate to (a) a determination of the needs of the individual, (b) choice of activities, and (c) provision of a suitable environment.

One of the best ways by which the sociological contributions can be made to the lives of individuals is through organized and supervised recreation and physical education. The writer attempts to clarify this view in the sections on crime and recreation in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE NEGRO

The assimilation of the Negro into the American society is a difficult process. Such factors as his social heritage, his state of literacy, cultural and social attitudes have greatly retarded his socialization. For decades he had constituted a large percentage of the nation's gainfully occupied people. Also, he has participated loyally in its wars, its institutions and every field of endeavour in which he has been admitted.

The 1930 census reports of the United States as well as the 1935 occupational census, conducted by the Works Progress Administration, indicate obviously that the Negro constitutes the lowest economic group of the nation's population. In 1930, 5,503,555 Negroes (3,662,893 males and 1,840,642 females) ten years old and above were engaged in gainful occupations.¹ The proportion of the population 10 years old and over gainfully occupied in 1930 was higher for Negroes than for either native whites or foreign born whites.² This fact is accounted for largely by the relatively large proportions of Negro females 10 years old and over gainfully occupied, 38.9 percent, as compared with 20.5 percent of the native white females and with 18.8 percent of the foreign born females. The proportion of males 10 years old and over gainfully occupied in 1930 was 80.2 percent of Negroes as compared with 88.4 percent for foreign born whites.³ In the South there were 68.5 percent of the Negroes, 45.6 percent of the native white and 56.9 percent of the foreign born white population 10 years of age and older gainfully occupied; in the North 61.6 percent of the Negroes, 47.4 percent of the native white, and 55.8 percent of the foreign born 10 years old and over were gainfully occupied; and in the West 62.4 percent

1. U. S. Dept. of Commerce - Bureau of the Census - Negroes in the U. S. 1920-1932, p. 290.

2. Edwards, Alba M., The Negro As a Factor In the Nation's Labor Force, p. 529, Journal of the American Statistical Association, Sept. 1936, Vol. 31, No. 195.

3. U. S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census - Negroes in the U. S. - 1920-1932, pp. 287-360.

of Negroes, 48.8 percent of the native white, and 58.1 percent of the foreign born 10 years of age and over were gainfully occupied. Although increases were reported in 1930 over 1920 in the number of persons in each section who were gainfully occupied, the ratio of those occupied to the total population decreased considerably.

BACKGROUND OF THE NEGRO WORKER

The proclamation issued by President Abraham Lincoln on January 1, 1865 emancipated more than 3,000,000 slaves in the seceded States. The Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution liberated an additional 800,000 in other States. It can readily be seen that by far the largest number of Negroes were in the rural and agricultural South, and that this proclamation was a severe blow to its entire economic order.¹ Some Negroes were quite satisfied with their conditions as well as attached to their masters and refused to accept their freedom. On the other hand, there was a general attitude of hostility toward the Negro's migration, while other Negroes were too ignorant to fully appreciate the significance of the proclamation.

"A stroke of the pen had declared the bondmen free; but to educate these people, to train them in citizenship, and to give them a place in the new labor system, was all a problem for the wisest statesmanship and the largest and most intelligent patriotism."²

From the above paragraph it can readily be seen that the burden of this gigantic economic and social problem fell upon the Southerner, who had gained most from the spoils of the system of slavery. The greater percentage of those 3,000,000 free Southern Negroes had been trained to till the soil. They knew nothing else. The journey to citizenship was started with a very poor social heritage. No formal training and no cultural background to cope with

1. Brawley, Benjamin, A Short History of the American Negro, pp. 118-131, The MacMillian Co., 1927.

2. Brawley, Benjamin, A Short History of the American Negro, pp. 118-131, The MacMillian Co., 1927.

the forces of one of the most complex social orders in the world, had been given the Negro slave in general. All that he had gained from life was his training for slavery or that which he had learned from other slaves or from contact with the master's family.¹ A few Negroes were given land and became self-sustaining. The masses were dependent directly upon the landowner or the former master.

NEGRO SHARECROPPERS, TENANTS, AND FARMLABORERS

The Civil War swept away the fortunes of thousands of white Southerners.² This condition along with that explained in the preceeding paragraph gave birth to the plantation system which perpetuated many of the evils of slavery in tenant farming and sharecropping. This can be no better explained than as done by Johnson.³

"The plantation in theory was a capitol investment for large scale production under a continuing routine. Its purpose was not the encouragement of peasant proprietorship. The social relations, labor, mentality, and discipline fostered by it are at the same time reflected in its surviving forms and traditions, and in the continueing selection and molding of its tenant types. It demands an unquestioning obedience to its managerial intelligence; it demands the right to dictate and control every stage of cultivation it cannot and does not tolerate a suggestion of independence."

When a Negro tenant wishes to gain his freedom from such a system he had to escape in secrecy for he endangers his life. The Federal Government has made many recent investigations into this system and steps are being made to relieve the humiliation and oppression from both the white and the black tenant farmers and sharecroppers.

The 1930 census showed that 1,987,839 Negroes or 36.1 percent of all

Negroes gainfully employed were engaged in agriculture. There are 925,708

1. Johnson, Charles S., Shadow of the Plantation, p. 3., The University of Chicago Press, 1934.

2. Ibid - No. 1., p. 118.

3. Johnson, Charles S., Shadow of the Plantation, p. 126.

TABLE I.

NEGRO GAINFUL WORKERS IN THE UNITED STATES CLASSIFIED INTO SOCIAL-ECONOMIC GROUPS BY SEX: 1910 to 1930 - 1.						
Sex and Group	NUMBERS			Percent Distribution		
	1930	1920	1910	1930	1920	1910
Total	5,503,535	4,824,151	5,192,535	100.0	100.0	100.0
1. Professional Persons	115,765	77,118	64,648	2.1	1.6	1.2
2. Proprietors, managers & officials	929,644	973,253	923,404	16.9	20.2	17.8
2-a. Farmers (owners & tenants)	873,653	932,050	833,408	15.9	19.3	17.0
2-b. Wholesale and retail dealers	28,343	23,593	20,894	0.5	0.5	0.4
2-c. Other proprs., mgrs., & off.	27,648	17,610	19,102	0.5	0.4	0.4
3. Clerks and kindred workers	82,669	63,095	38,698	1.5	1.3	0.7
4. Skilled workers and Foremen	176,912	150,428	115,300	3.2	3.1	2.2
5. Semiskilled Workers	515,381	369,761	258,258	9.4	7.7	5.0
5-a. Semiskilled workers in mfg.	181,079	161,892	107,869	3.3	3.4	2.1
5-b. Other semiskilled workers	334,302	207,869	150,389	6.1	4.3	2.9
6. Unskilled workers	3,683,164	3,190,496	3,792,227	66.9	66.1	73.0
6-a. Farm laborers	1,112,510	1,198,140	1,949,848	20.2	24.8	37.6
6-b. Factory & bldg. Const. laborers	674,187	601,295	438,327	12.3	12.2	8.4
6-c. Other laborers	516,414	446,154	389,956	9.4	9.2	7.5
6-d. Servant classes	1,380,053	944,907	1,014,096	25.1	19.6	19.5

1. Edwards, Alba M., The Negro as a Factor in the Nation's Labor Force, Journal of the American Statistical Association, p. 532, Sept., 1936, Vol. 31, No. 195.

TABLE I. Continued

Male	3,662,933	3,252,862	3,178,554	100.0	100.0	100.0
1. Professional Persons	55,610	39,434	36,815	1.5	1.2	1.1
2. Proprietors, managers & officials	842,920	885,385	836,852	23.2	27.2	26.3
2-a. Farmers (owners & tenants)	797,251	851,621	803,477	21.8	26.2	25.3
2-b. Wholesale and retail dealers	24,493	20,455	17,888	0.7	0.6	0.6
2-c. Other proprs., mgrs., & off.	21,196	13,309	15,467	0.6	0.4	0.5
3. Clerks and kindred workers	62,138	48,047	51,926	1.7	1.5	1.0
4. Skilled workers and Foremen	175,537	148,551	144,269	4.8	4.6	3.6
5. Semiskilled workers	229,374	228,806	148,579	9.0	7.0	4.7
5-a. Semiskilled workers in mfg.	104,441	91,817	53,430	2.9	2.8	1.7
5-b. Other semiskilled workers	224,933	136,989	95,149	6.1	4.2	3.0
6. Unskilled workers	2,197,314	1,902,639	2,011,113	60.0	58.5	63.3
6-a. Farm laborers	693,669	667,317	979,354	18.9	20.5	30.8
6-b. Factory & bldg. Const. laborers	650,925	567,311	425,307	17.8	17.4	13.4
6-c. Other laborers	508,754	438,157	386,263	13.9	13.5	12.2
6-d. Servant classes	343,966	229,854	220,189	9.4	7.1	6.9
Female	1,840,642	1,571,289	2,013,981	100.0	100.0	100.0
1. Professional Persons	60,155	37,684	28,333	3.3	2.4	1.4
2. Proprietors, managers & officials	86,724	87,868	86,552	4.7	5.6	4.3
2-a. Farmers (owners & tenants)	76,422	80,429	79,381	4.2	5.1	4.0
2-b. Wholesale and retail dealers	3,850	3,138	3,006	0.2	0.2	0.1
2-c. Other proprs., mgrs., & off.	6,452	4,301	3,615	0.4	0.3	0.2
3. Clerks and kindred workers	20,531	15,048	6,772	1.1	1.0	0.3
4. Skilled workers and Foremen	1,375	1,377	1,031	0.1	0.1	0.1
5. Semiskilled workers	186,007	140,955	109,679	10.1	9.0	5.4
5-a. Semiskilled workers in mfg.	76,638	70,075	54,439	4.2	4.5	2.7
5-b. Other semiskilled workers	109,369	70,880	55,240	5.9	4.5	2.7
6. Unskilled workers	1,485,850	1,287,850	1,781,114	80.7	82.7	88.4
6-a. Farm laborers	41,841	530,823	970,494	22.8	33.8	48.2
6-b. Factory & bldg. const. laborers	23,262	33,984	13,020	1.3	2.2	0.6
6-c. Other laborers	7,660	7,997	3,693	0.4	0.5	0.2
6-d. Servant classes	1,036,087	715,053	793,907	56.3	45.5	39.4

Negroes operating 41,432,182 farm acres, with land and buildings valued at \$2,555,645,325 and a 23.6 percent ownership consisting of 218,612 farms with 13,945,612 acres.¹ The Monthly Report of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration² shows that of the 6,697,230 Rural Negroes, for both South and North, 980,000 or 14.6 percent as compared with 7,820,000 or 16.6 of white and all other people, were unemployed, (See Table III). By far the greatest number of Negroes in agriculture are in the South and are classified as tenant farmers, sharecroppers and farm laborers. Many of them live as did the European serfs under the system of feudalism. They are chained to the soil and live in a constant state of poverty. Their diet consists of fat pork meat and cornbread. Johnson,³ reports a Negro tenant as commenting upon the situation:

"We can't get any flour, snuff, shoes, sugar, coffee, thread, or anything from the landlord but meat and meal. We have a devil of a time. No soap, soda or salt. Can't borrow a dime, not a damn cent. If this ain't hell, I'll eat you. We work our damn heads off and git nothing. The harder we work, the deeper in debt we gits."

Thus, he expressed the true conditions of present peonage and slavery of thousands of his fellow men through the South who are barely existing and working. They are forced by conditions to use every means in trying to push forward. The Negro's wife, there, works along beside him, as well as does each child as soon as he becomes large enough to assist, for this increases the family's earning capacity. This is one reason that the Negro farmer has such large families.⁴

"It is evident that all is not exploitation. The high level of illiteracy at times fuses its weight with a difference and ignorance which not only invite exploitation but make misunderstandings inevitable." 5

1. The U. S. Census of Agriculture, U. S. Dept. of Commerce - Bureau of Census.
2. Smith, Alfred Edgar, The Negro and Relief, Monthly Report of the F. E. R. A., p. 11, March 1, through March 31, 1935, U. S. Govt. Printing Office, Wash. D. C.
3. Johnson, Charles S., Embre, Edwin R., and Alexander, W. W., The Collapse of Cotton Tenancy, pp. 18-19, University of North Carolina Press, 1935.
4. Ibid, p. 193 5. Ibid, p. 126.

Many Negroes in this category are unable to read, write or count. They do not know what they earn nor are they certain as to their agreements with the planter as to the amount of service expected or their shares of the crops.

THE LAND-OWNING NEGRO FARMER

The greatest number of the 23.6 percent of the land-owning Negro farmers are located in the South. The general conditions with them are much better better than with the tenants, sharecroppers and the farm laborers. Many of them are enjoying several conveniences of modern life and the advantages of education as do the white farm owners. Through out the South there are many such land owners who are in good circumstances. Today the Farm Credit Administration, through its many agents and agencies, is making it possible for the land owner to better his position and for the non-land-owning farmer to finance his crops and acquire property.

DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVANTS

The next highest percentage of Negroes gainfully employed in 1930 were found in the servant classes. In both the South and the North there were 1,380,053 of these persons so gainfully occupied. There has been a great increase in both sections of the country in this work. This is shown plainly in Table I. In the South there has been a drift from the fields to the domestic and personal service and in the North it has been a drift from the South as well as from other occupations as caused during the depression. The Fifteenth Census of the United States showed a slight decrease in the agricultural population for the entire United States.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS

"The position occupied by Negroes in the Nation's labor force, and also their social-economic status, can be shown best by grouping the Negro gainful workers into a few large social-economic groups such as professional persons; proprietors, managers, and officials; clerks and kindred workers; skilled workers; semiskilled workers; and unskilled workers."¹

1. Edwards, Alba M., The Negro as a Factor in the Nation's Labor Force, p. 531. Journal of the American Statistical Association Sept. 1936, Vol. 31, No. 195.

From Table I, it is seen that the professional persons formed only 2.1 percent of all Negro workers in 1930, while proprietors, managers, and officials constituted 16.9 percent of the total. Most of those in this group were either farm owners or farm tenants. Clerks and those doing all types of clerical work, formed only 1.5 percent of the total.

Those people whose occupations required long periods of training or an apprenticeship were classified as skilled workers or foremen. They are such people as carpenters, machinists, plumbers, and electricians. In 1930 this group composed only 3.2 percent of all Negro gainful workers.

"The skilled, the semiskilled, and the unskilled are all manual workers. Almost 8 out of 10 (79.5 percent) of the Negro workers in 1930 were in these three groups. It is quite probably, also that most of the Negro farm owners and tenants are actually engaged in manual labor and that the Negro croppers, in the work they do, do not differ greatly from farm laborers. If the Negro farm owners and tenants be considered manual workers, then in 1930, more than 95 out of each 100 (95.4 percent) of the Negro workers were engaged in manual work; and if the 392,897 Negro croppers be considered unskilled, then in 1930, 74.1 percent of the Negro workers were in unskilled pursuits." 1

The period from 1910 to 1920 was one of great unrest and migration of the Negro from the rural South to urban Northern centers. For many years this new labor in the north was used as strike breakers. The Negro, looking to better his position, eagerly grasped the opportunities for work with higher wages and greater social and educational advantages. At that time industrial leaders gave no thought or were not greatly concerned as to the integration of the Negro into industry, society, nor to the total consequences.

The findings of the 1930 census, as shown by Table I, have great significance. During the period from 1910 to 1930 many changes were taking place in the socio-economic distribution of Negro gainful workers. The number of professional persons (proprietors, managers and officials other than farmers), skilled workers and foremen increased considerably. Negro clerical workers and semiskilled workers nearly doubled, while there was a

1. Ibid, p. 533.

noticeable increase among unskilled and other laborers and a decreased farm labor. Four other important significances shown by Tables I and IV are: (1) In general the Negro is slowly becoming distributed through a greater part of the nation's economic system, (2) specifically, the Negro is concentrated into a few occupations, namely, as servants, farm laborers and unskilled laborers, (3) the Negro owns little industry and 95 percent of his income, as indicated elsewhere, is derived from manual labor, (4) the high percentage of all Negro women who are gainfully occupied.

During the depression it was evidenced that the unskilled laborer or the "handy-man" was the last to gain employment and the first to become unemployed. As for the domestic and personal service group, it is dependent upon the income of the employer, and a decrease in his income meant that he had to decrease his expense or help.¹

NEGRO WAGE SCALES AND ORGANIZED LABOR

The wage scale for the Negro is usually lower than that of the white worker engaged in the same work.² This is true in the South more than in the North and West. The Negro's social heritage, along with traditional beliefs that he can get along on less, help to account for his fact. Governmental agencies today, however, are tending to encourage and legislate equalized pay for all workers engaged in the same type of work in each particular section of the United States. This has deep significance and gives greater hope for an improvement in the economic status of the Negro.

In the past most labor unions did not encourage Negro membership. One reason for this was that the number of skilled workers among this group was small. Today the C. I. O., the A. F. of L. and many other less important unions in various sections of the United States are both urging and demanding that Negro workers become members. In several regions and occupations the

1. Weaver, Robert C., Advisor on Negro Affairs, Dept. of Interior - The Economic Status of the Urban Negro, an address delivered for Program of the Elks Educational and Economic Congress, August 23, 1935.
2. Johnson, Charles, S., The Negro in American Civilization, pp. 57-58.

TABLE II

PERCENT OF NEGROES, WHITES, AND OTHER RACES OF THE TOTAL POPULATION AND OF THE TOTAL RELIEF POPULATION *		
	Percent of total United States pop- ulation ¹	Percent of relief pop- ulation ²
Negro	9.7	16.7
White	88.7	81.3
Others	1.6	2.0

1. 1930 Census of Population.

2. Unemployment Relief Census, October 1933, Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

TABLE II-A

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF NEGROES, WHITES, AND OTHER RACES ON RELIEF, URBAN AND RURAL - October, 1933 *			
	Total popu- lation ¹	Relief popu- lation ²	Percent relief of total
Negro:			
Urban	5,193,913	1,387,313	26.7
Rural	6,697,230	730,331	10.9
Total	11,891,143	2,117,644	17.8
White and other races:			
Urban	63,760,910	6,196,852	9.7
Rural	47,122,993	4,371,168	9.3
Total	110,883,903	10,568,020	9.5
All races:			
Urban	68,954,823	7,584,165	11.0
Rural	53,820,223	5,101,499	9.5
Total	122,775,046	12,685,664	10.3

1. 1930 Census of Population.

2. Unemployment Relief Census, October 1933, Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

* Smith, Alfred Edgar, The Negro and Relief, Monthly Report of The Emergency Relief Administration, pp. 10-11, March 1, through March 31, 1936.

TABLE III

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF NEGROES, WHITES, AND OTHER RACES ON RELIEF, URBAN AND RURAL - January, 1935 *			
	Total popu- lation ¹	Relief popu- lation ²	Percent relief of total
Negro:			
Urban	5,193,913	2,050,000	39.5
Rural	6,697,230	980,000	14.6
Total	11,891,143	3,030,000	25.5
White and other races:			
Urban	63,760,910	9,320,000	14.6
Rural	47,122,993	7,820,000	16.6
Total	110,883,903	17,140,000	15.5
All races:			
Urban	68,954,823	11,370,000	16.5
Rural	53,820,223	8,800,000	16.4
Total	122,775,046	20,170,000	16.4

1. 1930 Census of Population.

2. Federal Emergency Relief Administration estimates.

* Smith, Alfred Edgar, The Negro and Relief, Monthly Report of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, p.11, March 1, through March 31, 1936.

Negro members have found the unions to be of great protection.¹ Too, it is generally known that as long as Negro labor dominate in a particular occupation and are not union members, that low wages, unhealthy working environment, long hours and many other unapproved conditions prevail. Lately, from the standpoint of the masses of Negro workers it has been a matter largely of immediate personal financial advantages as to whether or not they joined the unions and many have not.

NEGRO UNEMPLOYMENT SINCE 1935

The occupational census of 1935 showed a disproportionately large number of Negroes on relief rolls.² While this racial element comprises 9.7 percent of the total population of the United States, it constitutes one-sixth of the total relief population. The 1933 relief census showed that Negroes on relief comprised 17.8 percent of the total Negro population, whereas only 9.5 percent of all white persons and other races were on relief. (See Table II-A). By January 1935, according to estimates based on sample surveys, 25.5 percent of all Negroes were on relief as compared with 15.5 percent of all whites and other races. (See Table III). The disproportionate representation is more pronounced in the case of the urban Negro. The 1933 relief census showed that the urban Negro population receiving relief was almost three times that of the urban white population.

"Over one-half of the Negro workers on relief rolls are located in eight states (New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Texas, Illinois, North Carolina and Louisiana."³

Negro workers of both sexes combined are younger on the average than comparable white workers in both the relief population census of March, 1935

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1. Hill, T. Arnold, The Negro and the C. I. O. - Opportunity, August, 1934 pp. 243 - 244.
 2. Works Progress Administration Census of Usual Occupations, Workers on Relief in the United States, March 1935, p. 15.
 3. Houser, Philip M., Workers on the Public Unemployment Relief Rolls in the U. S., March, 1935, Monthly Report of Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

TABLE IV

EXPERIENCED WORKERS ON RELIEF ROLLS IN MARCH 1935 AND GAINFUL WORKERS IN APRIL 1930, BY AGE, COLOR, AND SEX, CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES *									
Color and sex	Age groups					Medium age			
	Total		16-24		25-44	45-64		Gainful workers 1930	Workers on relief 1935
	Gainful workers 1930	Workers on relief 1935	Gainful workers 1930	Workers on relief 1935	Gainful workers 1930	Workers on relief 1935	Gainful workers 1930	Workers on relief 1935	Gainful workers 1930
NUMBER									
Total ¹	45,913,404	4,985,120	11,168,107	1,074,438	22,323,544	2,425,400	12,421,753	1,485,282	35.1
White	40,137,557	4,078,759	9,624,385	891,788	19,455,875	1,947,720	11,057,297	1,239,251	35.2
Male	31,663,043	3,437,197	6,347,702	662,075	15,812,825	1,677,563	9,502,516	1,097,559	36.8
Female	8,474,514	641,562	3,276,683	229,713	3,643,050	270,157	1,554,781	141,692	29.5
Negro	5,070,597	772,749	1,352,747	150,730	2,498,812	409,154	1,219,038	212,865	33.7
Male	3,366,224	491,981	858,383	89,234	1,635,026	255,873	872,815	146,874	34.3
Female	1,704,373	280,768	494,364	61,496	863,786	153,281	346,223	65,991	32.5
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION ²									
Total ¹	100.0	100.0	24.3	21.6	48.6	48.6	27.1	29.8	--
White	87.4	81.8	20.9	17.9	42.4	39.1	24.1	24.8	--
Male	69.0	68.9	13.8	13.3	34.5	33.6	20.7	22.0	--
Female	18.4	12.9	7.1	4.6	7.9	5.5	3.4	2.8	--
Negro	11.0	15.5	2.9	3.0	5.4	8.2	2.7	4.3	--
Male	7.3	9.9	1.9	1.8	3.5	5.1	1.9	3.0	--
Female	3.7	5.6	1.0	1.2	1.9	3.1	.8	1.3	--

1. Includes white, Negro, and other and unknown color or race.

2. Percentages for gainful workers 1930 are based on the total gainful workers 16 through 64 years of age in 1930. Percentages for workers on relief 1935 are based on total experienced workers 16 through 64 years of age on relief in March 1935.

* Hauser, P. P. M., Workers On The Public Unemployment Relief Rolls In The United States, March, 1935, Monthly Report of The Federal Emergency Relief Administration, April 1, through April 30, 1936.

and the general population census of 1930.¹ Male workers in both populations are younger than corresponding white males, but Negro female workers are older than corresponding white females. (See Table IV).

".....if Negro and white workers are considered by age as separate groups (that is, if each race group, rather than the total workers of all races, is used as the base for the computation of the index of relative relief representation for each age class), it becomes apparent that the older Negro workers of both sexes combined, and the older Negro males, are found on the relief rolls in greater relative proportions than are corresponding white workers, while the youngest of these Negro workers (those under 25 years of age) are found in smaller proportions."²

The 1935 Occupational census indicates that both the white and Negro white-collar workers are less greatly represented than expected according to the 1930 census, still, the percentage of Negroes is greater than that for the white. Although both white and Negro unskilled laborers are greatly over-represented, the Negroes show a greater frequency than the white. Still, among the agriculturists, the white worker is greater represented on relief rolls than is the Negro. It was also evident that professional workers of both races (technical persons, proprietors, managers, foremen and officials, were over-represented and the Negro more than the white. The skilled Negro workers were more heavily represented on the relief rolls than the Negro workers in any of the other classes of occupations.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION ON GAINFUL NEGRO WORKERS

The assimilation of the Negro into the American society is a difficult process. Such factors as his social heritage, his state of education, cultural attitudes or discrimination, have greatly retarded the socialization of the Negro.

1. Houser, Philip M., Workers on the Public Unemployment Relief Rolls in the United States, March, 1935, Monthly Report of Federal Emergency Relief Administration.
2. Ibid.

The 1930 Census shows that there were 5,503,535 Negroes gainfully occupied in the United States. The most of these people were concentrated into a few occupations; namely agricultural labor, domestic and personal service, and unskilled labor in general. Also, it was evidenced that the Negro is often paid lower wages than the white worker doing the same work.

The Negro agricultural labor population showed a decrease while the urban occupational population showed increases. The continued migration of the agricultural Negro to urban centers has magnified his socio-economic problems.

The 1935 occupational census shows that whereas the Negro constitutes only 9.7 percent of the total United States' population, he constitutes one sixth of the total relief population. The above factors intensified by the lack of unemployment provisions made for Negroes help account for his over-representation on relief rolls.

Students of the "Negro Question" are looking for a solution to this great problem. There will be little hope for success toward a solution so long as the masses of the gainfully employed Negro are concentrated in such few occupations and especially as servants and unskilled laborers. It is obvious, however, that the economic security of the Negro depends directly upon the economic security of the nation, which is a determining factor for the people of the nation. There is a great need for the education of the Negro so that he can see the consequences of aligning himself with his fellow white worker in the interest of better working conditions, adequate salaries and wages and for the good of labor in general. The ultimate salvation for future progress and economic security of the Negro lies in the degree to which he will be able to foresee consequences of social acts and to the extent to which he integrates himself through the total economic pattern of the nation.

NEGRO HOUSING PROBLEMS

The question of housing and homes of a community or a people is usually determined by the economic status and selection of the group.¹ The case of the Negro is slightly different from the general rule as theretofore discussed. Other than the masses falling into the lower economic level, there are forces such as racial selection or group consciousness, segregative housing legislation and ignorance which are operating to determine where the Negro lives as well as the condition of his home and residential districts.

HOUSING IN THE RURAL DISTRICTS

We noted above that the great part of the Negro population is located in the agricultural South; further that most Southern Negro farmers were classified as tenants, sharecroppers or farm laborers, and do not own the houses in which they live. They are dependent upon the planter or landowner, for the condition of their houses. Dr. Johnson quotes a tenant as saying:²

"Old man J ____ (landlord) won't do a thing. He come by here five years ago and said he was going to fix this house up. All he's give us since then is a few planks to fix the porch. It's rotting down. We're just living outdoors."

If one travels through the tobacco sections of North Carolina and the cotton sections of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi and other Southern states, he will find these facts only too obvious. These people do literally live outdoors. There are large cracks in the walls and floors, the steps are practically falling to pieces, shingles have rotted off of the roofs, and most houses have no window glasses, merely slides that close. These people know almost nothing about sanitation and sanitary practices.³ In those one story, box-like two room houses sometimes there is living a family of ten or twelve; in many cases in addition to other farm hands. There is no

1. The President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership, (Pres. Hoover) 1932, Preface, p. 1, Negro Housing.

2. Johnson, Charles S., Shadow of the Plantation, p. 109, Univ. of Chicago Press 1932.

3. Ibid, p. 93.

definite arrangement nor treatment in the building of out-houses, stables or of their open wells.¹ At sight the situation looks helpless.

The land owning farmers, in general, do keep their homes in much better condition.² They take a real interest in making their houses home-like and comfortable. Where these people have had training, the results of it can be seen in sanitary practices in home planning and construction as well as in their every day living. The Home Demonstration and their 4-H Clubs are, and other similiar organizations, doing much in this respect toward the education of the Negro and the whites in rural districts.

SOUTHERN URBAN HOUSING

The Negro who migrates from the rural section to the urban in the South finds conditions but little better there for him.³ A large number of these migrates settle on the outskirts of the large cities. They live in old delapidated shacks that are almost beyond repair. Frequently these shanties are located near railroad tracks, factories or near swamp land. Often the Negro moves directly to the slums.

There are almost no real conveniences in these houses, while such things as sewerage, water, electricity and indoor toilets are almost always absent. Overcrowding prevails invariably. The President's Conference on Home Building revealed:⁴

"As the Negro moves up in the economic scale, he moves his family into the next higher residential area. There is generally an intersititial area where the homes are lighted with electricity or gas and heated with either coal stoves or by what are known as 'hetrolas'. The construction of the house is usually of wood, brick and sometimes of stone."

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1. Johnson, Charles S., Shadow of the Plantation, p. 149, University of Chicago Press, 1932.
 2. Ibid, p. 106.
 3. The President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership, Negro Housing, pp. 33-34.
 4. Ibid.

The professional Negro and those who can afford it, usually purchase or build homes in the suburban districts or near the main section of the town for convenience. Sometimes they purchase or have built homes in districts that are in the main inhabited by whites.

NORTHERN HOUSING PROBLEMS

The greatest Negro population in the North is centered in Urban districts. It has been observed that when these people migrate from the rural districts of the South that their housing problems are only practically solved. There is very little difference between the physical nature of the houses. Reasons for this were stated in an earlier paragraph. Since the Negro constitutes the lowest wage earning group he finds himself seeking cheap rents. This usually thrown him into the more undesirable residential sections of the city. We, therefore, find the "Black Belts" and Little Harlems" made up by Negroes as we find "Chinatown", "Little Italy", and "German Town" made up by others.¹ Burgess, writing on the question of residential segregation in America, infers that a city grows from the center outward.² As the business and manufacturing enterprises begin to expand, the residents want more desirable and attractive homes. They move to the outskirts of the city. It is in many of these old residential homes that the foreign immigrant and the Negro move. The result of this process caused the city to be organized into zones. Hoffman, found that Negro housing in the North tends to become concentrated within a few wards.³ The location of these areas has seldom changed except by expansion and even then this has been met with a dual resistance of natural boundaries and racial antipathy.

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1. Burgess, Ernest W., Residential Segregation in American Cities, Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, November, 1928, Vol. 140, pp. 105-115.
 2. Ibid.
 3. Hoffman, Frederick L., Tendencies of the American Negro, Publication of the American Economic Association, Vol. 11, No. 3.

Throughout the industrial centers of the North, which attract so many Negroes, no adequate provisions are made for their homes.¹ Streets are often unpaved, sanitary regulations are neglected and the houses are in very undesirable sections. Within only a few cities most Negro homes are overcrowded and congested. In some sections Negro density is more than twice as great as housing authorities state that it should be.

It was found in a survey made by the Presidents Committee on Home Building and Home Ownership that Negro renters paid considerably higher rates than was paid by white families who preceded them or who are living in similar properties.² This is a result of a limited supply of dwellings in great demand by a swollen population. In an effort to meet the rental fees, often it has been necessary for Negro families to take in lodgers or relatives, which in turn, often becomes an excuse for further rental increases. During the present economic crisis, with family heads out of work, it also has been necessary for families to move together. These many factors working together help to account for the highly congested Negro residential areas.

The professional Negroes and those on the higher economic scale in the North, as we say in the South, live in the better residential areas. Those who can afford it move into the unrestricted districts while others move to the outskirts of the cities. Numbers of them build their own houses and equip them with all modern conveniences. Even this element of the population is kept out of certain areas by segregative housing legislation and agreements.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND PROVISION FOR HOUSING

With the legislation of the Federal Home Loan Bank Act of 1932, The Home Owners' Land Act of 1933 and the National Housing Act of 1934, came great

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1. Kennedy, Louise Venerable, The Negro Peasant Turns Cityward, Columbia University Press, New York, 1930.
 2. President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership, Negro Housing, p. 14.

hopes not only for the improvement of Negro homes, but also for slum rehabilitation and provisions for low rent housing for the people of our nation. The objectives of the National Housing Administration are: to improve housing conditions, to provide employment to facilitate the alteration and repair of real property, to provide for insurance of mortgages and to insure the savings and loan associations and similar institutions.¹

The Federal Housing Administrator is appointed by the President of the United States and is required to make annual reports to congress on or near the first day of January in each year. The funds are provided by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation which is authorized to issue such additional securities as may be necessary for the purpose. The President is also authorized to allot funds to the Administrator from any funds that may be available for emergency purposes.

During the past six years citizens of the nation have undergone a tremendous loss of property and homes. If the above legislation should prove successful it should make for greater security and comfort. Many family heads of low income in the past have met with serious difficulties in attempting to buy and own their homes. It is quite common to find people paying exorbitant prices for their property and living in a state of poverty trying to keep up with the large payments and sometimes even losing out in the end. Concerning this, Weaver states:²

"For colored people, the fetish of home ownership has been an expensive luxury. Concentrated as they are in unstable jobs and restricted as they are to limited areas, the cost of home ownership in terms of sacrifice and anguish has been immense."

It was the intention of the legislators of the United States to touch

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1. Brady, John Edson, National Housing Act, 1934, p. 43, The Banking Law Journal, Cambridge, Mass.
 2. Weaver, Robert C., Advisor on Negro Affairs, Department of The Interior and The Public Works Administration. An address delivered April 16, 1937 at the Minister's Council on Economic Matters, Philadelphia, Penn.

every state in the Union with the low-rent housing, slum clearance and home owners' loans, and help solve these perplexing problems wherever possible. The largest housing project for Negroes in America is the HARLEM RIVER HOUSES, a unit of New York City's program.¹ This is a four million dollar low-rental housing project which is as yet unoccupied. New York City has a population of more than 330,000 Negroes. The census statistics reveal that no other area in America shows greater délapidation and corruption, more widespread juvenile delinquency and crime and higher morbidity and mortality rates than does Harlem.

The project covers nearly eight acres.² The buildings are fire and sound proof. The floors of the apartments are of cement and the bath room floors of tile. The various housing units are heated by three central heating plants operated with oil heat. On the interior of the units, there is located a playground, nursery school, kindergarten, baby welfare clinic and tuberculosis diagnosis clinic.

Already more than 11,000 families have made application for the space that will accommodate 574 families or 2,000 people. Although this and similar projects are just beginning to scratch the surface of the general situation, it is an indication of what can and what is being done to meet the problem.

Weaver, in his before mentioned address, indicated that at the present the very lowest income group or those with no income at all have not been adequately provided for by the government housing projects, for there is a limit to government subsidy. However, there is a bill before the present congress that will go farther toward meeting this need.

1. Post, Langdon W., Opportunity, August, 1935, pp. 233-235.

2. Ibid.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND CRIME AMONG NEGROES

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Scope

The publication titled *Juvenile-Court Statistics and Federal Juvenile offenders* for the years ending December, 1934 and 1935 respectively, published by the (Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor,) give us the latest statistics and trends in juvenile delinquency in the United States. The report for 1934 includes records of juvenile courts of four entire states (Connecticut, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Utah); from areas of Indiana and New York comprising 76 and 93 percent, respectively, of the population of those states; from 39 counties in 19 other states; and from the District of Columbia. In all, reports from 334 courts are included. Seventy-four of the courts serve areas of 100,000 or more population and 260 serve less populous districts.¹ The total population of the area served was 24,384,900. The ages of the children considered ranged from seven years to fifteen years.

The study does not cover every court in the nation but it is quite broad enough to give representative indications of what is happening. Also it would be impossible to record all delinquent acts of the youth, for many are never reported or even seen, while social agencies and other organizations are also at work, trying to re-educate and redirect these delinquent tendencies of the youth so as to keep him out of the courts as well as to make for a better society in which to live.

TRENDS AND RATES OF DELINQUENCY FOR NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS

Table V shows Juvenile delinquency rates per 10,000 Negro boys and girls of juvenile court age dealt with by courts that served areas with

1. U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Juvenile Court Statistics Year ending December 31, 1934 and Federal Juvenile Offenders Year ending June 30, 1935.

TABLE V

JUVENILE-DELINQUENCY RATES ¹ PER 10,000 WHITE AND NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS OF JUVENILE-COURT AGE DEALT WITH BY COURTS THAT SERVED AREAS WITH 100,000 OR MORE TOTAL POPULATION AND 10,000 OR MORE NEGRO POPULATION ² AND THAT REPORTED THROUGHOUT SPECIFIED PERIODS *									
Juvenile-delinquency rate ¹									
Year	14 courts reporting, 1927-34								19 courts reporting, 1929-34
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	
1927	139	566	23	141	---	---	---	---	---
1928	152	567	26	135	---	---	---	---	---
1929	159	614	27	139	149	515	29	123	123
1930	161	604	27	135	148	502	28	130	130
1931	148	575	22	125	136	475	23	118	118
1932	136	559	18	117	126	467	20	104	104
1933	132	568	17	113	121	477	18	101	101
1934	119	612	16	120	111	514	20	113	113

1. Rates are based on population estimated as of July 1 of each year except 1934; no estimates for 1934 are available, and the rates for this year are based on the estimates as of July 1, 1933.

2. According to the 1930 census.

3. Only 13 courts reported girls' cases.

* U. S. Dept. of Labor, Children's Bureau - Juvenile Court Statistics, Year Ended Dec. 31, 1934 and Federal Juvenile Offenders, Year Ended, June 30, 1935.

TABLE VI

JUVENILE-DELINQUENCY RATE AT EACH YEAR OF AGE PER 10,000 WHITE AND NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS 7 TO 15 YEARS OF AGE DEALT WITH BY 41 COUNTS THAT SERVED AREAS WITH 100,000 OR MORE POPULATION ¹ AND THAT REPORTED IN 1932-34 *			
Color, age, and sex of child	Children 7 to 15 years of age		
	Juvenile-delinquency rate	Number of children in area served ²	Average Number of children dealt with by courts annually 1932-34
Total	82	4,193,771	34,397
White boys	118	1,970,043	23,311
7 years	9	218,394	189
8 years	20	227,625	449
9 years	37	225,187	826
10 years	64	222,402	1,414
11 years	93	209,789	1,957
12 years	129	228,845	2,943
13 years	178	213,479	3,793
14 years	254	213,714	5,423
15 years	300	210,608	6,317
Negro boys	478	136,961	6,509
7 years	33	17,590	58
8 years	86	17,893	153
9 years	164	17,361	285
10 years	290	16,678	483
11 years	521	13,621	709
12 years	681	14,315	975
13 years	871	12,903	1,124
14 years	1,008	13,760	1,387
15 years	1,040	12,840	1,335
White girls	17	1,939,969	3,275
7 years	1	212,779	26
8 years	2	224,713	50
9 years	4	219,007	81
10 years	5	218,711	100
11 years	7	207,717	146
12 years	11	222,439	251
13 years	22	211,663	460
14 years	41	212,073	879
15 years	61	210,667	1,282
Negro girls	89	146,798	1,302
7 years	4	18,002	7
8 years	11	18,661	20
9 years	18	17,602	31
10 years	30	17,637	53
11 years	48	14,818	70
12 years	160	14,837	238
13 years	238	15,058	359
14 years	257	14,653	376
15 years			

1. According to the 1930 census. 2. Estimated as of July 1, 1933.

* U. S. Dept. of Labor, Children's Bureau, Juvenile-Court Statistics year ended Dec. 31, 1934 and Federal Juvenile Offenders year ending June 30, 1935, p. 19.

TABLE VII

REASON FOR REFERENCE TO COURT AND PREVIOUS COURT EXPERIENCE OF WHITE AND NEGRO BOYS AND GIRLS; DELINQUENCY CASES OF BOYS AND GIRLS 7 to 15 YEARS OF AGE FOR WHOM A REPORT WAS OBTAINED AS TO PREVIOUS COURT EXPERIENCE IN CASES DISPOSED OF BY 29 COURTS ¹ IN 1934 *										
Reason for reference to court	Delinquency cases disposed of									
	Boys					Girls				
	Total	White		Negro		Total	White		Negro	
		No previous court experience	Previous court experience	No previous court experience	Previous court experience		No previous court experience	Previous court experience	No previous court experience	Previous court experience
Total cases	18,008	10,608	5,966	1,993	1,441	3,196	1,960	410	641	185
Stealing	8,951	4,825	2,196	1,026	904	394	279	31	67	17
Act of carelessness or mischief	4,176	3,014	635	376	151	284	179	28	66	11
Traffic violation	145	109	26	4	4	8	8	—	—	—
Truancy	900	456	330	45	69	308	227	46	26	9
Running away	1,156	689	239	128	100	619	409	87	81	42
Ungovernable	1,498	757	376	214	151	920	489	147	215	71
Sex offense	271	182	45	34	12	437	238	66	99	22
Injury to person	453	269	39	109	36	63	27	5	45	6
Other reason	296	206	61	24	7	46	37	4	5	—
Reason not reported	162	101	21	33	7	97	47	4	39	7
Percent distribution										
Total cases	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Stealing	50.2	45.9	55.7	52.3	63.0	12.7	14.6	7.6	11.1	9.6
Act of carelessness or mischief	23.4	28.7	16.1	19.2	10.5	9.2	9.4	6.9	11.0	6.2
Traffic violation	.8	1.0	.7	.2	.3	.3	.4	—	—	—
Truancy	5.0	4.3	8.4	2.3	4.8	9.9	11.9	11.3	4.3	5.1
Running away	6.5	6.6	6.1	6.5	7.0	20.0	21.4	21.4	13.5	23.6
Ungovernable	8.4	7.2	9.5	10.9	10.5	29.7	25.6	36.2	35.4	39.9
Sex offense	1.6	1.7	1.1	1.7	.8	14.1	13.5	14.3	16.4	12.4
Injury to person	2.5	2.6	1.0	5.6	2.5	2.7	1.4	1.2	7.5	3.4
Other reason	1.7	2.0	1.5	1.2	.5	1.5	1.9	1.0	.8	—

1. All the courts that served with 100,000 or more population and that cooperated throughout the period 1929-34 except Philadelphia, which did not furnish this information.

Statistics Year Ended December 31, 1934 and Federal Juvenile Offenders Year Ended June 30, 1935, p. 36

100,000 or more total population and 10,000 or more Negro population from 1927 through 1934. Table VI shows the rates at each year of age per 10,000 white and Negro boys and girls 7 to 15 years of age dealt with by 41 courts that served areas with 100,000 or more population and that reported in 1932-1934. Both tables show that the rates for all children are lowest at the age of seven and gradually increased through the age of fifteen. Rates for the Negro child are exceedingly higher than those for the white child; in some cases they are as much as four or five times higher. The rates for the Negro boy are higher than those for the white boy, and begin to increase at an earlier age and the same is true for both groups of girls.

"The rates for both white and Negro boys and girls varied widely from court to court..... The maximum rate in 1934 for white boys (417) appeared in Mahoning County, Ohio, and the minimum (23) in Montgomery County, Pa. The maximum for Negro boys (989) appeared in Mahoning County, Ohio, and the minimum (78) in Greenville County, S. C. The rates for white girls varied from 77 in Hamilton County, Ohio, to 2 in Montgomery County, Pa. Rates for Negro girls varied from 242 in Hamilton County, Ohio, to 15 in Greenville County, S. C."¹

Table V shows that the general rates for all groups reported decreased from 1929 until 1934 when there was a slight increase. The 1929 rates were highest for Negro boys while the 1927 rates shown was the peak year for Negro girls.

TYPES OF MISDEMEANOR

The misdemeanors committed by juveniles which caused them to be taken to court were, stealing, acts of carelessness or mischief, traffic violations, truancy, running away, ungovernableness, sex offenses and many less important offenses as shown in Table VII. For all boys the rates were highest in stealing, acts of carelessness or mischief, running away and ungovernableness. For girls the rates were highest in ungovernableness, running away, sex offenses and truancy. The Negro groups follow the general trends. Most of

1. Ibid p. 16, U. S. Dept. of Labor, Op.cit.

the boy offenders in the cases referred to courts for stealing, acts of carelessness and mischief came from the older groups and a large number of them had been in court before. (See Table VII). The same is true for girls who were referred to courts for such charges as truancy, ungovernableness, sex offenses and running away.

SECTIONAL DELINQUENCY

Dr. Weatherford supervised a survey of the Negro boy in Nashville, Tennessee in 1932.¹ From this survey he concluded:

"The Negro boy in Nashville has been treated in such a manner as not to minimize his delinquency but to aggravate it. The most serious defects of the Juvenile Court which affect the Negro boy are: The lack of sufficiently well trained probation officers; the failure to coordinate the operation of the probation department with the work of the judge; the complete absence of any effective organization for the direction of probation work; inadequate or, most of the cases, non-existent social investigation; failure to consider the needs of the boy, resulting in too frequent commitment to institutions; failure to use the existing social agencies in treatment of the boy and his family; the detention of these boys in the city and county jails until called for by the juvenile court officer; the detention of boys in the Colored Detention Home for long period of time; the lack of physical and mental examinations; and the lack of an adequate system of records, both of social information relative to each child brought before the court, as well as of all proceedings and decisions of the court".

There are a number of Southern cities that have not made any special provisions for the delinquent Negro youth, other than in the regular jails.

Delinquency among Negro boys and girls differs from county to county as well as from section to section.² However, in a number of regions of Southern Agricultural Sections the reports of offenses committed never reaches the courts. Johnson, states that on many of the plantations that it is common to hear of juvenile murders, loose sex practices, fights where serious injuries are inflicted and other severe acts.³ At times nothing is

1. Weatherford, Willis Duke, A Survey of the Negro Boy in Nashville, Tennessee, p. 70, Association Press, 1932.
2. United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Juvenile-Court Statistics and Federal Juvenile Offenders, p. 16.
3. Johnson, Charles, S., Shadow of the Plantation, pp. 89-92.

done about the matter, on other occasions, the family or some relative seeks revenge while in other cases the white planter or landlord is expected to settle the matter. Those people are afraid of and distrust the courts, and as such they have no interest at all in them. The general rate of delinquency among Negro children seems to be disproportionate in all sections of the country where record of juvenile delinquency is kept.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE FAMILY

We have discussed elsewhere in this chapter, the fact that the Negro belongs to the lowest economic level group in America. A great percentage of Negro women and mothers are away from their homes daily while working. We saw also that for economic and social reasons, the Negro was forced to seek low rent sections which meant that he was thrown into slum areas, areas already infected with crime such as prostitution, gambling and other vices, districts near railroad tracks, swamps, factories and almost always in old residential sections. High rents forced him to take in roomers and outside persons causing the houses to become overcrowded and congested. We saw further where the economic crisis intensified the entire situation and created new problems. All of these factors help to contribute to the high rate of delinquency of the Negro youth. One writer states:

"Negro girls have not the same supervision that many of the white girls of their same class because in so many instances both parents are working, and the girls are left home alone. They come home from school to a house that is closed. There is no one to receive them, and that, with a child is a serious matter. The environment in which they live is not equal to the same class of white girls, therefore, making life much more difficult and temptations more numerous."¹

We will see elsewhere in this chapter that the negro youth, at present does not have the guidance and leadership organizations in great enough

1. The Chicago Commission on Race Relations, The Negro in Chicago, p. 334, University of Chicago Press.

numbers to effectively influence his character for the good. Reference is made to such groups as, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Boy's and Girl's Clubs, Community Centers, welfare groups to study the needs and the problems of the Negro youth and many other similar groups. Until the question of juvenile delinquency among Negro children is scientifically and adequately studied and dealt with, we are going to continue having a disproportionate rate of offenses.

CRIME AMONG NEGROES

Scope

The 1935 United States Census of Prisons¹ and the 1937 Uniform Crime Reports² show that the crime rates for the Negro adult is quite disproportionate to his population. The data of the prison census was taken from the records of 9 Federal prisons and reformatories, 5 Federal prison camps, 1 Federal hospital for defective delinquents, 1 Federal narcotic farm and 99 State prisons and reformatories. These institutions received 65,723 sentenced prisoners from the courts during the year 1935.³ The data in the Uniform Crime Reports was taken from the reports of 1,788 city police departments, the cities of which the total population was 60,526,414.⁴ Although the data is not absolutely complete it gives us quite a representative percentage of crime committed in the nation.

TREND AND RATE

Table VIII shows the ratio or number of commitments per 1,000,000 of the estimated population 15 years old and over, July 1, 1935 as listed by race, nativity, and sex. Negro prisoners formed 24.9 percent of the total

1. United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories, 1935.

2. United States Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Uniform Crime Reports for the U. S. and its Possessions, Vol. VIII, No. 1, 1937.

3. Same as 1, p. 1.

4. Same as 2, p. 4.

TABLE VIII

PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURTS, BY RACE, NATIVITY, AND SEX: 1935 AND 1934 * (Ratio = Number of commitments per 100,000 of the estimated population 15 years old and over, July 1, 1935, of the same race, nativity, and sex. Percent not shown where less than 0.1)											
RACE	NUMBER 1935			NUMBER 1934			RATIO 1935		PERCENT DISTRIBUTION 1935		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All classes	65,725	62,569	3,156	62,261	59,277	2,974	140.6	7.2	100.0	100.0	100.00
White	48,582	46,421	2,161	46,744	44,630	2,114	113.4	5.4	73.9	74.2	68.5
Native	45,179	43,199	1,980	43,046	41,128	1,918	---	---	68.7	69.0	62.8
Foreign born	3,403	3,222	181	3,698	3,502	196	---	---	5.2	5.1	5.7
Negro	16,362	15,400	962	14,853	14,013	840	473.6	28.9	24.9	24.6	30.5
Other races	779	748	31	654	634	20	292.9	16.3	1.2	1.2	1.0
Indian	492	466	26	406	386	19	---	---	0.7	0.7	0.8
Chinese	177	173	4	124	123	1	---	---	0.3	0.3	0.1
Japanese	51	30	1	24	24	---	---	---	---	---	---
Filipino	76	76	---	91	91	---	---	---	---	---	---
All other	3	3	---	10	10	---	---	---	0.1	0.1	---

* United States Department of Commerce Bureau of the Census, Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories, 1935, p. 33.

TABLE IX

PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURTS BY RACE, AGE AND SEX, SHOWING A RATIO BY SEX - 1935 *									
Age	Total			Native White		Negro		per 100,000 pop- ulation of same age and sex	
	Both sexes	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male	Male	Female
Total	65,725	32,569	3,154	45,199	1,980	15,400	962	140.6	7.2
Under 15	26	23	3	7	---	15	3	---	---
15-17	2,515	2,370	145	1,714	96	625	49	71.1	4.4
18	2,862	2,718	144	1,979	105	676	38	243.0	7.4
19	3,688	3,536	152	2,627	102	848	49	313.1	13.9
20	3,504	3,344	160	2,270	115	718	39	314.7	15.2
21-24	13,618	13,028	590	8,132	355	3,292	217	304.3	13.8
25-29	12,514	11,920	594	5,747	341	3,160	225	239.8	11.5
30-34	8,882	8,459	423	4,076	268	2,129	125	186.2	9.1
35-39	6,752	6,370	382	2,635	237	1,724	112	150.7	9.0
40-44	4,231	3,996	235	1,745	151	879	54	91.9	5.6
45-49	2,947	2,795	152	1,177	101	601	18	73.9	4.3
50-54	1,858	1,763	95	711	63	361	20	53.7	3.1
55-59	1,858	1,048	41	440	22	185	5	38.0	1.6
60-64	664	665	19	357	13	106	3	31.5	1.0
65----	517	506	11	36	7	71	1	14.0	0.3
Unknown	56	48	8	4	4	10	4	---	---

*U. S. Department of Commerce - Bureau of the Census, Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories, 1935, pp. 37 and 42.

TABLE X

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ARRESTS BY AGE, OF NATIVE WHITES, FOREIGN-BORN WHITES AND NEGROES, JANUARY 1 - MARCH 31, 1937 *						
Age	Number arrested			Number arrested per 100,000 of the general population of the United States		
	Native White	For- eign born White	Negro	Native White	For- eign born White	Negro
15 and under 21	15,505	227	5,144	19.1	4.1	19.2
21 - 24	14,352	299	4,862	17.7	4.4	18.2
25 - 29	13,891	463	5,275	17.2	6.9	19.7
30 - 34	10,929	697	3,728	13.5	10.4	14.0
35 - 39	9,352	908	2,419	11.6	13.5	12.8
40 - 44	6,541	1,126	1,864	8.1	16.7	7.0
45 - 49	4,264	1,077	1,140	5.3	16.0	4.3
50 and over	6,109	1,881	1,272	7.5	28.0	4.8
Total	80,943	6,728	26,704	100.0	100.0	100.0

* United States Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Uniform Crime Reports for the United States and its Possessions, p. 50, Pub. by the U. S. G. P. O. Washington, D. C., 1937.

TABLE XI

NUMBER OF ARRESTS OF NEGROES AND WHITES IN PROPORTION TO THE NUMBER OF EACH IN THE GENERAL POPULATION OF THE COUNTRY, Jan. 1 - Mar. 31, 1937 *			
(Rate per 100,000 of population, excluding those under 15 years of age)			
Offense charged	Native white	Foreign-born white	Negro
Criminal homicide	1.4	1.0	7.3
Robbery	3.7	.9	11.4
Assault	4.5	4.5	32.7
Burglary - breaking or entering	9.4	2.1	28.6
Larceny - theft	15.2	4.5	55.7
Auto theft	3.9	.5	5.2
Embezzlement and fraud	4.4	1.6	4.8
Stolen property; buying, receiving, etc.	.8	1.0	3.3
Arson	.2	.3	.4
Forgery and counterfeiting	2.4	.7	2.2
Rape	1.2	.7	3.2
Prostitution and commercialized vice	1.5	.2	3.8
Other sex offenses	2.1	1.5	3.1
Narcotic drug laws	.9	.2	2.6
Weapons; carrying, possessing, etc.	1.2	.9	7.9
Offenses against family and children	1.7	1.0	2.1
Liquor laws	2.0	1.5	12.9
Driving while intoxicated	5.9	1.9	4.0
Road and driving laws	.8	.3	2.1
Parking violations	(1)	—	(1)
Other traffic and motor vehicle laws	1.7	.6	3.8
Disorderly conduct	5.1	2.9	16.1
Drunkenness	19.2	7.8	27.7
Vagrancy	12.1	4.3	24.5
Gambling	1.3	1.0	8.2
Suspicion	15.5	5.8	44.1
Not stated	1.4	.6	3.6
All other offenses	7.1	3.2	15.9
Total	126.6	51.6	337.2

1. Less than 1/10 of 1 per 100,000

* U. S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Uniform Crime Reports for the United States and its Possessions, Vol. VIII, No. 1, 1937

number of prisoners in 1935, whereas in 1930 Negroes composed only 9.7 percent of the United States population. While the foreign born white population was considerably larger than the Negro population, the number of foreign-born prisoners was about one fifth as large as the number of Negro prisoners. The rate for the Negro were four times as great as those of the native white.

Table IX shows the number of prisoners received from courts as classified by age, race, sex and the ratio in terms of age of all prisoners.

"In 1935 the highest ratio for both males and females (for all groups) was 20 years, while in 1934 the highest was 19 years for each sex. The next highest in 1935 for both sexes was 19 years, followed closely in each case by the age period, 21 to 24 years, and the single year 18 years of age. After the age period 21 to 24 years, the ratios decline with increasing age -- rapidly for males, but gradually for females. In the case of each age group, the ratio is many times as high for males as for females."¹

Table X shows the percentage distribution of arrests by age, of native whites, foreign-born whites and Negroes from January 1, 1937 to March 31, 1937.

"Of each 100,000 Negroes (of the general population of the United States), 337 were arrested and finger printed during the first quarter of 1937, whereas, the corresponding figure for native whites was 127, and for foreign-born whites was 52."²

Although many of these people arrested were found innocent and later released, the above gives an indication of suspicious characters. Of course, as it is shown later, the arresting officer's attitude toward the arrested persons is a determining factor in arresting suspicious characters.

TYPES OF CRIME

The types of offenses leading to arrests of Negroes are shown in Table XI. It is readily seen that larceny, suspicion, assault, drunkenness, vagrancy and disorderly conduct in the respective order named, represent

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1. U. S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories, 1935, p. 37.
 2. U. S. Dept. of Justice, Uniform Crime Reports, Jan. 1, 1937 to Mar. 31, 1937.

the greatest number of charges. In some cases these arrests have a frequency of more than three times as those for the native born whites.

CHARGES AND PUNISHMENT

As we study Table XI further we see that out of every 100,000 Negroes 337 are arrested whereas there are only 52 of the foreign born whites and 127 of the native whites. A study of the entire problem reveals that one reason that the Negro is arrested at such great frequencies is, he is easier identified than other people. Too, most arresting officers are white, and there is still a great amount of racial antipathy and hatred existing between the two groups and this is the basis for a number of arrests.¹ It is, therefore, often thought that the Negro is supposed to be criminal and commits a greater number of criminal acts and thereby a larger number are arrested as being suspicious characters.

In many cases where Negroes are arrested for an offense, a white person would not be. The Negro has no great number of influential friends who will speak for him, neither does he have a large number of political ties, nor hold high positions in the community. The same holds true for the degree of punishment given for the offense. A crime for which a white man would be given a prison sentence from 1 to 4 years, the Negro is given from 5 to 10 years.² He has almost no voice at all in either the making or the executing of laws and less in the South than in the North. Judge W. H. Thomas of Montgomery, Alabama recognized this fact when he stated:³

"It must be poor consolation to the foreign born, the Indian, the Negro and the ignorant generally to learn that the law has punished only the guilty of thier class or race and to see that the guilty of the class, fortunate by reason of wealth, learning or color, are not so punished for like crime. There must be full realization of the fact that if punishments of the law are not imposed on all offenders alike it will breed distrust of administration."

1. Weatherford, Willis Duke, Race Relations, p. 433

2. Ibid

3. Annals of The American Academy of Political Science, No. 49, September 1913, Negro Criminality in the South, by Monroe N. Work.

This we are certain could not only breed distrust in the administration, but in turn make for further criminal acts. The minority groups, feeling that they would not have a fair trial by law and that they would be severely punished at any rate, and often because of suspicion, do tend to be more criminal rather than less criminal. In a number of instances trials for the Negro offender are not handled by courts with the dignity that one would expect. Even in Chicago we find the following to have taken place.

"One judge frequently assumed an attitude of facetiousness while hearing Negro cases. The hearings were characterized by levity and lack of dignity. In one instance the judge was shaking dice during the hearing of the case." 1

We find also that certain crimes have been "laid on" Negroes. Other races have blacked their hands and faces to make it appear that they were Negroes. The following quotations taken from the Southern Commission of the Study of Lynchings offers good examples.²

"Battling a black assailant in her home in Norfolk, Virginia,a woman tore open his shirt and discovered that he was white. his face blackened and his hands were covered with rubber gloves.A girl in Louisville, after beating off an attacker whom she thought a Negro, discovered that her face and hands were covered with smut which had rubbed off her assailant during the struggle."

The following is a case of frame:

"From Jackson, Mississippi, comes a strange story of a private detective for framing an innocent Negro as a train wrecker, in order to collect a \$3,000 reward. According to the press reports, he had not only manufactured evidence against the Negro but had tortured him into making a confession of guilt."

We have heard many and long discussions about the lynching of Negroes in the United States, and particularly in the South. At present there is a Lynching Bill before the United States Senate, which has been passed by the House and is awaiting action by the Senate. This Bill would make

1. The Chicago Commission on Race Relations, The Negro in Chicago, University of Chicago Press.
2. Southern Commission on the Study of Lynchings, Lynchings and What They Mean by Commission Press, Atlanta, Ga., 1931.

lynching a crime punishable by the courts over the area in which the offense happened. If the cases should not be adequately handled they are subject to legislation of the higher courts of the land.

Those who argue in favor of lynching state that it is necessary for the protection of white womanhood and the maintenance of law and order among Negroes in the South. Further, that the courts are too slow and then do not give sufficient punishment; that lynching serves as good examples as to what happens to Negro offenders and will tend to reduce such crimes. They undoubtedly serve as most striking examples. The Southern Commission on the Study of Lynchings in answer to these arguments state,¹

"Only one-sixth of the mob-victims between 1889 and 1929 were accused of rape. The accusations of rape and attempted rape combined accounted for less than one-fourth of the lynchings, and investigations after the lynchings often proved these accusations to have been unfounded. In some cases the charges were fabrications of white persons attempting to mask their own faults. In others, these accusations were advanced by lynchers to absolve themselves from community blame.

Many Negroes accused of rape or attempted rape, and saved from mobs by courageous peace officers or other means have been acquitted by the courts. In some cases, girls and women who had posed as victims acknowledged that they made these charges to cover their own derelictions, to divert suspicion from some white man, to reconcile their parents, to attract attention, or just to have a little excitement."

We can readily see that the most of these arguments are without foundations. If the courts happen to be stirred by racial antipathy, and emotional feelings running high, there is hardly a chance for a fair trial.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, an organization with a large, white and colored membership and supported by some of the nation's most outstanding figures, has for more than twenty-five years served the Negro in trying to help gain fair trials by the courts as well as enjoy the rights of citizenship as granted by the Constitution of the United States.²

1. Ibid p. 19 (Southern Commission) Op.cit.

2. Brawley, Benjamin, A Short History of the American Negro, p. 169.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF NEGRO CRIMINALS

We have seen in the early part of this chapter that the Negro is a member of the lowest economic group in America. We saw also that neither his home nor his occupation greatly contributed to the complacency or enrichment of his life. Illiteracy rates and ignorance among Negroes, as discussed below, are far too high. These facts linked with his social status, help account for the high percentage of crime existing among Negroes.

"One could easily give statistics which would show that the vast proportion of white criminals come from the ignorant, the poor, the disadvantaged. The conditions under which many of these people live tend to drive them into crime. If this be true for the submerged white man it must be undoubtedly true of the Negro. He is the lowest paid class of American workers. He is the last hired and the first fired."¹

The students of the "Negro Problem" in America have greatly concerned themselves with the bettering of the Negro's economic condition for it is fundamental in reaching a solution for the reduction of crime, illiteracy, morbidity and mortality rates which are so highly disproportionate in relation to his total population. There is a need for greater practices of physical education among Negroes as a step to better citizenship. If such organizations as the Y.M.C.A., Community Centers, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Boy's Clubs and numerous others that promote physical activity and training for the socialization of other races are good for them, they most certainly are also good for the Negro. One author, seeing a greater need for physical education to be used as an instrument of socialization, states:²

"The American Bar Association stated that 'America is the most lawless civilized nation on earth'. Crime costs the United States ten billion dollars, while education costs less than three billion per annum..... The finest prison ever built is but a monument for neglected youth. We cannot legislate patriotism or morality into the hearts of anyone. Character education is the solution to the problem. Sow the thought, reap and act, sow an act, reap a habit, sow a habit and reap a destiny.

1. Weatherford, Willis Duke, Race Relations, p. 452.

2. Martin, Cecil F., Physical Education for Recreation, Journal of Health and Physical Education, May, 1936.

Health, physical education, and recreation are not panacea, but they are intimately related in the program of education, body building, mental development, social efficiency, emotional experiences, and character training, culminating in the ultimate, good citizenship."

Thus, he speaks not only for one group of citizens but for the white, the black, the red and all others.

EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF THE NEGRO

The American people are generally interested in education. This interest is manifested by the extent and rapid growth of education as a public enterprise, and the popularization of the elementary, secondary, and institutions is well known to the average American citizen very little is known concerning the interest and activity of the Negro in education despite the fact that he is a constituent element in the life of the American people.

The writer shall attempt at this time to furnish information concerning the availability and present status of education for Negroes in the United States.

The total Negro population in the United States as recorded in the 1930 census report is 11,891,143. Of this number 2,553,151 persons, constituting 21.5% of the total population, attended school between September 1, 1929 and April 1, 1930.¹ It is worthy of noting that 8 of every 10 Negroes live in 15 southern states which have separate schools for white and colored children. This number represents 23.1% of the total population in these states.²

The fact that such a large majority of colored people live in fifteen southern states indicates that a true picture of the educational status of the Negro is to be found in these states.

The twentieth century has brought about considerable change in the education of the Negro. Notable among which is the fact that secondary schools for colored children have increased from fewer than 100 to approximately 1,400

1. Hall, C. E., Negroes in the United States, p. 208.

2. Bulletin No. 17, Secondary Education for Negroes, p. 10.

and the high school enrollment has risen in round numbers from, 4,000 to 167,000 during the same period. The total increase in enrollment amounted to 447,042 and the number not attending school decreased by 115,001.¹

A number of factors have been involved in the development of educational opportunities for the Negro and his subsequent response to these opportunities. The educational renaissance which went on in the United States during the latter part of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth influenced and vitally effected the colored people even though they were in slavery. It had the effect of arousing their imagination and kindling their enthusiasm for an education so that by the time he had received his freedom a large number, either by stealth or through the kindness of their masters, had received a rudimentary education and it is estimated that between 5 and 10 percent of them could read and write.²

These literate persons, many of whom were college graduates, and the contact of the slaves with the more intelligent slave owners influenced greatly the freedman and stimulated in him a desire (that approached passion) for an education.

Caliver points out the social and economic factors that have figured largely in the education of the Negro in the following statement:

".....the economic conditions of the South; generally apathy, if not antagonism, against public education; prejudice against offering recently emancipated Negroes educational opportunities; and many other causes delayed the development of public educational facilities, especially of high school grade. The development of this field, was until recent years left almost wholly to religious and private philanthropy. Probably nine-tenths of the public secondary schools in the Southern states for colored youth have been organized since the beginning of the World War."³

1. Hall, C. E., Op.cit., p. 208.

2. Work, M. N., Negro Year Book, 1931-32, p. 118.

3. Ibid, P. 2.

The history of education reveals that in almost every nation educational systems had their beginnings in private enterprises. This is true in the education of the Negro in the United States.

Immediately following the Civil War and in some instances before the close of the conflict privately supported institutions for the education of the Negro were organized and established. Outstanding philanthropic work in the education of the Negro has been accomplished by the Peabody Funds, the Slater Funds, the Jeanes Funds, the General Educational Board, and the large numbers of religious bodies.

As the Southern States began to assume responsibility and the support of a system of public education for the colored people many of the private schools and philanthropic groups felt that their work was completed and discontinued operation. Other privately supported institutions were turned over to the public school system and still others offering a more unique and important contribution to educational activities continue to serve in the education of the Negro. Today there are almost 100 privately supported colleges for Negroes, an equal number of secondary schools, and a large number of elementary schools supported by private agencies of various kinds.¹

The committee on private education of the National Conference on Fundamental Problems in the Education of Negroes subscribes to the following summary of facts concerning the educational institutions for Negroes supported by private funds:²

- (1) The contribution to the cause of the education of Negroes by the privately supported institutions have been and still are many and important.
- (2) The time has not yet come when the cause of the education of Negroes can be maintained without the contributions from the privately supported institutions.

1. Caliver, A., Fundamentals in the Education of the Negro, p. 72.

2. Op.cit., p. 74.

- (3) Privately supported institutions in a great many cases supply educational needs not supplied by public supported institutions.
- (4) Privately supported institutions have offered in the past and will continue to offer in the future an invaluable field for experimentation and the trying out of new ideas.
- (5) The training of the Necessary ministers and many other religious leaders is a task that must be met by the privately supported institutions.
- (6) Privately supported institutions in general are not justified in asking the public for funds for their support unless they give promise of rendering efficient service.
- (7) There is no place for a spirit of competition between public supported and privately supported institutions unless it be a competition to see what institution can offer the highest grade of work.
- (8) The cause of the education of Negroes in the United States still needs a number of privately supported institutions on each of the levels of elementary, secondary, and higher education, and sufficient funds should be secured to make such institutions measure up to the highest educational standards for any educational institutions of similar grade.
- (9) Public school authorities should assume full responsibility for elementary and secondary education for all children. The existence of privately supported institutions on the elementary and secondary levels should not be used by public authorities as an excuse for failure to assume this obligation. Private institutions should not allow themselves to be placed in the position of hindering the states from assuming this service.
- (10) Privately supported institutions, no less than public supported institutions, should be conscious of the obligation imposed upon them to provide education that will definitely contribute to the betterment of home life, furnish vocational education and vocational guidance, training for highest ideals of citizenship, training for sensible recreation and adequate use of leisure time, and provide consideration of and encourage living up to the best ideals of health and stimulate the development of standards of ethics and morals that are essential to a sound society among any people.

The first of the large educational foundations to influence the educational advancement of the Negro was the George Peabody Fund. During the years from 1868 to 1914 the foundation donated a total of \$3,650,556 to the educational advancement of the South. Leavell states that colored schools, teachers, and

pupils shared directly the benefits of funds given to all these causes except the grants to George Peabody College.¹

The John F. Slater Fund founded in the year 1882 was the first large fund established distinctly for the advancement of education for the Negro. The expressed wish of the donor was to assist in giving educational opportunities to poor Negro students in the South.² The total amount granted to all causes since 1882 to the year 1929 is \$3,252,279.³

The next educational foundation to appear was the General Education Board established in 1902 by John D. Rockefeller. This board's assistance was extended to every line of educational endeavor. It has proved its interest in Negro education by its long record of cooperation with both public and private educational activities for the colored people. Reports for the period 1902-1920 show a total of \$1,770,264.85 given to Negro schools and colleges.⁴ During the period of 1920-1928 the reports show that the board spent for the public education of the Negro a total of \$2,661,937.28. The appropriations of the General Education Board for Negro education in fourteen southern states from 1924 to 1929 was \$12,317,320.⁵

The establishment of the Anna T. Jeanes Fund in the year 1907, for the purpose of aiding the Negro public school of the rural south, was the beginning of another element in the policy of the large philanthropic agency. The work of this board has been confined entirely to the public education of the Negro. The total appropriations and expenditures of the Jeans from 1908 to 1920 was \$655,368.73.⁶ From 1920 to 1929 the total expenditures of the Jeans Fund and of Public Funds for Industrial Teachers in Rural Education was \$2,235,968.95.⁷

1. Leavell, U. W., Philanthropy in Negro Education, p. 94.

2. Ibid, p. 81.

3. Ibid, p. 128.

4. Ibid, p. 105.

5. Ibid, p. 180.

6. Ibid, p. 108.

7. Ibid, p. 137.

Mr. Julius Rosenwald made his first gift to Negro rural schools in 1912. It was given to aid small schools to do similar work to that which was being done at Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. "This eventually led to the establishment of the Julius Rosenwald Fund which embodies the two latest developments in educational philanthropy namely: it is devoted entirely to Negro education, and its emphasis is centered on public education."¹ The total number of Rosenwald school buildings erected between the period of 1912 and 1929 was 4,464 at a total cost of \$23,182,238.²

PUBLIC EDUCATION

Because of the poverty and disorganization in the South following the Civil War any attempts to establish public schools in that section of the country for either race had a very feeble and limited beginning. Gradually education gained momentum during the early part of the nineteenth century and public schools for the Negro slowly developed along with public schools for the white population. The rate of development was slow for both races, that of the Negro lagging far behind, as the South haltingly recovered from the devastating effects of the war.

Today we find that there has been a rapid decrease in Negro illiteracy during the past 60 years. In 1930, the illiterates constituted 16.3 percent of the Negroes 10 years old and older, as compared with 22.9 percent in 1920, 30.4 percent in 1910, 44.5 percent in 1900, 57.1 percent in 1890, 70 percent in 1880, and 81.4 percent in 1870.³

Statistics show that 2,553,151 Negroes were in school attendance during 1929 and 1930. This constitutes 21.5 percent of the total population.

As compared with the different classes of the population, with the exception

1. Ibid, p. 82.

2. Ibid, p. 181.

3. Negroes in the United States, United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1920-1932, p. 208.

of the foreign born, the proportion in school does not vary greatly from the average of all classes combined, 22.8 percent. 22.9 percent of the White, and 3.8 percent of foreign born White were attending school.¹ There are over 100 institutions for Negroes designated as colleges enrolling over 25,000 students; 2,000 high schools for Negroes enrolling approximately 150,000 students; and a large number of elementary schools attended by 2,267,142 pupils.²

A study of the educational opportunities afforded Negroes in the seventeen states that maintain a separate school system, and where 80 percent of all Negroes in the United States live, reveals the following facts:³ There are 4,090,566 Negro children under 17 years of age. Of all the children between the ages of 10 to 15 employed gainfully 24.8 percent are Negro children. One million Negro children of school age are not in school. Three-fourths of all Negro children never go beyond the fourth grade. There are 15.1 percent of Negro pupils who live 3 miles or more from school as compared with 4.3 percent whites. Although many of the children live excessive distances from school, little transportation is provided. The school term is 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ months shorter than the accepted standard in the same states and counties. Only 1.0 percent of the Negro children are transported at public expense as compared with 18.8 percent whites. While 67 percent of the Negroes live in rural areas, only 39 percent of the four years high schools are located in this area. In 1930 there were 230 counties in 15 Southern states which had no high school facilities at all for Negroes, and 195 other counties had no four year high schools. Nearly a third of all the high schools that are available are far removed from the homes of their pupils. The area which each of these schools

1. Ibid, p. 208.

2. Certain Facts About the Education of Negroes, United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 121980, pp. 1-2-3-4.

3. Ibid.

serves averages approximately 30 square miles. There are 56,312 elementary and high school teachers in 17 Southern states and the District of Columbia. The salary of Negro rural teachers in 11 Southern States averages \$478 less per year than the salaries for whites in the same states. Salaries of junior and senior high school teachers in 17 states and the District of Columbia for Negroes is \$926 as compared with \$1,478 for Whites. The cost of teacher's salaries per child of high school age in 17 states and the District of Columbia for Negroes is \$2.16 as compared with \$11.47 for whites. The years of training for rural teachers beyond elementary grades in 17 states and the District of Columbia is 3 years and 2 months as compared with 4 years and 8 months for the whites. In one state 62 percent of the Negro elementary teachers had not progressed beyond high school. The corresponding percentage for white elementary teachers in that state was 6.5 percent. In order to bring the standards of Negro education in size and class room up to the average of the nation as a whole, it was estimated in 1930-31 that more than 30,000 Negro public school teachers were needed. The range of high school library expenditure in six states for white is \$15,138 to \$54,099; colored, \$80 to \$1,374. Eleven Southern states spent in 1930 an average of \$12.57 annually for the education of each Negro pupil enrolled as compared \$44.31 for each white child enrolled and \$99, the national average for all pupils enrolled.

The Negro colleges and universities have made remarkable progress during the past eighty years. The latest available data shows:¹ that of the 120 Negro colleges and universities, 25 percent of them are supported by the public. These institutions are located mainly in the southern states, with a small number throughout the District of Columbia and extending as far northward as Pennsylvania. Sixteen of these institutions are fully accredited

1. Caliver, A., Op.cit., p. 59.

with their respective accrediting associations. At the time of this data only one university is on the approved list of the Association of American Universities.

Referring to the public supported institutions of higher learning for the Negro Kelly Miller has this to say: "The standards, ideals, and methods of this type of institution are wholly dependent upon what the state thinks of the place which the Negro should occupy in the political, social, and general scheme. The Negro himself has little or nothing to do about the general policies which are set by the educational authorities of the state."¹

Since its origin, the National Youth Administration of the Federal Government has done much for the Negro by affording work aid for needy students in the secondary schools and colleges of the country. Aubrey Williams, executive director of the National Youth Administration, announces:

"The school aid program will give financial assistance to students in approved institutions not requiring high school or the equivalent for entrance, while the college and graduate aid program will help those in the approved institutions which have such minimum requirements. Last year 30,000 colored students benefitted through the former program, while more than 7,000 were aided by the later. These figures represented an increase of over 9,000 over the previous year's total."²

The afore-going paragraphs show plainly that illiteracy rates among Negroes are still far too high. It is evidenced that thinking Americans see that for our society to advance, each group which constitutes the society must advance concomitantly. Scientific and progressive ways of thinking and reasoning are not known and practiced by the illiterate. It is largely this group as well as backward, physically and mentally weak (caused by being backward), the delinquent and the superstitious, that retard the forward

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1. Miller, K., The Reorganization of the Higher Education of the Negro in Light of Changing Conditions, The Journal of Negro Education, July, 1936, pp. 488-499.
 2. Williams, A., N.Y.A. Program to Continue through the Year, Journal and Guide, August 21, 1937.

progress of a society. There is a great need for the education of these people that they will see the good in scientific health and social practices. Further, as the writer shall attempt to show below, there is a greater need for participation in physical education and recreation so that they will not only become a stronger and healthier people, but also help to make America a better place to live.

PLAY AND RECREATION

The coming of the mechanical and technological age in which we live has brought with it many basic changes in our social order. Important among these changes are some, namely: a greater amount of unemployment, general decreased number of working hours, progressive educational theories and practices and increased time for leisure, all of which have in turn helped to bring about what is known as the great 'play era'. This has probably effected 'America's tenth citizen'¹ even more than others.

Organized recreation, as such, for the citizens of the United States is a modern movement. It has been greatly urban in character, and has followed the growth of cities and industry.² Many cities still have not adequately progressed in meeting the needs of its citizens.³

Until recent years organized play and recreation for the Negro has been of a minor nature. In great part he has lived in the rural South. In certain sections of the North he has enjoyed unsegregated forms of recreational activities while in other sections and greatly in the South he has been unprovided for.

During slavery the Negro enjoyed almost no play and recreation at all

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1. Common term used by writers meaning 'the Negro'.
 2. Steiner, Jesse Frederick, America At Play, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1933, p. 9.
 3. National Recreation Association (a mimeographed paper) Play and Recreation for Negroes, December, 1929,- 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

and particularly, no organization was allowed because of the feat of insurrections. The slave learned to get a certain amount of play and joy out of his work. As he ploughed, chopped wood, hoed cotton or went through his chores about the plantation he did it to a rhythm and a song. He would sing about his good or mean master, the heavy hammer, and the trying hour, the happy day coming, heaven or anything that came to his mind. This is apparent from the appeal to the emotion made through his song and rhythm. He often sung unheard of songs which he never again recalled, and there is still a remnant of these traits in the Negro.¹

Concerning Negro songs of the past and present, Dr. Odum writes:²

"In general it may be said that the folk songs of the Negroes has found its rise in every phase of Negro life. It is scarcely possible to trace the origin of the first spirituals and plantation songs.....Negro folk produce spontaneous songs.....With the Negroes of today songs have arisen in much the same way. The difference of environment must necessarily make a difference in the nature of the songs; at the same time the coloring of present-day life is much in evidence in some of the old songs composed by the slaves but sung by Negroes of the present generation."

It was an economic necessity for the master to keep his slaves in good health. Although the slaves were not allowed to stay up late at night and dissipate his health, we are well acquainted with the fact that he did. At night after all was quiet numbers would steal off to a special place where there was fun to be enjoyed. It was at that time that often with a crude hand-made instrument he would play, sing, frolic and dance, often until dawn. To be sure, there were other forms of recreation stolen whenever possible, but this was the most widespread type.

In his book, "Shadow of the Plantation", a study of Negro peasant life

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1. Odum, Howard W., The Negro and his Songs, p. 32, University of North Carolina Press, 1925.
 2. Odum, H. W., Op.cit., Ibid, pp. 30-31.

in a section of Alabama, Dr. Charles S. Johnson in a striking manner depicts the recreational life of these people which is so typical of thousands of similar people throughout the rural South.¹ The features of unorganized and unplanned recreation sponsored by untrained individuals and groups is dominating throughout. The church, here, is the greatest instrument for the promotion of recreation. Regular Sunday services, prayer meetings, camp or revival meetings, church suppers and parties all offer periods of recreation for both young and old. A large number attend these meetings merely for social purposes. It gives them an opportunity to see their friends and talk about various happenings. It gives the young people a chance to court.

Another outstanding outlet of the urge for expression is given through fraternal organizations and societies. These people seem to highly enjoy the thrill that comes through secret orders and initiations; the opportunity offered for parliamentary procedure (as they know it); and the opportunity that they give for the wearing of uniforms. Like the church, it is largely the social features of these organizations that holds them together.

Other mild forms of recreation in which they participate are: going to town on Saturday evenings, going to the railroad station and watching the trains go by, also talking to others who are there; fishing, although this is looked upon as being a lazy mans sport, hunting in season, frolicing and playing baseball on Saturday afternoons are looked forward to with great interest.

In speaking of the frolic, Dr. Johnson says:²

"This is the great feature of rural recreation. These affairs begin as dances where refreshments are sold and wind up, frequently, in the most wanton merrymaking. In this respect, they are characteristic

1. Johnson, Charles S., Shadow of the Plantation, pp. 180-185.

2. Ibid, Op.cit., p. 181.

of all pleasant merrymaking, a reaction to, and escape from, the other extreme of thier life-cycle. The frolics and 'parties', held on Saturday nights, were mentioned by practically all the young members of the community. The church inveighed against them as an incident of the evil of dancing. They are held from house to house; there is usually an abundance of corn whisky available, and they not infrequently end in violence."

Church members are expected not to attend these frolics, however, many of them do because entertainment is so rare and this is an eary way to enjoy oneself.

In the afore-going chapters we saw that there were practically 80 percent of all Negroes live in the South and of that number more than half of them live in rural areas. So, it is evident that more than half of all Negro people participate in the above mentioned types of play and recreation.

The remainder of the population is located mostly in southern and northern urban districts. The prevailing conditions of low economic status, unemployment, bad housing conditions, (often located in areas infected with vice and crime) low state of education, the disproportionate ratio of juvenile delinquency and crime among Negroes have been described above. Added to these conditions is the lack of adequate provisions for wholesome and safe play opportunities.¹ Because of economic disability these people are not able to provide wholesome opportunities for themselves.² Therefore, they too often turn to pool rooms, dance halls, moving picture shows and other forms of commercial recreation that are not of the best type.

Although recreation for the Negro in the United States is not comparable to that of the while citizens it has made rapid strides in the past few years.

"The one hundred thirty-nine communities providing special or exclusive facilities, mainly in southern states, plus hundreds of other cities where the adjustments are less difficult but where cooperative or bi-racial uses of recreation centers make play-grounds available, are real testimony of a forward march in democratizing America's recreation movement. Nor has this marching been all rhythm or sounding of feet as of marching time.

1. National Recreation Association, Play and Recreation for Negroes, a mimeographed paper, Dec., 1929.

2. Ibid.

The communities including consideration for the needs of colored people have increased nearly two hundred percent in the past decade. Last year (1935) a check-up of recreation buildings discovered eighteen additional centers particularly set apart for the use of colored groups, and an increase of forty nine play areas." 1

Many cities are moving forward today and are making provisions for the recreational needs of the Negro as they would for his educational need. In some cases, the community centers and Y.M.C.A. are supported by community chest fund or in others, the playgrounds and community centers are supported by taxation or municipal funds.

Dayton, Ohio, today has the Linden Center, a \$90,000.00 building, which represents perhaps the best construction and utility of any in recreation buildings in its class.² It has a combined auditorium-gymnasium, glazed tile wainscoting, and club rooms with glass partitions, indoor swimming pool and clinic rooms and a nine hole golf course. Cincinnati, Detroit, Stuebenville, Washington, D. C., Jacksonville, Florida, and many other cities have sensed this need and are trying to meet it.

The activities sponsored by the Negro recreational centers are not highly different from those sponsored by other groups. The Negro participates in every phase of play. One factor which he does seem to have exceptionally greater success is with music and rhythm.

"Neither the rules for harmonious choral music nor routine of the dance seem "inherited", even for the Negro. Native skill may always be improved by direction. However, music particularly harmonizes with the racial inclinations of the Negro. He is accepted as the most emotional of all the human groups on earth. Leopold Stokowski, in comparing finer and greater music recently said, 'it must be offered humanly, not through the intellectual approach. The intellectual approach that is for mathematics, for chemistry - not for music. Music is emotional'. No wonder, then, that as a vehicle for recreation, music is so popular with the group. The Negro chorals in many sections of

1. Atwell, E. T., Recreation for Colored Citizens, Recreation, January, 1937. National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York.

2. Ibid.

of America, which have been developed or aided by our Bureau of Colored Work, attest the interest, in that part of our program. In the activities promoted through the Community Center Department of Washington, D. C., the group vocal and instrumental phases are particularly successful."¹

The Bureau of Colored work for the National Recreation Association is doing a great national service for the Negro in helping to increase recreational opportunities. This service is rendered in the form of: A field director of experience, wisdom, and knowledge, and special workers in the field of dramatic and music activities. These workers have visited practically all of the cities now maintaining recreational opportunities for Negroes and have helped work out suitable programs and methods of organized management.

The Federal agencies such as the W.P.A., P.W.A., N.Y.A. are furnishing leaders and offering short courses in recreational leadership for Negroes as well as for others. It has been recognized that there is a great need for increased recreation as well as an increased number of properly trained leaders.

"When President Theodore Roosevelt said, 'This country will not be a good place for any of us to live in unless we make it a good place for all of us to live in' he did not add, 'it does not matter about the Colored Americans.' Decidedly he included them in his ideal of American communities where pursuit of happiness, as well as the right to life and liberty, are recognized opportunities for all."²

A writer adds further:

"It costs three hundred dollars per year to keep man in prison, and less than one hundred dollars to keep a child in school. There is no need for further illustrations to convince a thinking person of the importance of a program of supervised recreation, both for children and adults. Every child craves activity. The factors which determine proper reflexes and developments are instincts, interests, needs, environment, and supervision." ²

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1. National Recreation Association, Shall Colored Americans Have Recreation A leaflet.
 2. Martin, Cecil F., Physical Education for Recreation., Journal of Health and Physical Education, May, 1936, P. 311.

Ellsworth Vines, tennis king (1936); June Sharp, a national tennis star; Jean Parker, movie star; George Anderson, The University of California track and field star; Babe Harrell of All-America Football fame, and numerous others are products of the Department of Physical Education of the Pasadena City Schools and the Recreation Department of the city of Pasadena.....In the great human laboratories - the gymnasias, athletic fields, plunges, and sports arenas teeming with youth - dynamic leaders in education are building the manhood and womanhood of America to carry forth our national life."

It was stated in the above paragraphs that organized recreation for the Negro in the past has been of a minor nature. He was forced to turn to the church and often unwholesome commercialized activity; dance halls, pool rooms and moving picture houses, for his recreation. Although it is still far short of the need and the ideal, Federal, Municipal and other organizations are making adequate provisions for these recreational activities in community centers, camps, playgrounds gymnasias, swimming pools, athletic fields, leadership organizations, schools and various other ways. It is recognized that through recreation or physical education there is an opportunity to increase social efficiency through learning about customs and traditions of other races, also a means of gaining knowledge through participation in folk games and ways of doing things through plays and games. This should be a part of any good physical education or recreational program. Such participation is good for mental as well as physical health and hygiene as the writer attempts to show in the next section.

CHAPTER VI

HEALTH STATUS OF THE NEGRO

The facts concerning the health of the Negro are of great interest and importance to those who are engaged in efforts to improve the socio-economic condition of the race. As has been pointed out in previous chapters of this study, the Negro constitutes one-tenth of the total population of this country. They are a clear cut and distinct racial group with very definite social and economic problems. The health problem of the Negro is to be considered with no less degree of seriousness than that accorded to his many other serious handicaps. Health is basic to the general welfare of the Negro as it is to no other race. Dublin states: "An improvement in Negro health to the point where it would compare favorably with that of the white race, would at one stroke wipe out many disabilities from which the race suffers, improve its economic status and stimulate its native abilities as would no other single improvement."¹

Facts regarding the health of the Negro must be secured from sources that are indirect. The same is true for the white race. Only partial record is kept as yet of the diseases and disabilities from which individuals suffer. It is therefore, necessary to rely upon the facts of mortality made available to us by the publications of official statistical and health agencies and by the large insurance companies.

In 1930 the standardized death rate for Negroes was 18.0 per 1,000 as compared with 9.9 for white.² This means that the colored death rate was 82% higher than the white.

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company reports that organic heart disease was the leading cause of death among their colored industrial

1. Dublin, L. I., The Health of The Negro, p. 3.

2. Ibid. p. 4.

policy holders in 1931.¹ Their death rate was 221.9 per 100,000 or a little more than one and a half times that of whites.

The report shows further than tuberculosis ranked second in mortality toll with a rate of 175.3 or slightly more than three times that for the whites. Nephritis ranks third with a rate of 112.7 per 100,000 or nearly double that of whites, while cerebral hemorrhage and pneumonia each takes double the toll of life among the Negroes that it does among whites. These five diseases account for sixty percent of Negro mortality.²

There is not recorded as much improvement for conditions arising from pregnancy and child birth for colored women as for white women. The decline in death rate from these causes for white women was 53 percent between 1911 and 1933 while the decline in death rate for Negro women in these diseases was 40 percent.³

Another significant factor in the high death rate of Negroes is venereal disease. The trend in this type of disease has been upward since the year 1919, and it is therefore obvious that the movement for the control of venereal disease must concentrate more attention on the Negro.⁴

Despite the unfavorable reports on the diseases mentioned above the fact remains that a remarkable decline in the death rate of the Negro has taken place in the past twenty years. There was a 33 percent drop in the death rate of the Negroes insured in industrial policies of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company from the period 1911 - 1933.⁵ They are steadily lowering their death rate and adding to their life span.

(1) Ibid. p. 4

(2) Ibid. p. 6

(3) Ibid. p. 6

(4) Hasen, H.H., A Leading Cause of Death Among Negroes, The Journal of Negro Education, July, 1937, p. 321.

(5) Dublin, L. I., Op. cit., p. 9

However, there are a number of factors that enter into the picture that must be considered before we can effect an improvement in the health status of the race. "Is the care of the Negro's health a medical problem, an economic problem, or a race problem? If it is a mixture, in what proportions are its elements compounded?" We feel that as a medical problem sickness and the care of diseases are pretty much the same as pertains to the Negro as the corresponding problem among the white. Some important diseases differ in relative frequency but in the large, the difference is in emphasis, not in kind. Both groups need physicians, dentists, nurses, hospitals, clinics, medicines, physical educators, and public health agencies. This opinion is shared by Davis in his discussion of the problems of Health Service for Negroes.²

In a study of Fundamentals in Education of Negroes the committee on health included in their report the following:³

"The problem of health has two interrelated aspects - personal health and public health. They are largely dependent on each other. Most of the factors influencing the one also influence the other."

"The prevalence of disease among Negroes and their high death rate are due to two major factors: Those concerned with personal health, which the individual can largely control; and those concerned with public health, over which he has little or no control. Among those elements of personal health, wholly or partially within the control of Negroes themselves, are the following: (1) Eating, sleeping and resting; (2) Fresh air and exercise; (3) Cleanliness; (4) Dress; (5) Worry; (6) Self-pity; (7) Ignorance; (8) Carelessness; (9) System; and (10) Personal habits."

"Among those elements dealing directly or indirectly with public health over which the Negro has little or no control are the following: (1) Low income; (2) Poor housing facilities; (3) Unsanitary conditions; (4) Inadequate water supply; (5) Improper

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- (1) Davis, M.M., Problems of Health Service for Negroes, Journal of Negro Education, July, 1937, p. 439.
(2) Ibid. p. 438.
(3) Caliver, A., Op. cit., p. 38-39.

food supply; (6) Lack of educational facilities; (7) Lack of guidance; (8) Lack of hospital facilities; (9) Absence of adequate parental and maternal care; (10) Cost of medical care; (11) Insufficient distribution of medical service; (12) Malnutrition; (13) Lack of facilities for taking care of physical and mental defectives; (14) Lack of preventive agencies; (15) Unhealthy working conditions; and (16) Inferiority and failure complex, resulting from a disadvantaged economic and social status."

It is evident from the afore-mentioned facts concerning the health status of Negroes that there is a fertile field for the teaching of health and physical education to this group. The physical educator can render valuable help in aiding the Negro to solve his personal health problems such as, eating, sleeping, resting, fresh air, exercise, cleanliness, dress, worry, self-pity, system, and other personal habits.

The program of the National Negro Health Week can very well be sponsored in various communities by the physical educator. This movement had its origin in Virginia in 1913 and has gained national observance since Booker T. Washington issued a proclamation at Tuskegee Institute in 1915, for a National Health Improvement Week which later became known as The National Negro Health Week.¹ It has an annual observance in which local, county, state and national organizations of both races, as well as the federal government cooperate. The object is to improve the health of Negroes and the condition under which they live, in view of the disproportionately high death rate among Negroes in America.² The program of physical education may sponsor this movement in the communities where leadership is lacking and thereby do much to encourage better health conditions among the colored people.

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- (1) Brown, R. C., The National Negro Health Week Movement, Reprint from the Health Officer, Vol. 1, p. 146.
(2) Ibid., p. 146.

The physical educator can assist further by a persistent agitation for the incorporation of regular health examinations and health instruction, for both young and old, in the programs of the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., playground, community and recreation centers, schools, colleges and other community institutions. The examinations should become prerequisites to membership, for it is necessary to know the health conditions of an individual before a scientific program of physical activity can be arranged to meet his needs, capacities and interests. It is therefore evidenced that wholesome participation is dependent upon a wholesome mental and physical state.

From the above paragraph the writer does not mean to infer that the physical educator is to conduct the health examinations. He is merely to give health instruction or 'promote scientific ideas about disease' and health practices. Whenever necessary he is to assist the physician and the nurse in arranging for examinations, recording findings and doing other similar things that might be suggested to him.

The physical educator has a splendid opportunity through the development and leadership in organized community recreation to aid the Negro in his organic development. Concerning the contribution that physical education can make to organic development and its maintenance Nash has this to say:

"The organic development becomes the real source of health power. Helping to give the individual organic power is the first step toward fulness. . . . Health then is the development of organic power, which is largely the result of activity - activities which involve large muscle groups of the body."

Physical education activities of the nature that are described above will also contribute much to the mental health through sports,

dancing, games, camping and others. In relation to this value Nash has this to say:

"A happy life depends upon placing children in groups where they have a chance of success and do not become embittered. In childhood much of his meaning comes through the play life of the child Physical education offers remarkable opportunity for the interpretive status of an individual - - Which lays a broad foundation, not only for the recreation life of the adult but for his work life Physical education offers in a large way opportunity for embedding in childhood the roots of activities which may have a life-time span of growth."

"The Negro's social efficiency, economic, efficiency, and cultural efficiency will undoubtedly depend upon his health status. This in turn will determine the degree to which he becomes socially adjusted."

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM - The 1930 Census indicated that there are practically 12,000,000 Negroes in the United States. These people were introduced into America in large numbers with the beginning of "black slavery in 1619." The slaves will be long remembered for their characteristic folklore, superstitions and songs. The Negro of today will be long remembered for his, seeming carefree philosophy of life, and his unique expressions through rhythm and music.

The transportation of this race from its native environment brought with it many health adjustment problems. Although only the strongest Africans obtainable were brought to America, they were exposed to new diseases and health hazards for which their bodies had built no resistance. Respiratory diseases caused and still causes a disproportionate number of deaths among Negroes.

There were 3,000,000 Negro slaves emancipated on January 1, 1863. Although a very small percentage could read and write the masses were untrained for citizenship and to withstand the test in the American society, one of the most complex in the world. This fact, along with the "Reconstruction" of the South caused the Negro to suffer a great set-back.

Theoretically America is democratic and each citizen enjoys the pursuit of happiness as well as the right to life and liberty. Life is institutionalized. The problems arise out of the definition of the nature and extent to which the Negro shall participate in each. In one section he does not enjoy the right to vote. This adds greatly to his problems.

Today there are many federal, state, religious and philanthropic forces at work trying to alleviate the conditions that make for the Negro's maladjustment. Since his emancipation, the Negro has made considerable progress in Art, Literature, Music, Science and a long many other lines.

The race question is of great importance to the nation. Where an element constitutes one-tenth of a nation's population it would be unwise to let it go neglected. It is true that for the culture of any group to be advanced to its maximum, each component that constitutes that group must concomitantly be advanced. There is need for integration and correlation of the lives of the individual so that they might reconstruct their own experiences as well as those of the race. There is need for new direction and new direction and new attainable ideas in terms of practicable everyday life. Definite success and progress for this group undoubtedly means a contribution to the society to which it belongs.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY - It was stated above that the Negro, because of his background, is very sensitive in regard to rhythm and music and that he has been long stimulated by a characteristic folklore. These tendencies have given rise to much creative literature and art. It has also been shown that the Negro is maladjusted in American social life. Fundamentally and biologically the black man's needs are just the same as those of any other man. Science has discovered that his appetites, pleasures and pains or satisfactions and wants are common to all human beings. Therefore, if the race problem is going to be solved it cannot be done without education -- education of both whites, blacks, and others to understand these facts and the soundest methods to be used in coping with them.

The established benefits accruing from our modern programs of physical education are such that there is a manifest need for exploring the possibilities

of these programs as aides in the improvement of the social adjustment and physical status of the Negro. A program adequate to meet the demands of the Negro can be determined only through a clear understanding of the basic factors which create the maladjustments. Further, the solution of the "Negro Problem" cannot be attained without proper provision for physical education.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GENERAL EDUCATION - The educator today has been made to realize the complexity of our changing society and also that of the changing individual. Education, philosophy, government and religion are all searching for new truths and larger controls.

The world is suffering with a hysteria. Revolutions and wars have terrorized and threatened every civilized nation almost to the saturation point. If we are going to preserve and protect our centuries of progress, some force will have to redirect our present trends. That direction will have to come through the course of intelligent and scientific education.

Education is striving to develop: 1. A farsighted race of people who will foresee a great array of results of an act before it takes place, 2. a representative type of individual - one who will express the desirable traits of society, 3. to develop desirable interests that will multiply, 4. develop a people who can solve its problems.

It is the aim of education to give man a better method of reacting to the forces of his environment; to broaden his outlook; to take in more consequences; and to help him promote a more enriched and effective social order. The best way to determine the state and quality of one's education is to weight the extent and nature of his participation in society.

ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE NEGRO - The assimilation of the Negro into the American society is a difficult process. Such factors as his social heritage, his

state of literacy, cultural and social attitudes or discrimination, have greatly retarded the socialization of the Negro.

OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH NEGROES PREDOMINATE - The 1930 Census shows that there were 5,503,535 Negroes gainfully occupied in the United States. An exceptionally high ratio of Negro females were gainfully occupied in 1930. The most of these people were concentrated into a few occupations; namely, agricultural labor, domestic and personal service, and unskilled labor in general. The number of professional and skilled workers has greatly increased since 1910. Among the unskilled and servant groups it is evidenced that the Negro is often paid lower wages than the white worker doing the same work. (Particularly in the South).

The Negro agricultural labor population showed a decrease while the urban occupational population showed increases. This continued migration of the agricultural Negro to urban centers has magnified his socio-economic problem. UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG NEGROES - The 1935 occupational census shows that whereas the Negro constitutes only 9.7 percent of the total United States population, he constitutes one-sixth of the total relief population. The above factors intensified by the lack of unemployment provisions made for Negroes help account for his over-representation on relief rolls.

Students of the "Negro Question" are looking for a solution to this great economic problem. There will be little hope for success toward a solution so long as the masses of the gainfully employed Negro are concentrated in such few occupations and especially as servants and unskilled laborers. It is obvious, however, that the economic security of the Negro depends directly upon the economic security of the nation, which is a determining factor, for the people of the nation. There is a great need for the education of the

Negro so that he can see the consequences of aligning himself with his fellow white worker in the interest of better working conditions, adequate salaries and wages and for the good of labor in general. The ultimate salvation for future progress and economic security of the Negro lies in the degree to which he will be able to foresee consequences of social acts and the extent to which he integrates himself through the total economic pattern of the nation.

NEGRO HOUSING PROBLEMS - Negro housing offers several problems in the United States. The economic disability, segregative legislation and agreements, high rents and lack of training, has caused many Negroes to live in slum sections, near railroads, factories, in alleys or near swamps. Often these areas are infected with crime and vice; namely, gambling dens, houses of prostitution, "speak easies" and various other places of vice. In addition to this, homes are often delapidated and have no modern conveniences. Added to this is the conditions of over-crowding because of high rents. As a result, many of the children are forced to spend a great amount of their time in the streets. Although the Negro's ideals and standards of home are in keeping with American standards, largely, he has been kept from realizing them. Federal housing projects and legislation will greatly aid Negro housing but at present merely catches the surface.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND CRIME AMONG NEGROES - Latest court records show that the Negro in proportion to his population is convicted of from one to three times as much crime as other people. Economic conditions is a contributing factor. Also, there is a greater need for education in citizenship, too, a need to reduce racial antipathy and hatred among Negroes and whites. Where most arresting officers were white, often personal attitude caused arrest. Arrest as suspicious characters was exceptionally high. Negroes do not have

high positions, political influence to keep them from being arrested. Negroes are often framed, while the Southern Commission on the Study of Lynching showed that since 1890-1929, only 6 percent of all accused Negroes lynched were guilty.

EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF THE NEGRO - Americans are deeply interested in education. This is shown by the character of the various educational facilities and programs. The Negro, like other Americans, shows the same interest. Philanthropy, state, religious groups as well as the Negro himself, have done much for his education since he has been emancipated.

Three-fourth of all Negroes live in 17 Southern States and the District of Columbia, where separate schools are maintained, so, the most of this information deals with that section.

The rate of illiteracy among Negroes is 16.3 percent for all Negroes in the United States or three times higher than the rate for the nation. There are one million Negro children of school age who are not in school. Several factors contribute to these facts, namely; in the South in 1930 there were more than 230 counties that have no high schools for Negroes; the school terms average fewer number of months than does that for whites; Negro schools are greatly overcrowded; teachers are largely inadequately trained; their salaries are not high enough to permit them to maintain a sufficient standard of living (median annual salary for 11 states for elementary teachers was \$423.00); and there is a general discrimination in the distribution of appropriations for Negro education (in 1930 in eleven states average education expenditure for each white pupil enrolled was \$44.31, and for each Negro pupil it was \$12.57).

PLAY AND RECREATION - There is a greater need for physical education among Negroes as an aid in character development and prevention and decreasing the delinquency rates.

The coming of the mechanical and technological age in which we live has brought with it many basic changes in our social order. Important among these changes are; a greater amount of unemployment, general decrease in number of working hours, progressive educational theories and practices and increased time for leisure all of which in turn have helped to bring about the "play era". The Negro has perhaps been effected more by this than others.

Organized recreation as such in the United States is a modern movement. Until recent years, organized play for the Negro has been of a minor nature. The Bureau of Colored Work of the National Recreation Associations is helping to increase recreational opportunities for Negroes. The Municipal and Federal Government are doing much for Negro recreation. The gymnasium, athletic fields, camps and plunges are human laboratories where dynamic leaders in education are building the manhood and womanhood of America to carry forth our national life."

HEALTH STATUS OF THE NEGRO - The 1935 mortality rates among Negroes was 208.1 percent per 100,000 or a little more than 1-1/2 times that of the white.

These high rates greatly caused by economic disability, poor environmental and housing conditions, malnutrition, occupational hazards, insufficient distribution of medical care, lack of adequate guidance, lack of preventative agencies, illiteracy, ignorance and superstition. The writer sees physical education as a form of education in helping individuals, wherever possible, to gain scientific and practical knowledge about himself in relation to his social and physical environment.

CONCLUSIONS - On the basis of the accumulated information, the writer attempts to show that physical education, while not a panacea to his many ills, can contribute toward the social adjustment of the Negro and therefore suggest the following:

(1) Because of his social heritage; present economic and social oppression; discrimination and segregation there is a great need for a consciousness of belonging to the American Society. There is a need for the feeling of Social recognition and approval through participation in activity; there is a need for the feeling of mastery, success and definite progress in activity; there is need for creative or original expression and healthful living; there is need for opportunity to gain varied experiences; there is need for development of judgment and insight into human nature and social acts; and there is need for the challenging of his imagination and the competition of his wits.

(2) It seems that many worthwhile contributions toward decreasing the high rate of juvenile delinquency and crime and a well integrated and socialized personality under proper conditions, result from participation in various physical activities and good contacts with other individuals. Physical education offers numerous opportunities for individuals to better understand human nature. It is in this human laboratory that the teachings through physical education and recreation can develop the "likes" of society such as: unselfishness, cooperation, fair play, justice, honesty, truthfulness, greater interest in social progress and in general good character and personality traits, for socialization comes through desired democratic participation.

(3) There is need for professionally trained leaders who have an understanding of the Negro's need, a knowledge and technique for applying this information in the formation of a physical education program and carry it to

the darkest hills of America. This can be done through State Agencies, 4-H Clubs and the Church.

(4) It is the writers firm conviction that physical education in the broad sense organized and free play, recreation and athletics, as sponsored through various agencies, namely; Boy Scouts and Girl Scout organizations, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. Camps, school programs, police and other boys clubs, and numerous other similar agencies, with added emphasis, satisfy the particular needs of the Negro.

(5) Because of the health status of the Negro as revealed by the most reliable statistics available the writer feels that these facts indicate the need for improved health conditions. It is also felt that physical education can contribute to the health needs of the Negro by offering instruction in matters pertaining to his health; by making available activities that will contribute to his organic and mental health; and by the utilization of physical education leadership in matters concerning the health of the Negro.

In the light of the above conclusions it seems likely that physical education can contribute toward these needs to some of them in aiding the Negro to attain social adjustment and thereby contribute to a fuller and richer life.

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