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REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR ON MANPOWER RESEARCH AND TRAINING UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962.

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THE ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF 1965, THE PROBLEMS TO BE SOLVED, AND THE NEW DIRECTIONS THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT (MDTA) PROGRAMS ARE TAKING TO MEET THE MANPOWER CHALLENGES THAT LIE AHEAD ARE THE SUBSTANCES OF THIS REPORT. CONTENTS INCLUDE (1) PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS, (2) EXAMPLES AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND DEMONSTRATION PROGRAMS, (3) PROGRAM EVALUATION, (4) MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS, (5) PROGRAM SUPPORT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT, (6) MANPOWER ADVISORY COMMITTEES, AND (7) NEW RESOURCES AND DIRECTIONS. IN 1965 THE MDTA PROGRAM ENROLLED 186,000 TRAINEES, OF WHOM 110,000 COMPLETED TRAINING. OF THOSE WHO COMPLETED TRAINING, 74 PERCENT WERE EMPLOYED. INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROJECTS PROVIDED IN-SCHOOL OCCUPATIONAL INSTRUCTION TO 145,000 PERSONS. TRAINING WAS PROVIDED AT THE JOB SITE FOR 35,000 PERSONS. EXPERIMENTAL AND DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED SERVED 40,000 PERSONS. THE PROGRAM HELPED TO MEET LABOR DEMAND FOR 112,000 JOBS IN SERVICE AND SERVICE-RELATED OCCUPATIONS THROUGH JOB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS. THE MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS WILL BE REDIRECTED TO FOCUS ON TWO MAJOR PROBLEMS IN THE ECONOMY--THE EMERGENCE OF SOME SELECTED SKILL SHORTAGES AND THE EXPOSURE OF RESIDUAL BUT LARGE POCKETS OF HARD-CORE UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG FAIRLY WELL DEFINED GROUPS. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A NATIONAL-STATE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT PLANNING SYSTEM TO RECONCILE STATE OPERATIONS WITH OVERALL NATIONAL MANPOWER NEEDS AND OBJECTIVES TO PROMOTE A RATIONALIZED UTILIZATION OF TRAINING RESOURCES IS IN PROCESS. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE AS L1.42--966 FOR $1.25 FROM SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D.C., 20402. (PS)

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REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR ON MANPOWER RESEARCH AND TRAINING UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962

1966

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Washington, D.C., March 31, 1966.

The Honorable the President of the Senate,
The Honorable the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

Sirs:

I have the honor to transmit herewith my report to the Congress on operations under title I and part A of title II of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended. This report is required prior to April 1, 1966, by section 309(a) of the act, as amended.

In this, our fourth report, we summarize and evaluate the progress made during calendar year 1965.

Sincerely yours,

W. Willard Wirtz

Secretary of Labor.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This is the fourth report of operations under the Manpower Development and Training Act and covers the calendar year of 1965. Significant contributions were made by the Bureau of Employment Security; the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training; the Bureau of Labor Statistics; and the Office of Financial and Management Services.

This report was prepared in the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research of the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration.

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INTRODUCTION

The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) authorized a national program of occupational training and basic manpower research and experimentation—all directed toward helping the American worker to develop to the fullest his skills and potentials and to find his place as a contributor to the economy.

The matching of men and jobs is still an imperfect process because there is always a disparity between the requirements of jobs and the qualifications of jobseekers. As a result, labor shortages exist while at the same time workers are looking for jobs but are unable to find employment.

During 4 years of operation, the MDTA program has demonstrated that it is an effective instrument to provide the underemployed with the opportunity to upgrade their skills and to equip the unemployed with new skills required by a changing job market. The basic education provision of the act also has helped workers to qualify for and benefit from occupational training.

The manpower research and experimentation provisions have stimulated a series of investigations into such problems as the motivation of workers in seeking training and jobs, the methods used by workers to find jobs, the shifting occupational patterns of the economy, and the discovery of better ways of helping disadvantaged persons through training and other manpower services. Recognizing that job opportunities and workers may be separated geographically, the act permits experimentation with various techniques to increase worker mobility.

The needs of the unemployed—the young and old, nonwhite and otherwise disadvantaged—continue to call for action. And so does the Nation's need for trained workers. MDTA training is helping to meet these needs.

In 1965 the MDTA program:

—Enrolled 180,000 trainees, of whom 110,000 completed training. Of those who completed training, 74 percent are employed.

—Reduced manpower and production bottlenecks carrying inflationary potential through training for skilled and semiskilled occupations.

—Helped to meet labor demand for 112,000 jobs in service and service-related occupations through Job Development Programs.

—Through labor mobility demonstration projects, aided 1,200 unemployed workers with

little prospect for employment in their home communities to move with their families to vacant jobs elsewhere.

—Initiated special measures to find the disadvantaged unemployed and underemployed in urban areas and train them for jobs that fit their needs through a Human Resources Development Program.

This was accomplished through:

—Institutional training projects providing in-school occupational instruction—145,000 persons were enrolled in classes in vocational training facilities.

—On-the-job training encompassing actual work operations and related instruction—35,000 persons were enrolled in training at the job site.

—Experimental and demonstration projects utilizing new techniques to reach, counsel, and train the disadvantaged individuals not adequately aided through established channels and methods—40,000 persons were being served in projects current during 1965.

—Research projects exploring new avenues and ideas to find solutions to crucial manpower problems.

This fourth report to the Congress reviews 1965 operations and activities in detail. Despite our progress in 1965, much remains to be done. MDTA training has not yet fully reached the educationally disadvantaged and the older worker. New methods and institutional arrangements for dealing with these hard-core unemployed workers must be tested.

T accomplishments of 1965, the problems to be solved, and the new directions MDTA programs are taking to meet the manpower challenges that lie ahead comprise the substance of this report.

part
I

MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS

part I

MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS

The Institutional Training Program

In the largest MDTA training program—institutional training in public and private vocational education facilities—nearly 2,800 new projects were approved by the end of the year. These projects authorized the training of approximately 152,000 trainees, about 15,000 under the 1964 level. This slight decrease was due, in part, to the expansion of the on-the-job training program.[1] The decrease may also be attributed to the several amendments to the act that significantly increased average trainee costs, readily absorbing the relatively small increase in funds available for project development in the past year. Yet the vigor and pace of program operations has continued unabated. Reflecting the program's current capacity for accelerated project development, for example, more than four-fifths of the institutional training funds allocated to the States for fiscal year 1966 had already been committed in the first half of the fiscal year.

PATTERNS OF TRAINING

The pattern of institutional training operations changed during the year. In contrast to 1964, when about 44 percent of all institutional trainees were approved for multioccupational projects,[2] about 27 percent of the institutional trainees were approved for such projects during the past year. Increasingly, State agencies have found it feasible to provide the prevocational service and basic education components generally associated with the multioccupational approach either prior to or concurrently with training in regular, single occupation projects. In this connection, the intensive counseling, testing, and other supportive services made available through the national network of Youth Opportunity Centers established in 1965 have been particularly helpful. Increased emphasis has also been placed on the single occupation project as part of the stepped-up effort to utilize available MDTA funds as quickly and effectively as possible in providing training opportunities for the unemployed. This type of project has permitted the more rapid adjustment of fiscal obligations where cost revisions are needed. On the other hand, advanced scheduling of numerous training sections in many large multioccupational projects frequently has involved the commitment of sizable MDTA funds for later use.

[1] Discussed in the chapter on The On-the-Job Training Program.

[2] The purpose and nature of multioccupational projects are discussed below in the section Projects for Special Needs.

As a consequence, over 2,600 regular single occupation projects were approved in 1965 for about 106,000 trainees, whereas the number of multioccupational projects dropped to 121, with provision for almost 42,000 trainees. Included in these totals were 149 special youth projects for about 27,600 trainees involving for the most part the multioccupational approach. In the less-than-class-group projects, utilizing existing public and private facilities, about 4,600 persons were approved for individual referral during 1965.

THE SKILL TRAINING CENTER

Stimulated by the need to provide adequate training facilities for both skill training and various job-related services, several large industrial cities have established Skill Training Centers. These centers provide in one facility a comprehensive program of assistance from aptitude testing to occupational training tailored to individual needs. By centralizing the special services and training activities, the trainee's total preparation for work is facilitated. On the administrative side, centralization has made for better supervision, continuity of instructional staff, and more efficient and economical use of equipment.

PARTICIPATION BY ALL STATES

While projects were approved in all jurisdictions, project development varied appreciably among the States in 1965. Although the amount of funds allocated to a State is primarily determined by the size of its work force and rate of unemployment, other factors influence a State's program participation. These include such considerations as types of area occupational needs and level of posttraining employment opportunities, available labor supply, relative interest in training, local initiative in promoting needed projects, and the availability of vocational instructors and training facilities. Variations among States in trainee allowance costs and in the duration of training in funded projects also affect the number of trainee approvals significantly. For example, some States tend to develop longer courses, particularly to meet local manpower requirements in skilled and technical occupations.

As in 1964, California was the leading State in number of approved MDTA trainees, with a total of 16,222. New York and Illinois were next in order, closely followed by Ohio, Michigan, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Texas, Massachusetts, and Washington. These 10 States accounted for about 58 percent of all institutional trainees approved in 1965. (See chart 1.)

Among smaller jurisdictions, some have had a significantly larger number of trainee approvals than would ordinarily be expected. Of these, Vermont, Arizona, and Washington, D.C., promoted projects for more than twice the number of trainees suggested by their formula apportionment of MDTA funds.

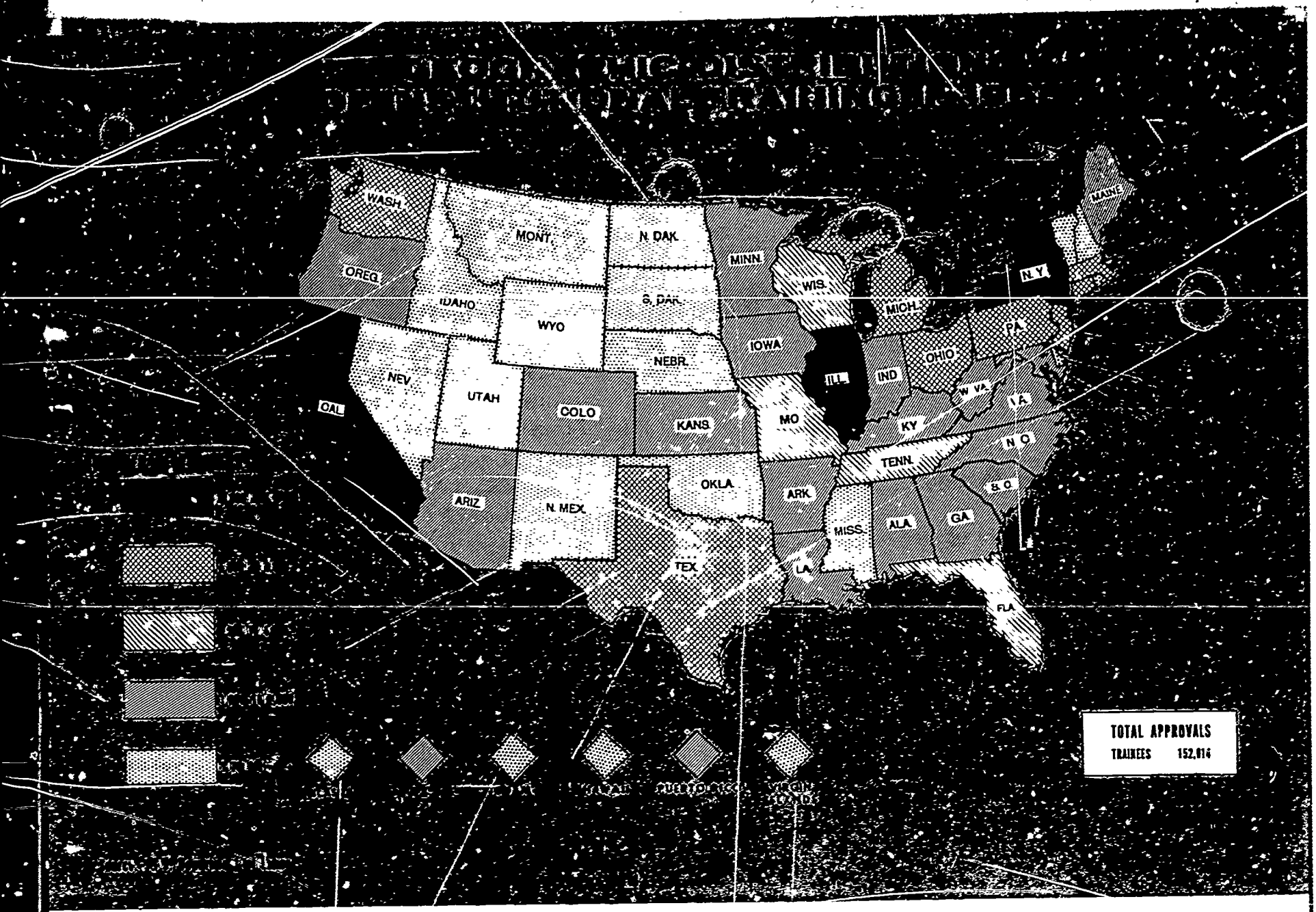
REDEVELOPMENT AREA TRAINING

The Manpower Act of 1965 took a step toward rationalizing and consolidating the Nation's manpower programs when it transferred, as of July 1, 1965, the training provisions of the Area Redevelopment Act to the Manpower Development and Training Act. The purposes and emphasis of the ARA training provisions were kept intact as an important adjunct to economic development. At the same time, the more liberal provisions of MDTA made possible a supplementary training program of enlarged scope in redevelopment areas.

Under the amended MDTA program, which provides special funds for supplementary training activities in redevelopment areas, 59 projects for 2,193 trainees were approved in 1965. These approvals supplemented local projects funded under the regular MDTA program and have not been included in the overall totals. A total of 21 States developed special redevelopment area projects in accordance with the supplementary training program. Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, and Alaska each reported project approvals for 200 or more trainees. Other States approving projects for 100 or more trainees under this program included Texas, Kentucky, California, South Carolina, New Jersey, Arkansas, and Michigan.

COSTS OF APPROVED PROJECTS

About $288 million was committed for approved institutional projects in 1965, some $49 million more than the amount obligated in the previous



year. Both 1965 and 1964 figures are tentative since obligated costs are subject to revision, particularly as projects are implemented. Obligations for 1965 are expected to decline even more than the 1964 total for which some downward adjustment has already been made. The 1965 commitments raised the cumulative total of funds obligated for approved projects since the inception of the MDTA program to about $650 million. As in 1964, somewhat more than half of the funds obligated—about 57 percent—was for the payment of training allowances; the remainder covered such training costs as instructor salaries, supplies, and rental of facilities.

With the increased emphasis on regular single occupation projects, about $186 million, or nearly two-thirds of the institutional funds, was approved for this type of training in the past year. In 1964, approximately $107 million, or about 45 percent of total funds, was committed for single occupation projects. Conversely, the proportion of funds obligated for multioccupational projects dropped by more than a fifth over the year to about three-tenths of the 1965 MDTA total, or about $89 million. Funds allocated for individual referral activities increased from $6 million to $14 million.

State Cost Variations

Obligations of funds for approved projects varied considerably among States in the past year. Eight States each reported commitments in excess of $10 million: New York ($32 million), California ($27 million), Illinois ($23 million), Ohio ($18 million), New Jersey ($17 million), Pennsylvania ($15 million), Michigan ($13 million), and Massachusetts ($11 million). In eight additional States—Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Missouri, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin—commitments ranged from $10 million to $5 million. Commitments in these 16 States totaled approximately 71 percent of obligated funds. In 30 of the remaining jurisdictions, commitments ranged from $5 million to $1 million.

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Based on funds committed for approved projects, average costs per trainee—approximately $1,900 for the Nation—varied appreciably among the States, ranging from a high of about $3,500 in South Dakota to a low of about $850 in Connecticut. Among the principal factors contributing to varying costs were the kinds of occupations in which training was approved, duration of training in these occupations, State differentials in allowance payments for trainees, teacher salaries, equipment costs, and training facility rentals.

Project Costs in Redevelopment Areas

In addition to projects funded under the regular training program, more than $3.5 million has been committed for special redevelopment area projects authorized under the amended MDTA program during the past year. The largest obligations have been reported in Alaska ($670,000) and Wisconsin ($356,000). Eleven other States have reported project costs in excess of $100,000 under this program; namely, Arkansas, California, Louisiana, Michigan, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Texas, and Washington.

Trainee Costs

Based on funds committed for projects approved in 1965, the average cost per trainee was about $1,900, as noted earlier. This figure was not directly comparable with the latest revised 1964 cost per trainee of $1,456 since the latter amount was based to an appreciable extent on actual expenditures for completed projects, while the former represented obligated funds. Nevertheless, even with allowance made for the fact that funds committed for a project often exceed actual cost, the average training cost in the past year rose appreciably as the 1965 MDTA amendments liberalized both trainee allowance payments and the eligibility provisions for allowances, while extending training allowance support up to a maximum of 104 weeks. The expansion of the basic education program together with other prevocational services for the disadvantaged groups also added to trainee costs. At the same time, participating agencies and groups at all responsible levels were expected to exercise the necessary controls to assure efficient and economical program administration.

THE TRAINEES

Although, as previously indicated, there was a slight decrease in 1965 from the 1964 level of approvals for institutional training, actual enrollments increased substantially because a number of projects approved in 1964 did not get started until 1965 and because training activities were generally accelerated. In some cases, too, subsequent sections of courses that were begun in 1964 did not get under way until 1965.

The institutional training program during the year 1965 represented a considerable investment in the most valuable of the Nation's resources—the skills and strengths of her people. The program also reflected the impact of MDTA amendments and shifts in program emphasis through more extensive participation of various disadvantaged groups. Increased proportions of jobless youth, nonwhites, and persons of limited educational attainment were accommodated during the past year. Participation of the long-term unemployed in the institutional program, while relatively unchanged from 1964, was still double their proportion of the Nation's total unemployment.

The enormous changes that have taken place in the job structure of the economy have demanded a reoriented approach to preparation for work. Job preparation cannot be limited to the acquisition of an occupational skill. In fact, experience under MDTA has shown that large numbers of the unemployed require one or more kinds of prevocational services before they are able to undertake and benefit from occupational training. This is particularly true of disadvantaged groups, whether they be Negro slum dwellers, isolated hill people in Appalachia, or Mexican-Americans in the Southwest. For them, development of the individual as an employable member of the labor force must involve total preparation for work. Thus, while the MDTA program continued to serve the general retraining needs of the adult worker, it also provided prevocational training and a variety of special services, along with skill preparation.

Against this backdrop detailed information on significant personal, social, and economic characteristics of about 103,000 of the trainees enrolled

in MDTA institutional courses in 1965 has been examined along with the principal changes from the 1964 pattern. In addition, further developments in the multioccupational approach, basic education, and other techniques used in the institutional program are discussed in the following sections.

TRAINEE CHARACTERISTICS

Family Status and Sex

In keeping with MDTA's principal focus, men as the primary wage earners comprised about three-fifths of the trainees enrolled in institutional courses. (See table 1.) This was at about the same level as in 1964 and just above the proportion of males among the Nation's unemployed in the past year. The relatively large enrollment of women, only slightly less than their proportion of total unemployment, continued to reflect the substantially increased participation of female workers in the postwar labor force. In fact, over one-third of the Nation's workers today are women—the highest proportion in the Nation's history.

Further evidence of this responsiveness is the strong emphasis that program administration has continued to place on the participation of family heads in training activities. Slightly over half of the 1965 trainees were heads of families or households, substantially in excess of the percentage of unemployed persons who belonged to this category. The number of women with family responsibilities was also considerable. Two out of every five female trainees were heads of households. Some decline in the ratio of trainees who are heads of households is anticipated as a result of the amendment permitting payment of a regular allowance to a member of a family other than the head of the household when the latter is unemployed. The move is a constructive one, since the increased earning power of the secondary wage earner will contribute to the well-being of the family unit.

TABLE 1. SEX AND FAMILY STATUS OF TRAINEES ENROLLED IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL PROJECTS IN 1964 AND 1965, AND OF ALL UNEMPLOYED PERSONS IN 1965

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	MDTA trainees		Unemployed persons 1965 (annual average) [1]
	1965	1964	
Sex	100.0	100.0	100.0
Male	60.0	60.0	57.3
Female	40.0	40.0	42.7
Family status	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	51.4	53.1	36.4
Other	48.6	46.9	63.6

[1] *Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

Age

Generally, the age distribution of institutional trainees in 1965 followed the same pattern as in 1964. (See table 2.) In both years, the dominant group fell into the 22 to 44 age bracket. This is the prime age group and one for whom age does not present barriers to job placement.

A small gain in the enrollment of young people under 19 years of age was recorded, reflecting the increased emphasis on provision of training for unemployed youth. The unemployment rate of this teenage group was about three times the national average, as the benefits of a prosperous economy continued to elude them. It is gratifying to observe, therefore, that young trainees were being recruited increasingly from among the less educated, the long-term unemployed, and the nonwhite groups.

Workers aged 45 and over—at the other end of the age scale—also have continued to present a serious challenge to the effective utilization of the Nation's manpower resources. While experiencing a lower rate of unemployment than the national average because of greater job seniority, older workers have been confronted with relatively long periods of unemployment following loss of work. This situation is attributable to such factors as lower educational attainment, less job mobility, difficulties in meeting present-day job requirements, and restrictive hiring practices.

During 1965 there was a slight decrease from the previous year in the enrollment of older workers. The problem of improving the older worker's employability is a deep-seated one for which retrain-

TABLE 2. SEX AND AGE OF ENROLLEES IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL PROJECTS IN 1964 AND 1965, AND OF ALL UNEMPLOYED PERSONS IN 1965

Sex and age	Percent distribution			Unemployment rate 1965 [1]
	MDTA enrollees		All unemployed persons, 1965 (annual average) [1]	
	1965	1964		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	4.6
Under 19 years	18.4	15.3	22.4	14.0
19 to 21 years	23.6	23.8	13.2	9.5
22 to 44 years	48.0	50.3	39.5	3.8
45 years and over	10.0	10.6	24.9	2.9
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0	4.0
Under 19 years	18.7	14.9	22.6	13.4
19 to 21 years	24.3	24.9	12.4	9.2
22 to 44 years	48.0	50.3	37.3	3.1
45 years and over	9.0	9.9	27.7	2.9
Female	100.0	100.0	100.0	5.5
Under 19 years	17.9	15.8	22.2	14.9
19 to 21 years	22.6	22.0	14.2	9.8
22 to 44 years	48.0	50.5	42.5	5.2
45 years and over	11.5	11.7	21.1	3.0

[1] *Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

ing is not the whole answer. The responsibility for greater amelioration of the problem rests with the community's leadership—civic and private groups, management, labor, and the public.

Level of Education

Since limited educational attainment has been a prime factor associated with persistent unemployment, the MDTA program has tried to accommodate as many educationally disadvantaged jobseekers as possible. This objective has been facilitated by program amendments that extend the period during which training allowances may be paid to a maximum of 2 years and include provision of basic education, where needed.

As a result, participation of the educationally disadvantaged in training has continued to rise since the beginning of the program, with the proportion of those with less than a high school education reaching 51 percent in 1965. (See table 3.) The gain, however, has not been uniformly distributed; those with the least schooling have continued to be underrepresented in the institutional training program, especially those with less than an eighth grade education. They are predominantly male and comprise about 16 percent of the unemployed population. To reach this group more effectively and make them employable will require the vigorous application of MDTA's training techniques and related services along with concerted action by appropriate agencies and organizations.

Somewhat more reassuring was the fact that a large majority of enrollees with no more than a grade school education were family heads. The educationally disadvantaged trainee had also experienced somewhat longer periods of unemployment prior to enrollment than the average trainee.

The Long-Term Unemployed

One of the most important achievements of the program has been its success in reaching relatively

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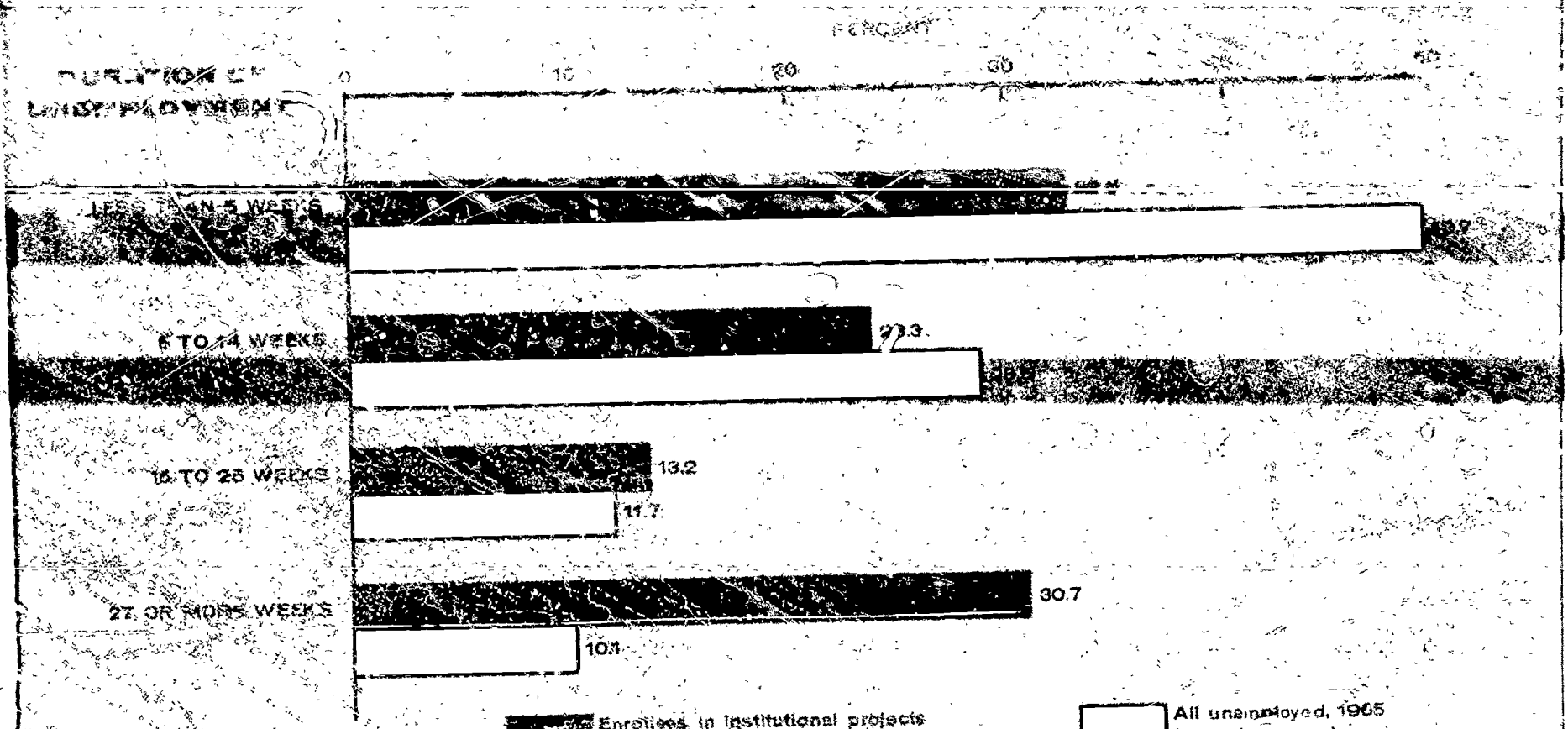
ONE-THIRD OF THE MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINEES HAD BEEN UNEMPLOYED 27 WEEKS OR MORE PRIOR TO TRAINING



large numbers of the long-term unemployed, i.e., persons jobless for 15 weeks or more. As indicated in chart 2, some 44 percent of the enrollees had been jobless for 15 weeks or more, while about 3 out of 10 trainees were out of work for 6 months or more. Although the ratio of long-term unemployed to all MDTA trainees was little changed from the previous year, they constituted a larger share of the trainees than they did of the Nation's total unemployed.

Among these trainees were many who were disadvantaged in several ways: Workers who had exhausted their unemployment insurance; those whose skills had become obsolete; workers having difficulty obtaining jobs because of age restrictions; and others with inadequate schooling. Equipping these individuals with marketable skills has been a considerable challenge to Emplcyment Service and school officials. Without the sympathetic understanding and encouragement of these officials, many of the long-term unemployed would have failed to take advantage of the training opportunities made available to them. For the majority of those who did enroll and complete their training, the reward was gainful employment.

DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

Nonwhite Workers

Although considerable progress has been made in recent years in improving the employment situation of nonwhite workers, their unemployment rate has remained about double that of whites. (See table 4.) The employment difficulties of nonwhites reflect a long history of frustrations stemming from discrimination, deficiencies in formal education, inadequate qualifications for higher skill jobs, concentration in less skilled jobs that are more subject to seasonal and other cutbacks, and environmental limitations.

To help alleviate these difficulties, every effort has been made to expand training opportunities for the nonwhite unemployed through the institutional program. As a result, the proportion of

TABLE 3. SEX AND EDUCATION OF ENROLLEES IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL PROJECTS IN 1964 AND 1965, AND OF ALL UNEMPLOYED PERSONS IN 1965

Sex and education	Percent distribution		
	MDTA enrollees		All unemployed persons, 1965 (annual average)[1]
	1965	1964	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	7.1	7.6	16.3
8th grade	9.9	9.4	12.7
9th to 11th grade	33.9	32.9	29.9
12th grade	43.2	43.9	30.4
Over 12th grade	5.9	6.2	10.6
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	9.7	10.4	19.4
8th grade	12.6	12.4	15.0
9th to 11th grade	36.1	36.3	29.7
12th grade	37.0	35.8	24.5
Over 12th grade	4.6	5.1	11.4
Female	100.0	00.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	3.2	3.4	11.6
8th grade	5.8	4.9	9.2
9th to 11th grade	30.6	27.8	30.3
12th grade	52.5	55.9	39.5
Over 12th grade	7.9	8.0	9.4

[1] *Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

nonwhite enrollment has increased from over 30 percent in 1964 to almost 34 percent in 1965. (See chart 3.)

For example, in accordance with the continuing emphasis being placed on the development of special training projects for disadvantaged youth, about 43 percent of the nonwhite trainees were under 22 years of age, well above the proportion that such youth represent among the total nonwhite unemployed. (See chart 4.) But within the youth group, nonwhite teenagers, who have an exceedingly high unemployment rate, were still considerably underrepresented in institutional training programs. The disparity was even greater in the 45-and-over age group. While this group accounted for only 6 percent of the nonwhite enrollment, almost one-fifth of all jobless nonwhites were in this age category.

A similar imbalance was found with respect to educational levels. Only 7 percent of the nonwhite enrollees had less than an eighth grade education, whereas some 25 percent of all unemployed nonwhites had such limited schooling. At the other end of the scale, a much higher proportion of the nonwhite trainees had 12 or more years of schooling than was true of all unemployed nonwhites. With the expansion of basic education, particularly in conjunction with other prevocational services, it is expected that more of those with inadequate schooling will be drawn into the program.

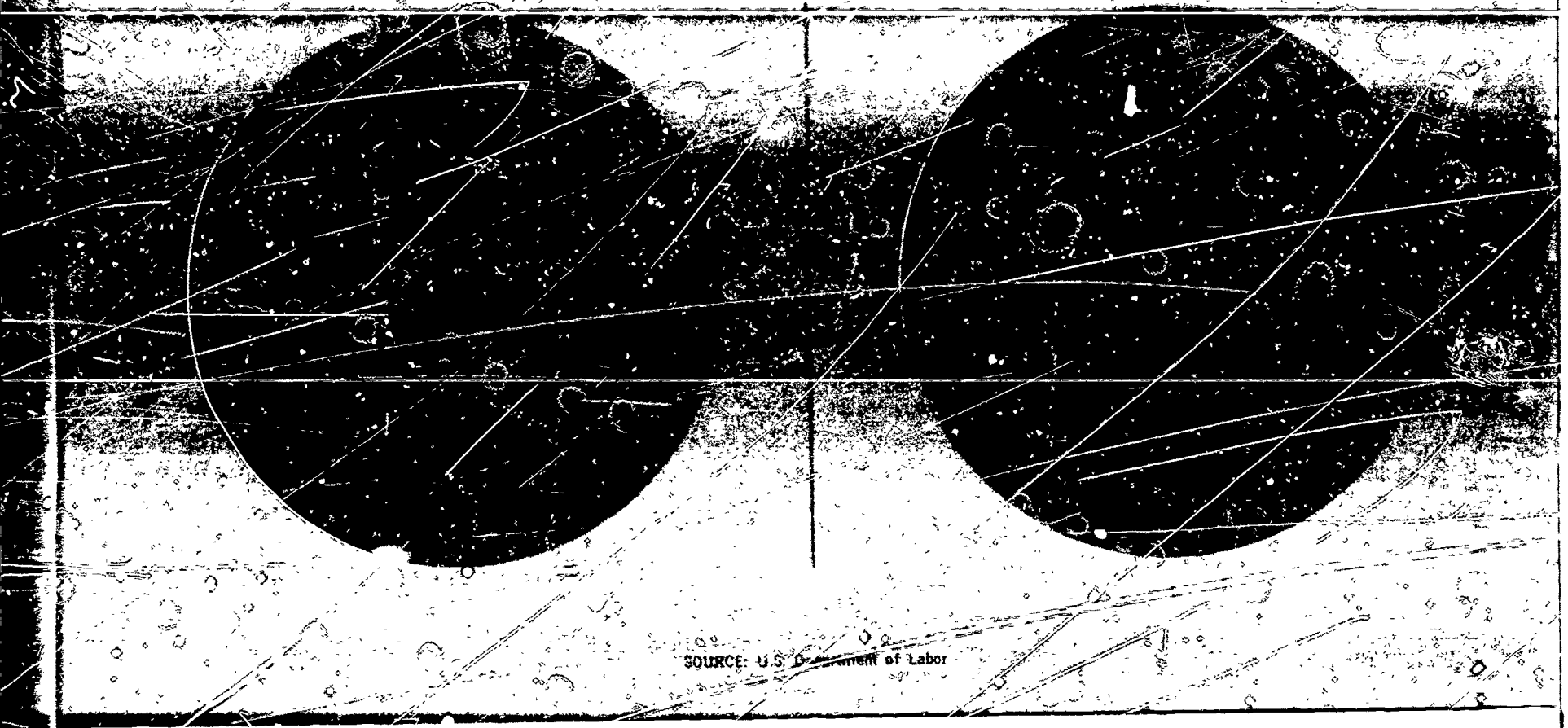
One of the major program accomplishments has been the degree to which long-term unemployed nonwhites have been reached. About half of the nonwhite trainees were jobless for at least 15 weeks, with the majority of them out of work 6 months or more prior to training. They are often the most difficult to reach as they tend to avoid any classroom type situation. Their relatively high enrollment is encouraging evidence that they

TABLE 4. COLOR AND SEX OF ENROLLEES IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL PROJECTS IN 1964 AND 1965, AND OF ALL UNEMPLOYED PERSONS IN 1965

Color and sex	Percent distribution			Unemployment rate 1965[1]
	MDTA enrollees		All unemployed persons, 1965 (annual average)[1]	
	1965	1964		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	4.6
White	66.4	69.6	79.7	4.1
Nonwhite	33.6	30.4	20.3	8.3
White	100.0	100.0	100.0	4.1
Male	64.5	63.3	58.2	3.6
Female	35.5	36.7	41.8	5.0
Nonwhite	100.0	100.0	100.0	8.3
Male	51.8	53.6	53.7	7.6
Female	48.2	46.4	46.3	9.3

[1] *Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

NONWHITE PERSONS WERE WELL REPRESENTED IN INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROJECTS.



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor

will respond to training opportunities when effectively motivated.

Handicapped Workers

MDTA training for handicapped workers has continued to supplement the retraining program long provided by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration. During 1965, about 8 percent of all institutional program trainees were handicapped persons. (See table 5.) Although their participation was about the same as the previous year, the proportion of handicapped trainees was higher than that found among all jobseekers.

The great majority of the handicapped trainees were males and, for the most part, heads of families. They also tended to be older and to have fewer years of formal education than their fellow enrollees. Many handicapped workers also had been unemployed for long periods, which compounded their difficulties. Their enrollment was a tribute to their determination and perseverance as well as a reflection of the program's responsiveness to their individual needs.

Public Assistance Recipients and Unemployment Insurance Claimants

Reflecting the involvement of disadvantaged persons in the MDTA program, 1 out of 9 trainees was a recipient of public assistance prior to training. About half of them were females who, in many cases, were heads of families and were determined to become self-supporting.

Roughly 16 percent of all enrollees in 1965 were receiving unemployment insurance benefits at the time of their referral to training—slightly below the percentage for 1964. (See table 6.) In both years, the majority of the claimants were men, because of their stronger attachment as a group to the labor force.

PROJECTS FOR SPECIAL NEEDS

The Multioccupational Approach

Despite the decline in the number of multioccupational projects established in 1965, this kind of project continued to serve as one of the most ef-

TABLE 5. SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF HANDICAPPED ENROLLEES IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL PROJECTS, 1964 AND 1965

Characteristic	Percent distribution	
	1965	1964
Handicapped as a percent of all enrollees	7.5	7.1
Sex	100.0	100.0
Male	80.7	82.7
Female	19.3	17.3
Age	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	10.9	6.9
19 to 21 years	17.6	16.4
22 to 44 years	52.9	57.8
45 years and over	18.6	18.9
Family status	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	62.2	68.2
Other	37.8	31.8
Education	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	10.9	11.2
8th grade	14.7	14.5
9th to 11th grade	32.5	31.6
12th grade	35.9	35.8
Over 12th grade	6.0	6.9
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	25.3	25.8
5 to 14 weeks	21.6	21.4
15 to 26 weeks	13.9	13.8
27 weeks and over	39.2	39.0

fective approaches to "total preparation for work." Experience has shown that substantial numbers of the unemployed require one or more kinds of prevocational preparation before they are able to undertake and benefit from occupational training. Multioccupational projects are tailored to the needs of these persons, offering them opportunities to explore various kinds of work and to obtain special instruction in basic reading, writing, arithmetic, and communication skills in conjunction with occupational training. These projects also furnish intensive counseling, testing, and other job-related services which have been especially effective in assisting disadvantaged individuals.

About a third of the institutional trainees were enrolled in multioccupational projects in 1965. The extent to which these projects have reached the hard-to-place worker is shown in chart 5. Nonwhites accounted for 44 percent of the enrollees in these projects, exceeding the corresponding proportion of all institutional enrollees by about 11 percentage points. About 10 percent of the multioccupational trainees had less than an eighth grade education, compared with about 7 percent of all trainees in the institutional program. The proportion of long-term unemployed enrolled in these projects was also higher. The special youth projects, designed exclusively for disadvantaged young people, also have employed the multioccupational approach to the maximum extent.

Basic Education for Trainees

Closely related to the multioccupational approach, and of growing importance to single occupation projects, has been the development of a program of basic or remedial education under MDTA. For many trainees basic education, usually reading, writing, and arithmetic, is oriented to work requirements usually expected of employees and helps to develop constructive attitudes toward and motivation for better job performance. This emphasis on improving individual competence has helped promote successful occupational training and subsequent employment.

TABLE 6. UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE CLAIMANTS AND PUBLIC ASSISTANCE RECIPIENTS AS A PERCENT OF ALL MDTA INSTITUTIONAL ENROLLEES, BY SEX, 1964 AND 1965

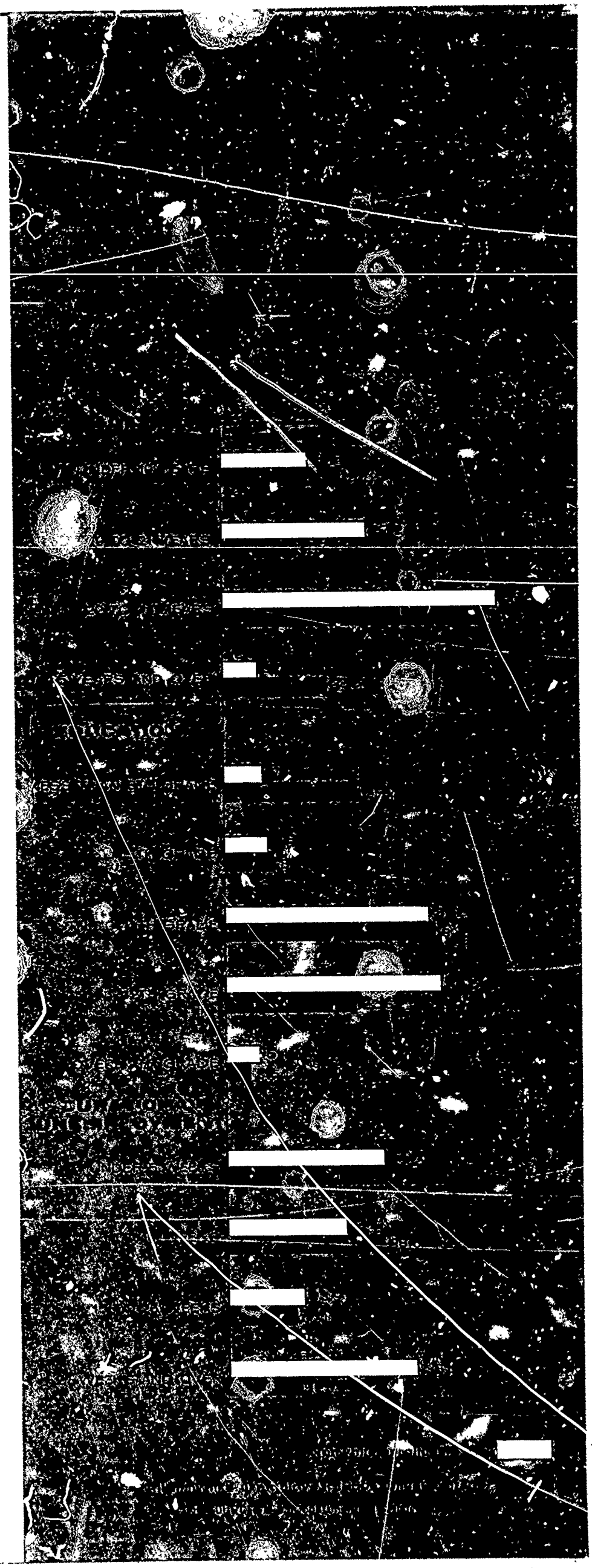
Sex	Percent distribution	
	1965	1964
Unemployment insurance claimants as a percent of all enrollees	16.1	18.2
Sex	100.0	100.0
Male	75.8	75.0
Female	24.2	25.0
Public assistance recipients as a percent of all enrollees	11.2	9.6
Sex	100.0	100.0
Male	49.5	51.3
Female	50.5	48.7

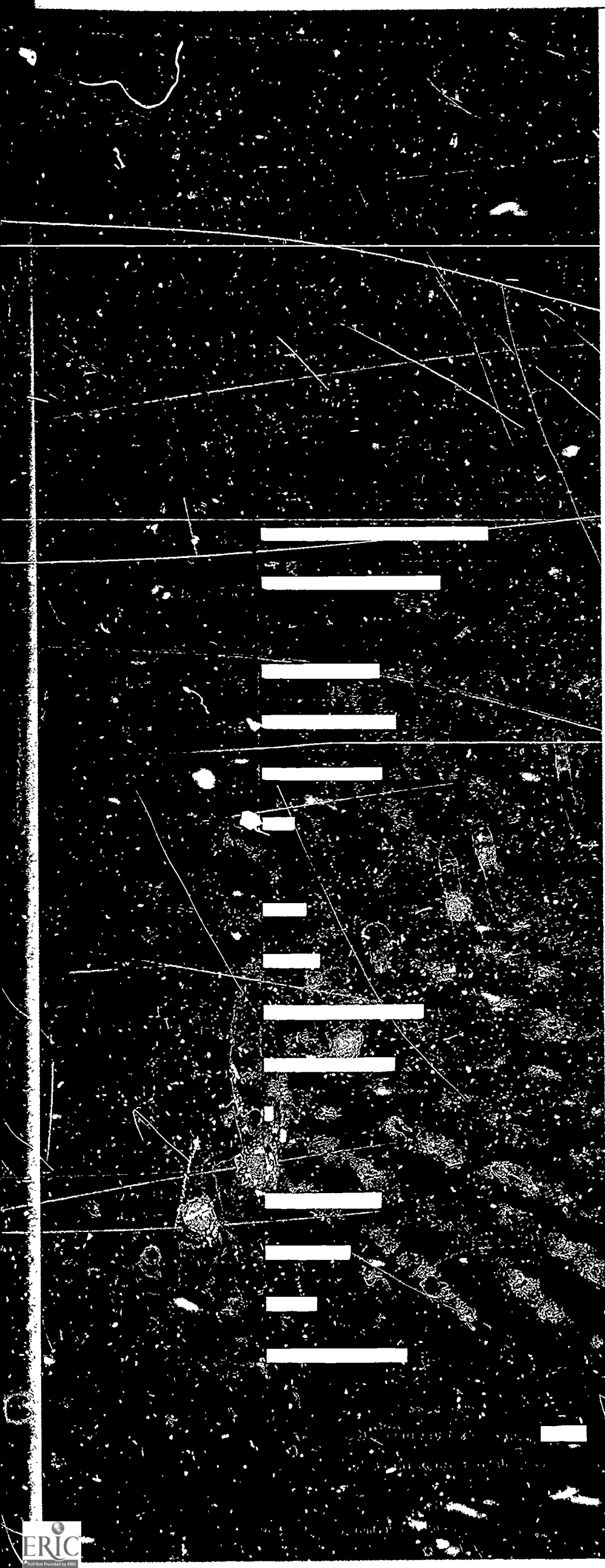
Significantly, the instruction was reaching those who otherwise would continue to be marginal workers, as indicated in chart 6. Close to one-third of the enrollees had no better than an eighth grade education, about twice the percentage found with similar limitations among all institutional trainees. The long-term unemployed were also heavily represented among those receiving basic education. The same was true of nonwhite participation, comprising about half the enrollment. More than three-fifths of the basic education trainees were under 22 years of age, whereas trainees in this age group accounted for about two-fifths of the total institutional enrollment. Basic education has thus opened up job training opportunities to a much wider variety of people—those who lacked minimal reading, writing, language, and arithmetic skills, either through lack of sufficient schooling or through inadequate achievement levels despite higher levels of schooling.

TRAINING IN RURAL AREAS

The emphasis placed on assisting disadvantaged groups has not been limited to urban centers. Special efforts also have been made to promote training opportunities in rural communities where low income and other economic deficiencies prevail. Courses have been designed to upgrade the skills of self-employed farmers so that they may keep up with the developments in farm mechanization. The seasonal farmworker also is being trained in the operation and maintenance of modern farm equipment and in various new agricultural techniques to improve his chances for employment. Training has not been limited to farm operations, however, since courses in a variety of occupations are open to rural residents in their own or nearby communities.

For the most part, rural area enrollees are male adults and heads of families, as shown in table 7. In both respects rural enrollees exceed their counterparts in urban localities. They also are more limited in their level of educational attainment and somewhat older, for hiring practices in agricultural occupations have always been less restrictive. On the other hand, the typical rural area trainee has not sustained the same degree of unemployment as the city dweller because of seasonal and part-time jobs available in rural areas. The important fact is that MDTA training is leading to steady and more remunerative employment for the low-income residents of rural areas.





WIDE OCCUPATIONAL SPECTRUM

All Major Occupational Categories

The institutional courses in 1965 covered a broad occupational spectrum and offered training in more than 600 specific occupations. All major occupational groups were represented, ranging from semiprofessional and technical occupations to service jobs requiring less training. Almost half of the trainees were enrolled in the skilled and semiskilled categories, over one-fifth in the clerical and sales field, and one-seventh in service activities. While employment prospects in all categories are not equally promising, there will continue to be favorable job opportunities in particular occupations within the broad groups. Thus, the trainees are being prepared for occupations that offer the most promising prospects in terms of expanding job opportunities and future stability of employment.

More than half of the trainees were enrolled for training in high demand occupations, illustrating the responsiveness of the program to labor area developments. These occupations included draftsman, licensed practical nurse, general office clerk, stenographer, clerk-typist, salesperson, welder, metal-working-machine operator, electronics assembler, automobile mechanic, automobile-body repairman, service-station attendant, and cook.

The flexibility of the institutional program is also reflected in the occupational emphasis found in the multioccupational projects. The proportionate distribution of enrollees by major occupational groups in these projects was substantially similar to the institutional program as a whole. In view of the greater involvement of educationally and otherwise disadvantaged groups, however, multioccupational projects included relatively fewer trainees in the skilled, semiprofessional, and technical occupations and a larger enrollment in service occupations. This distribution also was typical of special youth projects which are designed to serve disadvantaged young people and which were largely of the multioccupational type. On the other hand, individual referral projects were directing more of the trainees to the semiprofessional and technical courses because such courses are held, for the most part, in private facilities and can more readily absorb trainees on an individual referral basis.

Skill Improvement Through Training

The institutional training program continued to furnish unemployed and underemployed workers with new job capabilities and to upgrade the skills of many workers. Whereas less than 3 percent of the enrollees were employed in the professional and managerial field prior to training, about 10 percent of all the trainees were preparing for employment in this category, chiefly in semiprofessional and technical occupations. The contrast was more pronounced in the skilled occupational category. Only 6 percent of the trainees worked in skilled jobs before enrollment, but about 30 percent were being trained for entry into this skill level. About one-fifth of the trainees were preparing for semi-skilled work and less than one-sixth of all enrollees previously had been in this field. Equally significant, about 16 percent of the enrollees were unskilled and 21 percent had only entry-level jobs or no work experience prior to their enrollment.

The program was being utilized effectively by both men and women to improve their job capabilities. Nearly half of the male enrollees were being trained in skilled occupations. (See chart 7.) Almost 10 percent of these trainees were former skilled workers whose skills had become rusty through long disuse or outmoded by new technological advances.

Similarly, women were upgrading their skills in occupational fields in which the female worker is primarily employed. Almost half of the female trainees were enrolled in the clerical and sales category, while only about one-fourth of them had held jobs in this field. About 14 percent were receiving instruction in practical nursing and other semiprofessional and technical occupations, whereas only about 3 percent were so employed prior to training. As with the male trainee, many of the women were formerly employed in entry-level jobs or had no previous work experience. For them, MDTA training afforded effective skill improvement and an opportunity for further career development.

But the occupational shift has not been entirely in an upward direction. For example, better than one-fifth of all trainees who had formerly been employed as skilled workers were preparing for semiskilled jobs. Changes in the worker's capabilities or unavailable job opportunities in his former occupation have made this kind of downward readjustment necessary.

In the final analysis, any training activity must be centered on the people involved—their skills, aptitudes, interests, and attitudes. At the same time, the training must be job orien i.e., designed to equip unemployed persons with marketable skills for new or expanding job opportunities. In achieving a sound balance between people and jobs, MDTA training accomplishes its highest mission—helping to effect better utilization of the Nation's human resources. (See chart 8.)

THE TRAINEE PLACEMENT RECORD

No discussion of the institutional training program can be fully meaningful without examining the results of the training effort. What has happened to the trainees who completed their courses? How successful was the outcome of their training in terms of gainful employment?

About 7 out of 10 of the 1965 "graduates" have jobs, mostly in training-related occupations. Most of the trainees found jobs within 90 days of the completion of their courses.

Characteristics of Employed Trainees

Contributing to a greater understanding of the major factors that affect job placement is the analysis of employment rates according to trainee characteristics. Accordingly, the "graduate's" employment has been related to his sex, age, level of education, race, and previous duration of unemployment. (See table 8.)

Men have been more successful than women in obtaining jobs after completion of training. The male employment rate is approximately 77 percent, the female rate, 64 percent. The difference is not only a matter of employability but also an indication of the female's less firm attachment to the job market.

With respect to age, it is interesting to note that young persons under 22—the age group experiencing the highest rates of joblessness in the Nation—have had a posttraining employment rate about equal to the MDTA trainee average. The posttraining employment rate was somewhat higher for the group 22 to 44 years of age. For trainees 45 years of age and over, however, the employment rate has been below the overall average. Nevertheless, it is encouraging to find that two-thirds of the older workers have jobs despite the difficulties of reemployment generally encountered by these workers.

Educational attainment has remained a consistent factor in employment after training, with high school graduation having become a frequent requirement of employers. Thus, the employment rate for the MDTA graduate with at least a full high school education was about 71 percent, gradually declining to 68 percent for those with less

TABLE 7. SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ENROLLEES IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROJECTS BY RURAL AND URBAN AREAS, 1965

Characteristic	Percent distribution	
	Rural	Urban
Total	100.0	100.0
Male	69.1	56.7
Female	30.9	43.3
Age	100.0	100.0
Less than 19 years	18.6	18.9
19 to 21 years	21.0	24.4
22 to 44 years	49.5	47.3
45 years and over	10.9	9.4
Male	100.0	100.0
Less than 19 years	17.8	19.8
19 to 21 years	22.3	25.2
22 to 44 years	50.2	46.8
45 years and over	9.7	8.2
Female	100.0	100.0
Less than 19 years	20.5	17.8
19 to 21 years	18.2	23.4
22 to 44 years	47.6	47.8
45 years and over	13.7	11.0
Family status	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	55.1	49.1
Other	44.9	50.9
Education	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	8.8	5.4
8th grade	11.8	9.4
9th to 11th grade	28.0	35.8
12th grade	47.1	42.8
Over 12th grade	4.3	6.6
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	38.0	31.5
5 to 14 weeks	24.1	23.1
15 to 26 weeks	22.1	13.3
27 weeks and over	15.8	32.1

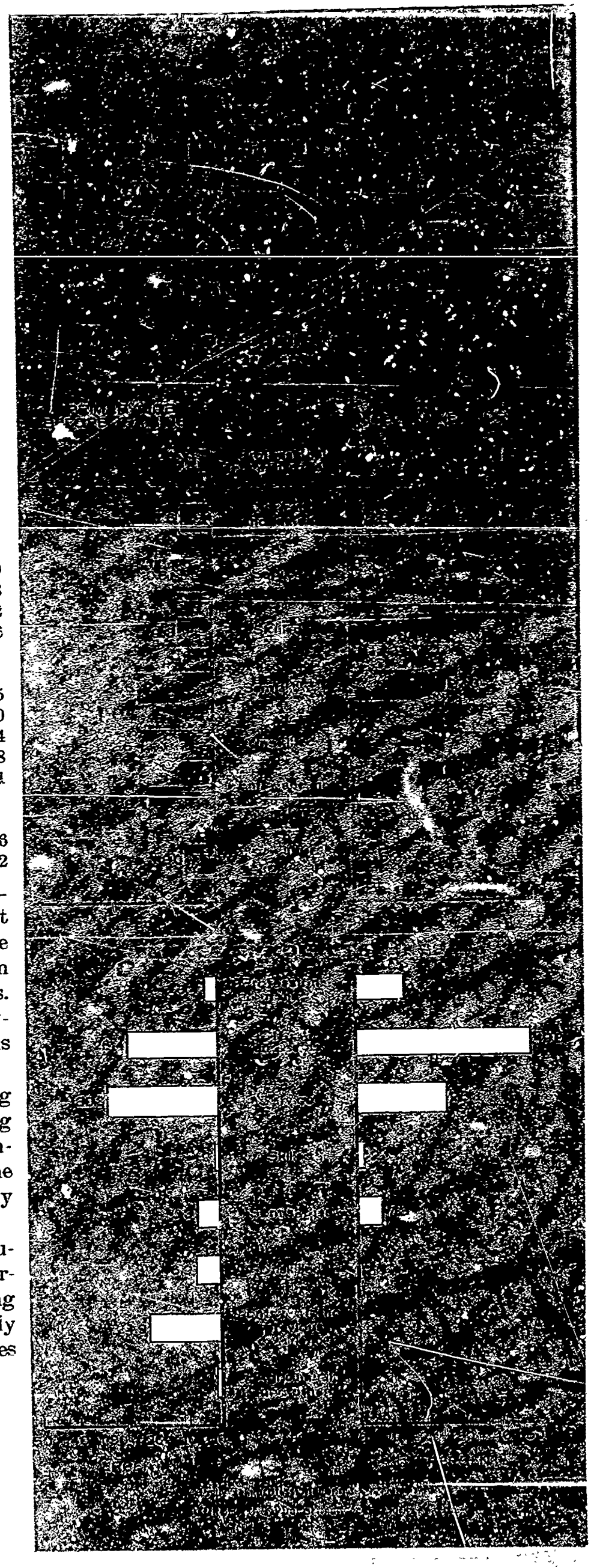
TABLE 8. EMPLOYMENT RATE OF ENROLLEES WHO COMPLETED MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROJECTS, BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS, 1965

Characteristic	Percent employed
Total	71.3
Sex:	
Male	77.4
Female	64.5
Age:	
Under 22 years	69.8
22 to 44 years	73.5
45 years and over	66.8
Education:	
Less than 8th grade	67.9
8th grade	67.8
9th to 11th grade	69.2
12th grade and over	73.6
Duration of unemployment:	
Less than 5 weeks	82.5
5 to 14 weeks	78.0
15 to 26 weeks	75.4
27 to 52 weeks	67.8
52 weeks and over	57.1
Color:	
White	74.6
Nonwhite	63.2

than 8 years of schooling. Even the most seriously undereducated trainees, however, have benefited significantly from the MDTA program in advancing their employment capabilities. Basic education and related prevocational assistance, described earlier, have contributed to this advance in no small measure.

The long-term unemployed, while achieving considerable success in job placement following completion of training, have experienced an employment rate below the overall average. The lag is largely attributable to the fact that many of these trainees are seriously disadvantaged.

Nonwhites have also lagged behind the institutional trainee employment average by about 8 percentage points. In view of the long-persisting employment discrimination patterns, the relatively narrow gap in trainee employment between whites and nonwhites represents some progress.



Occupational Training and Employment

Another important aspect of the outcome of training is reflected in the record of employment in principal occupational groups. Data thus far compiled on the employment experience of 1965 graduates indicate that employment rates in the major occupational categories have been relatively high, ranging from 85 percent for the semiprofessional and technical trainees to 62 percent for the clerical and sales group. Employment rates in the skilled, semiskilled and service categories are clustered in the upper half of this range. (See table 9.)

The relationship of occupational training to employment is more sharply illustrated by employment rates in the leading demand occupations in which training has been conducted. Thus, licensed practical nurse trainees—accounting for nearly one-third of all persons completing courses in the semiprofessional and technical group—have had an employment rate of 90 percent, the highest rate for all female graduates. For men, draftsman led the roster with an employment rate of 88 percent. In the skilled category, the employment rate for the key occupations of welder, automobile mechanic and automobile body repairman was also high. Dominating the semiskilled occupational group was the machine operator course, for which the employment rate was 82 percent. Slightly under one-third of the persons who com-

TABLE 9. EMPLOYMENT RATE OF ENROLLEES WHO COMPLETED MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROJECTS, BY MAJOR OCCUPATION AND SEX, 1965

Major occupation group	Percent employed		
	Total	Male	Female
Semiprofessional, technical	84.6	86.8	82.7
Clerical and sales	62.4	68.9	61.6
Service	67.1	72.4	65.6
Skilled	78.0	78.5	59.6
Semiskilled	70.6	73.7	62.8

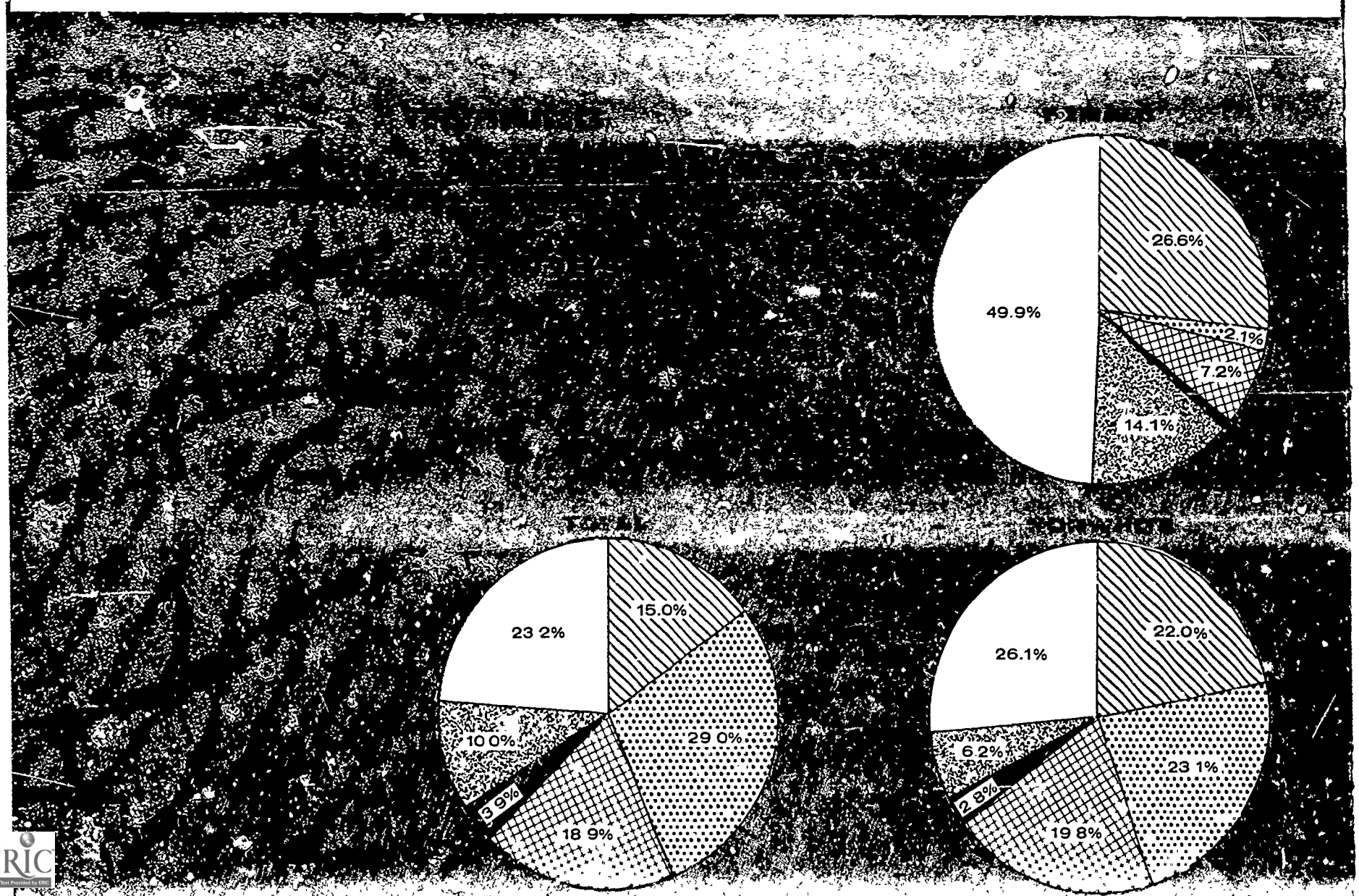


TABLE 10. EMPLOYMENT RATE OF WHITE AND NONWHITE ENROLLEES WHO COMPLETED MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING, 1965

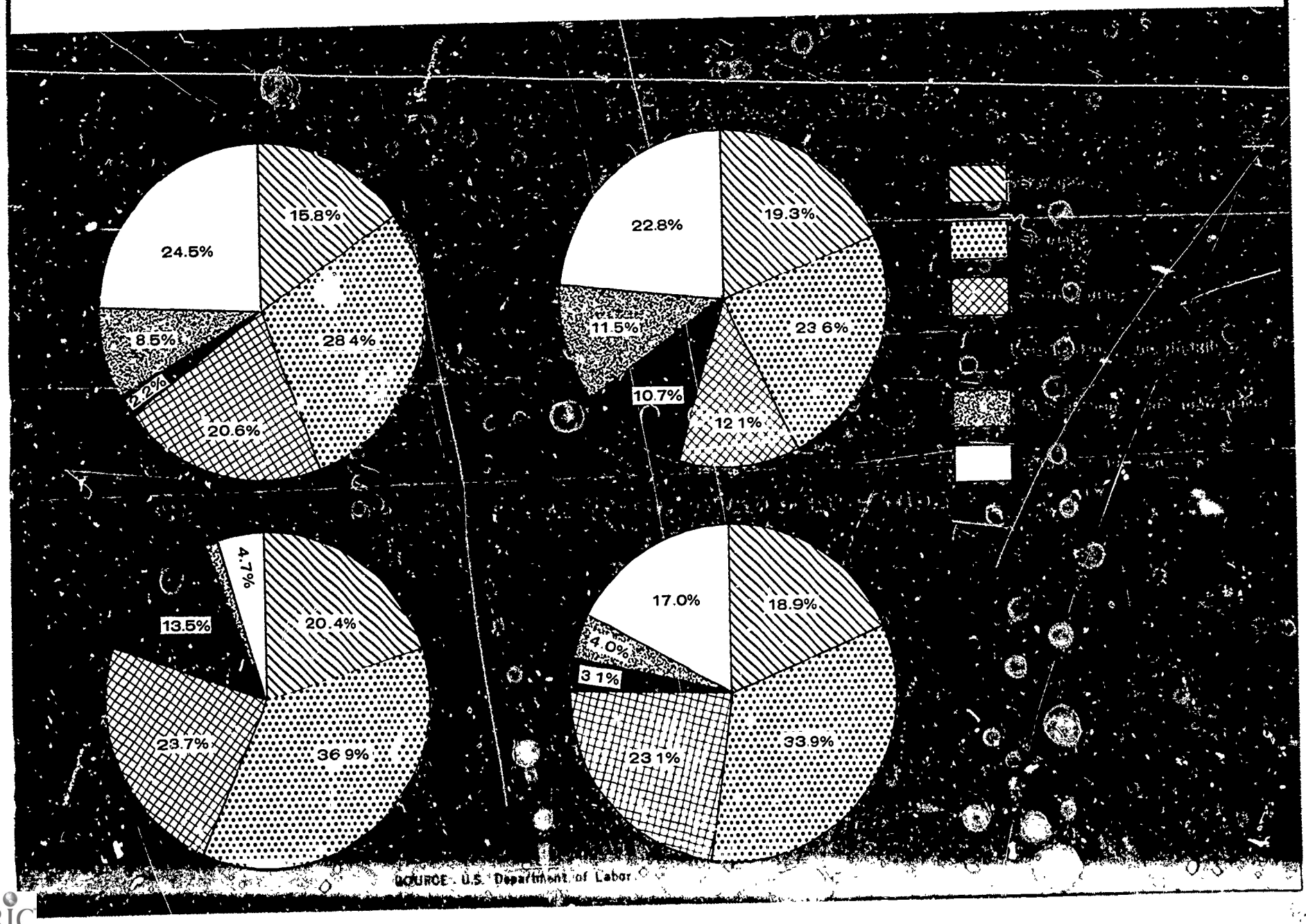
Occupation group	Percent employed	
	White	Nonwhite
Semiprofessional, technical	84.0	89.7
Licensed practical nurse	88.7	92.6
Draftsman	87.6	85.7
Clerical and sales	65.8	53.6
General office clerk	65.4	50.3
Stenographer	61.8	51.6
Clerk-typist and typist	61.3	54.0
Service	69.4	65.0
Nurse aide, orderly, ward attendant	73.5	54.7
Skilled	80.8	66.1
Welder	79.6	71.7
Auto mechanic	81.1	56.4
Auto-body repairman	83.3	66.2
Semiskilled	74.4	61.7
General machine operator	84.6	73.9
Electronics assembler	70.6	70.9

pleted training in the service category pursued courses for nurse aide, orderly, and ward attendant, and achieved an employment rate of 67 percent. The rates for the stenographers, typists, and general office clerks were somewhat lower.

The tendency for the employment average of nonwhites to lag behind the average of all MDTA trainees, as indicated earlier, has been reflected in most major occupational categories. (See table 10.) The sharpest differences were in the skilled, semiskilled, and clerical and sales groups. Even in the demand occupations, nonwhites did not fare as well as whites, with the exception of licensed practical nurses and electronics assemblers.

Summary

In summary, chances of finding a job were best for those who were in the prime age group, had a high school education, or were being trained for semiprofessional or technical jobs. But the progress made under MDTA in facilitating the employment of the hard-to-place worker is evidence of what an occupational training program can accomplish.



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor

Employment rates do not tell the whole story of how the trainees fared. The rates are derived from followup reports, which determine the trainees' work status in specified reference weeks, excluding the trainee who for one reason or another was not working during a reference week. If the total number of trainees who obtained some employment since graduation are counted in the employed category, the rate jumps from over 70 to 83 percent.

The 83 percent employment rate overstates the accomplishment, because some trainees, it is known, still have difficulties with job retention while others have withdrawn from the labor force. Additional analyses are needed to fill the gaps in the picture.

part
I
MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS

The On-the-Job Training Program

On-the-job training (OJT) efforts under MDTA more than doubled in 1965 from 1964. Training was approved for approximately 69,000 workers, compared with 26,000 approvals in 1964. The total amount funded for training under the OJT program rose from $15.9 million in 1964 to $35.7 million in 1965.

By the end of 1965, about 30,000 persons had completed training, with better than 85 percent employed as a direct result of their training.

The training projects established covered some 700 occupations among a wide variety of employers and industries, ranging from aerospace facilities to hospitals and auto repair shops. About a third of this effort is directed at upgrading the skills of underutilized employees.

Perhaps the most significant development in 1965 was the increasingly important role played by community groups in on-the-job training promotion and development. These programs accounted for nearly 20,000 trainees, representing nearly a third of the total number of OJT approvals in 1965.

Since nearly all training is conducted at the jobsite under the supervision of the employer who pays the trainees' wages, the more than 6,000 participating employers are the mainstay of the on-the-job training effort.

TRAINING COSTS REDUCED

The cost per trainee to the Federal Government in on-the-job training programs fell to $520—about $90 below the cost of the previous year. This reduction resulted mainly from administrative improvements in the conduct of the programs, the greater number of programs without allowance costs, the shorter duration of training programs, and the greater willingness on the part of employers to absorb more of the training cost.

Many of these training programs reached into industries that had never before trained anyone in a formal program, introducing many small businessmen to the value and efficiency of training people—an investment made mainly by large industrial organizations before the advent of MDTA.

About 10 percent of the training was in the apprentice-entry category. Usually of 52 weeks duration, these apprentice-entry programs prepared the trainee for acceptance and entry into formalized apprenticeship in highly skilled crafts

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or trades. The time spent in the apprentice-entry preparation is credited toward the 3- or 4-year formal apprenticeship program.

ADMINISTRATIVE IMPROVEMENTS

Procedurally, an OJT program is established through a contract between the Department of Labor and the training facility, usually that of the employer. Administrative procedures were streamlined to permit an employer to train one man without having the same paperwork involved when several hundred persons are being trained. A new short-form contract will be put into effect in early 1966.

In national prime contract agreements, new procedures were established to permit the prime contractor to approve routine subcontracts, saving as much as 3 and 4 weeks between agreement and departmental approval.

Another innovation was the fixed-price contract, eliminating the need for the employer to keep cost records. Only attendance and payroll records must be maintained.

It became obvious in late 1964 that if on-the-job training was to make wide impact in terms of getting the unemployed back to work in large numbers, the practice of direct program promotion and development with individual employers would have to be augmented.

Greater effort was expended in 1965, therefore, to engage associations, large corporations, labor unions, and established community organizations as sponsors of training programs for their own industry or locale.

TRAINING OCCUPATIONS

Training programs at the jobsite covered more than 700 basic occupations in 1965, with a wide range of employers and industries participating to provide skills in practically every subprofessional occupation that needed workers.

Health care and automotive occupations accounted for the largest number of on-the-job trainees in specific industries. About 8,000 trainees were scheduled for training in more than 50 health-care occupations in 1965, a very substantial increase over the 1,675 approved in 1964. About 6,400 of these trainees were scheduled for occupations with a critically short labor supply in more than 300 hospitals. More than 650 were to be trained for subprofessional occupations in more than 50 nursing and old-age homes; another 730 for occupations in about 200 rehabilitation centers; and nearly 200 as dental laboratory workers.

In the automotive service field, also suffering from a lack of trained workers, contracts were approved for more than 7,525 trainees in 1965, another significant increase over the 379 in 1964.

In another specialized field, the printing and publishing industry, more than 1,000 trainees were approved in 1965. There were only 189 trainees approved in 1964.

Shoe manufacturing occupations accounted for 3,000 openings for training in 1965 among 55 shoe firms in 14 States, almost tripling the training effort conducted by the industry in 1963 and 1964 combined. Training projects were scheduled for such jobs as stitchers, cutters, and dinkers.

Nearly 2,000 trainees were scheduled for food service occupations, including 350 assistant cooks and helpers, 300 cook-chef apprentices, and 400 bakery route salesmen.

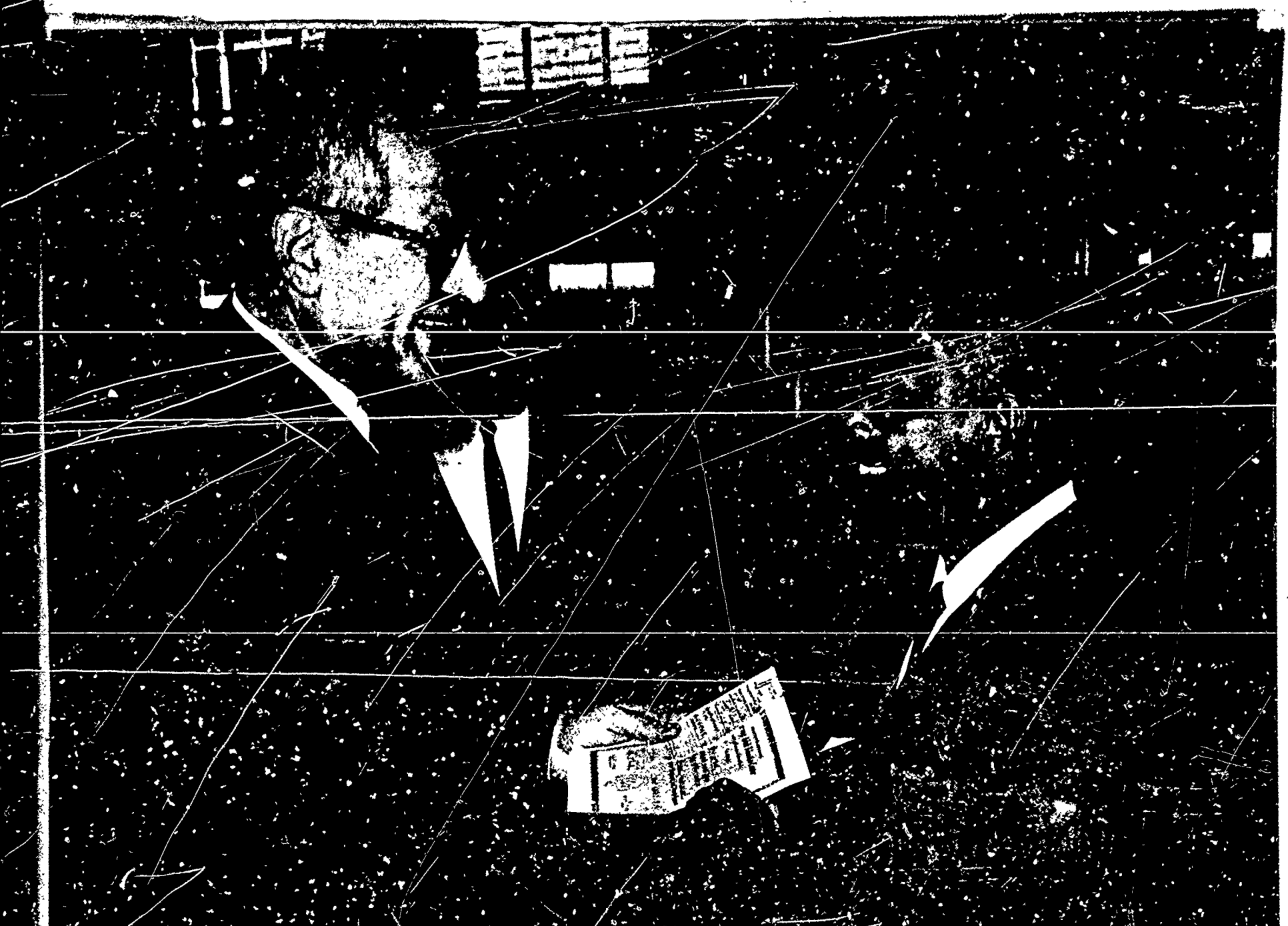
The building and construction industry agreed to train over 2,000 skilled craftsmen. Most of these programs were in the apprentice-entry category and represented a three-fold increase in numbers over 1963 and 1964 combined.

More than 2,800 trainees were approved in various machinist skills, including 1,100 tool and die makers, in small and large shops in 34 States. An estimated 11,000 were scheduled in machine-operator categories in the metal-working industry.

The Job Development Program had a major impact on the kinds of occupations in which on-the-job training was given in 1965. As a result of emphasis on development of training for growing employment opportunities in the service industries, there was a substantial increase (10 percent) in the proportion of workers approved for training in service and related occupations. This, in part, accounted for a drop in the proportions being trained for semiskilled occupations.

OJT UNDER STATE AGREEMENTS

Apprenticeship agencies in seven States and the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico, which have



Secretary of Labor W. Willard Wirtz participates in the graduation ceremonies of an OJT apprentice-entry program sponsored by a bricklayers union local.

agreements with the Department of Labor to develop and administer on-the-job training programs in their jurisdictions, accounted for almost 24,000 trainee approvals in 1965—more than a third of all the approvals during the calendar year.

California and New York led the group with a total of more than 14,300 trainees, nearly 8,800 of this number in the Golden State. (See chart 9.) Puerto Rico was third with more than 2,300 trainees; followed by Wisconsin with more than 2,165 trainees; the District of Columbia with 1,520; Louisiana with 1,500; Connecticut with 1,515; and Oregon and Hawaii with a total of more than 600. These jurisdictions also accounted for more than a third of the total allocations of OJT funds during the year.

CENTRALIZED SPONSORSHIP OF TRAINING

Greater effort was made in 1965 to extend OJT by having community organizations and trade and industrial associations act as prime contractors with the Department of Labor.

The success of the group-sponsor approach during the past year resulted in program approvals for more than 35,300 trainees, or more than 50 percent of all OJT training approved in 1965. Group sponsors are responsible for promotion and development of OJT among individual employers in their industries or locales. They seek out employers who are willing to accept trainees, develop the training plan, insure placement for trainees, and monitor the program. Technical assistance is

given by field offices of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.

Separate subcontracts are signed between the individual employers and the Department of Labor, covering the cost of the actual training.

A small businessman who has 10 employees, for example, and needs to train only one more man is easily accommodated in such programs. The National Tool, Die, and Precision Machining Association OJT contract is an example of such programs. The national association's training coordinator might move into a city where a local association finds that there is need for 45 additional tool and die makers among the 18 shops in the area. The 45 trainees would be selected by the employers from a panel of qualified candidates chosen by the local State Employment Service office. A local instructor, on a rotating schedule, would move from shop to shop to instruct the trainees. Tool and die maker trainees are paid from $1.65 to $2.00 an hour as beginning wages. The employer is reimbursed for his share of the total local training cost, not including wages.

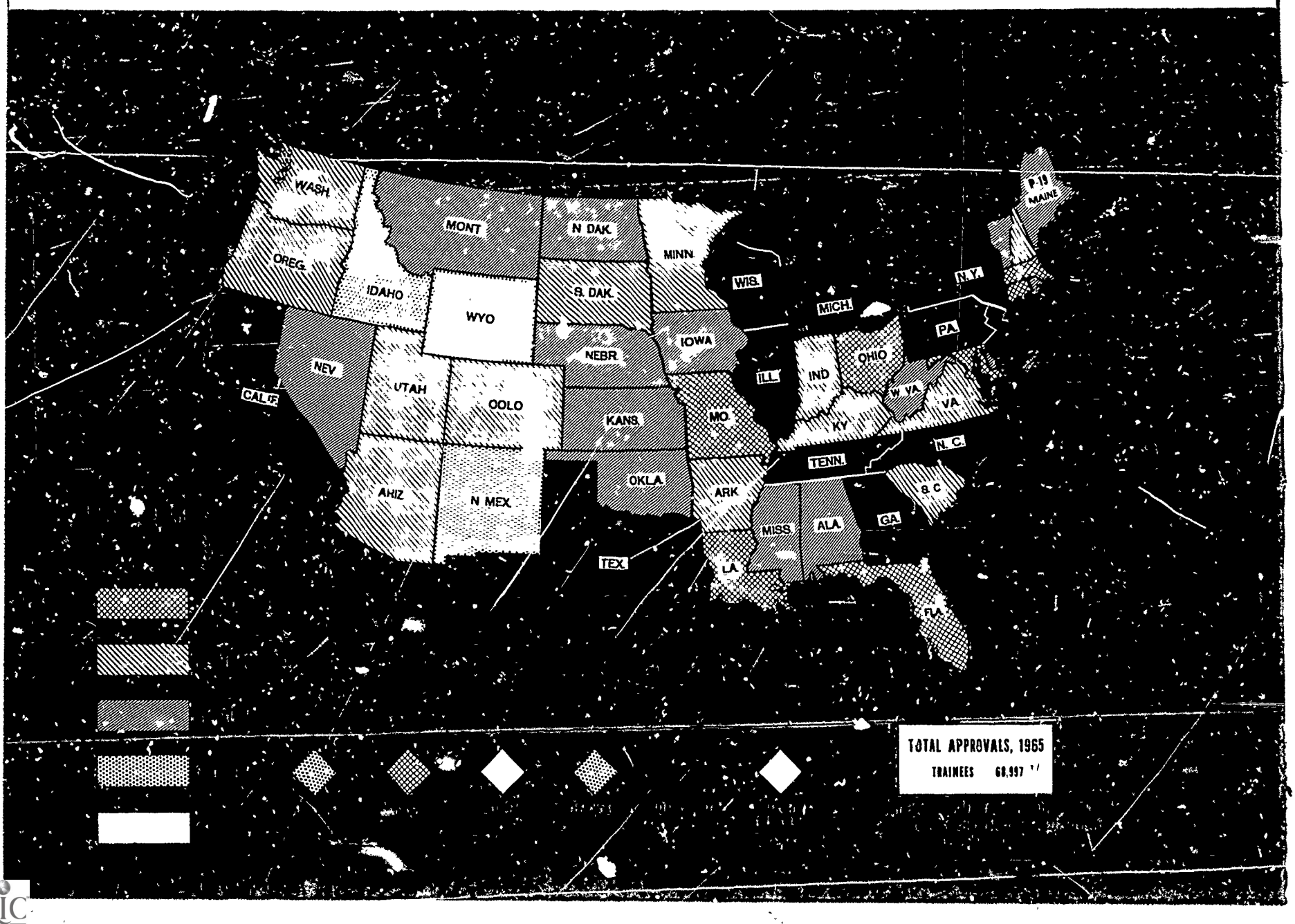
Community Organizations

Community organizations accounted for more on the-job training efforts than any other kind of training sponsored; more than 60 such organizations in 50 cities signed prime contracts with the Secretary of Labor to train nearly 20,000 persons. Nearly $12 million in Federal funds were allocated for these community projects in 1965.

Organizations such as the Urban League and a variety of special new organizations created by mayors, civic leaders, community programs, and minority group representatives took up the problem of training the unemployed in local areas by sponsoring OJT projects.

Urban Leagues in 24 cities agreed to find on-the-job training opportunities for 7,000 people in their communities by seeking the participation of individual employers who would provide the training. Urban League members recruit the trainees and develop and administer the subcontracts with these employers.

In the Urban League program in Pittsburgh one project for 113 trainees has already been com-



pleted; a second contract will be awarded in early 1966 to develop training opportunities for another 400 unemployed. Twenty-eight of the first 113 trainees had had no previous work history, 21 had been welfare recipients, and the remaining 64 had worked sporadically as laborers, porters, or domestics earning an average of $18 a week before training began. Jobs were found for the 113 trainees as floral designers, keypunch operators, machinists, upholsterers, warehousemen, floor tilers, meat cutters, auto body repairmen, and stenographers. The average weekly wage of the entire group rose to $62 a week upon completion of training.

The NAACP worked with the Urban League in Cleveland in operating a pre-job training program aimed at preparing 1,250 youth aged 16 to 25 to successfully pass apprenticeship examinations and be admitted to a regular apprenticeship program or to enrollment in MDTA programs, many of which will be comprised of on-the-job training.

The Department has also worked closely with various local Mexican-American organizations to promote and develop OJT programs. In San Jose, Calif., for example, a program was started to train 300 Mexican-Americans, many of them among the hard-core unemployed, for jobs in retail sales, banking, transportation, manufacturing and other fields with stable employment outlooks.

Thirty-eight other community groups, organized principally to use the assistance offered by OJT-MDTA, accounted for nearly 13,000 additional OJT trainees.

A representative was assigned from the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, established under the Civil Rights Act, to lend expert advice to employers and unions seeking to develop training programs under MDTA.

Associations as Active Sponsors

National service organizations and trade associations continued to take an active role in developing OJT programs for their membership in 1965. Twenty-one associations joined the Department of Labor in developing programs for more than 15,700 trainees. (For steps in initiating programs, see chart 10.)

The largest association contract in 1965 was written with the Hospital Research and Educational Trust of the American Hospital Association to train 4,000 persons in a variety of nonlicensed, subprofessional hospital occupations. This contract stemmed from a successful pilot project with the association in 1964.

The Institute of Industrial Launderers' 500 member firms will develop training programs for 1,000 mentally retarded persons to work in laundry service occupations; another 1,500 mentally retarded persons will be trained under the sponsorship of the National Association for Retarded Children in retail service occupations in large department stores.

The Diaper Service Industry Association will train 700 unemployed persons as launderers and delivery route salesmen.

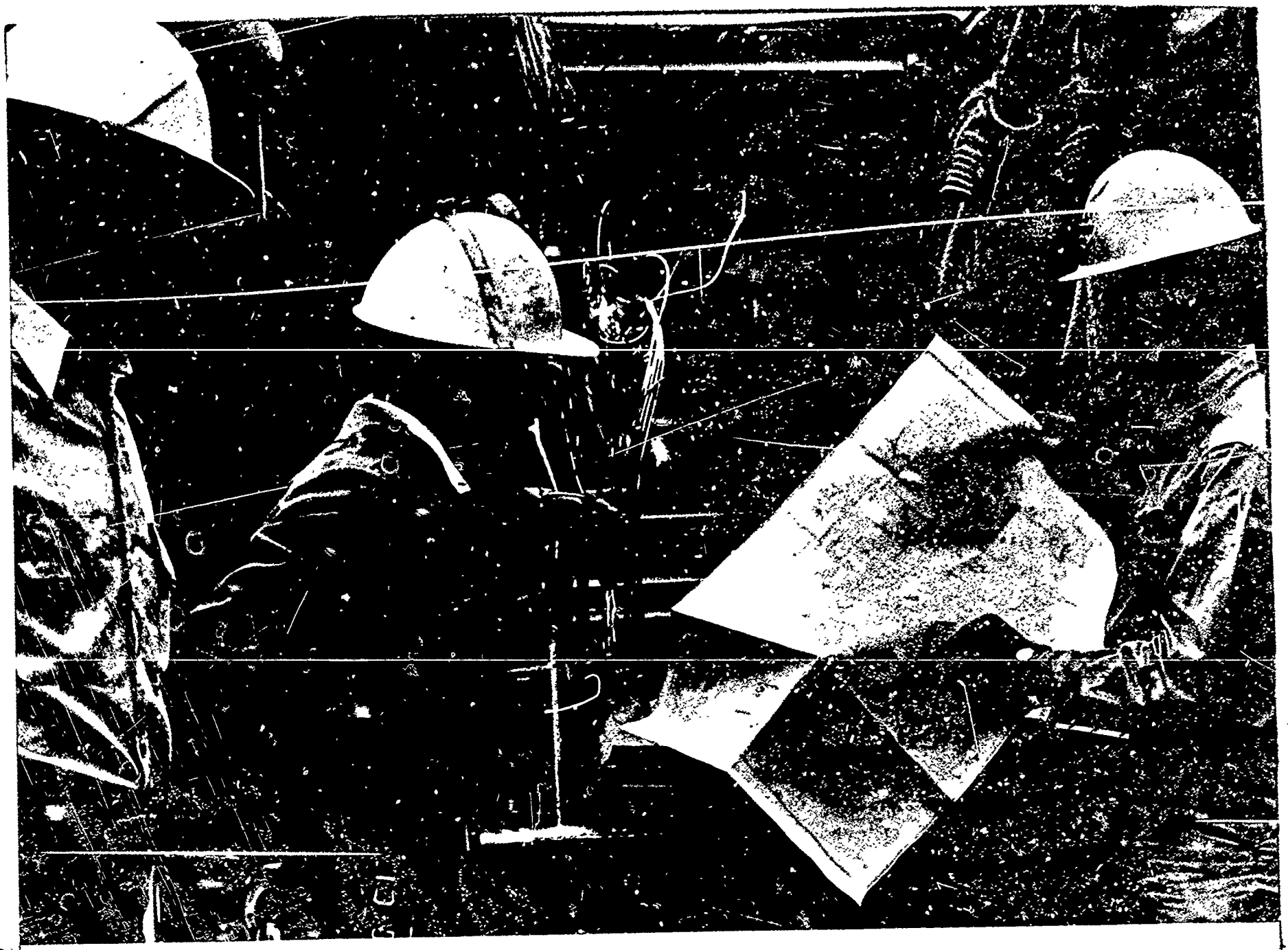
The Association of Rehabilitation Centers, Inc., will train 500 therapeutic and psychiatric aides in more than 100 rehabilitation centers.

Twelve State associations of oil marketers and jobbers are developing training programs for 4,160 trainees as service station salesmen in Arkansas, Colorado, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

LARGE CORPORATIONS

Representative of large corporations that became prime contractors in 1965 are Chrysler Corporation, which agreed to promote the training of 800 automobile technicians and 200 auto body repairmen; Tidewater Oil Company, which will train 1,080 gasoline service station managers at their east and west coast training centers; and Douglas Aircraft Corporation, which will train 386 draftsmen, 80 computer programers, and 340 Fortran analytical engineers.

Chrysler is employing the same method the trade associations use for promoting and developing OJT programs among its dealers. The firm has a national training coordinator and several assistants traveling to the dealers to start programs for as many mechanics and repairmen as the dealer may need. Upon completion of the 52-week OJT program, the trainees will be admitted to formal apprenticeship programs.



On-the-job training under the MDTA covered more than 700 basic occupations in 1965. Here electrical linemen trainees receive instruction from their supervisor.

ORGANIZED LABOR

With the need for skilled workers in shortage occupations becoming more acute, more labor organizations began to support OJT to help meet the demand for workers with the required new skills.

Joint labor-management and labor-sponsored on-the-job training projects covered nearly 6,000 trainees enrolling in apprentice-entry and retraining or upgrading programs. These programs were sponsored by 24 different labor organizations and joint labor-management groups in 28 States.

As examples, 400 journeymen operating engineers and 120 carpenters in California are being upgraded in new skill requirements of their trades. Also, 3,000 barbers and hairdressers throughout the United States are learning new techniques to qualify them for better paying jobs. Apprentice-entry bricklayer training programs have been started to prepare 300 workers in Georgia and 160 workers in the District of Columbia as apprentice-entry bricklayers. Another apprentice-entry program for 300 hotel service workers is underway in Nevada.

CHANGING PATTERNS OF TRAINING

The changing characteristics of the unemployed dictated some changes in the basic programs of on-the-job training during the latter half of 1965. More and more of the potential trainees screened and tested were found to have low literacy levels and other educational and social deficiencies. While their numbers were small when compared with the total numbers approved for training, they nevertheless represented an important new challenge to program sponsors. This changing pattern of training was a natural outcome of the continuing decline in unemployment rates in 1965.

In cooperation with local education agencies, OJT project developers were enabled to expand the so-called "coupled" programs for this group, combining on-the-job training with the related classroom instruction needed by the trainees to fill the job requirements.

Tool and die shops, for instance, need trainees who have a basic education in mathematics and the ability to read blueprints and calibrate tools. For such trainees in "coupled" programs, classroom training for a period of 8 weeks was given in local vocational schools to teach these basics before the trainees began training on the job. And even in less difficult occupations some trainees must be brought to a reading level which enables them to read tags, directions, delivery instructions, and so forth.

Liaison officers were assigned to work closely with the Office of Economic Opportunity to bring the youngsters moving out of the Job Corps and Community Action Programs into actual training on the job with employers who have worthwhile and stable jobs available.

Youngsters who "graduate" from the Neighborhood Youth Corps are being enrolled, where possible, in on-the-job training programs. This is being written into OJT contracts as a sensible and logical step in moving disadvantaged youngsters up the economic and social ladder.

TRAINEE WAGES

The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT), which is responsible for the administration of OJT–MDTA, has for years directed the promotion and development of formal apprenticeship programs in the United States. In these apprenticeship programs, wages paid the entry apprentice, as a general rule, are at half the going rate paid the journeyman or full fledged craftsman. Periodic increases are given so that in his final period of apprenticeship the apprentice is earning 85 percent of the journeyman rate.

This rule of thumb of paying half the going rate was applied whenever possible in OJT projects in those occupations and industries where the final rate of pay is high enough to warrant it. In general, however, the employer pays the OJT trainee whatever he is paying his other workers in comparable jobs. Virtually all trainees were paid at least $1.25 an hour.

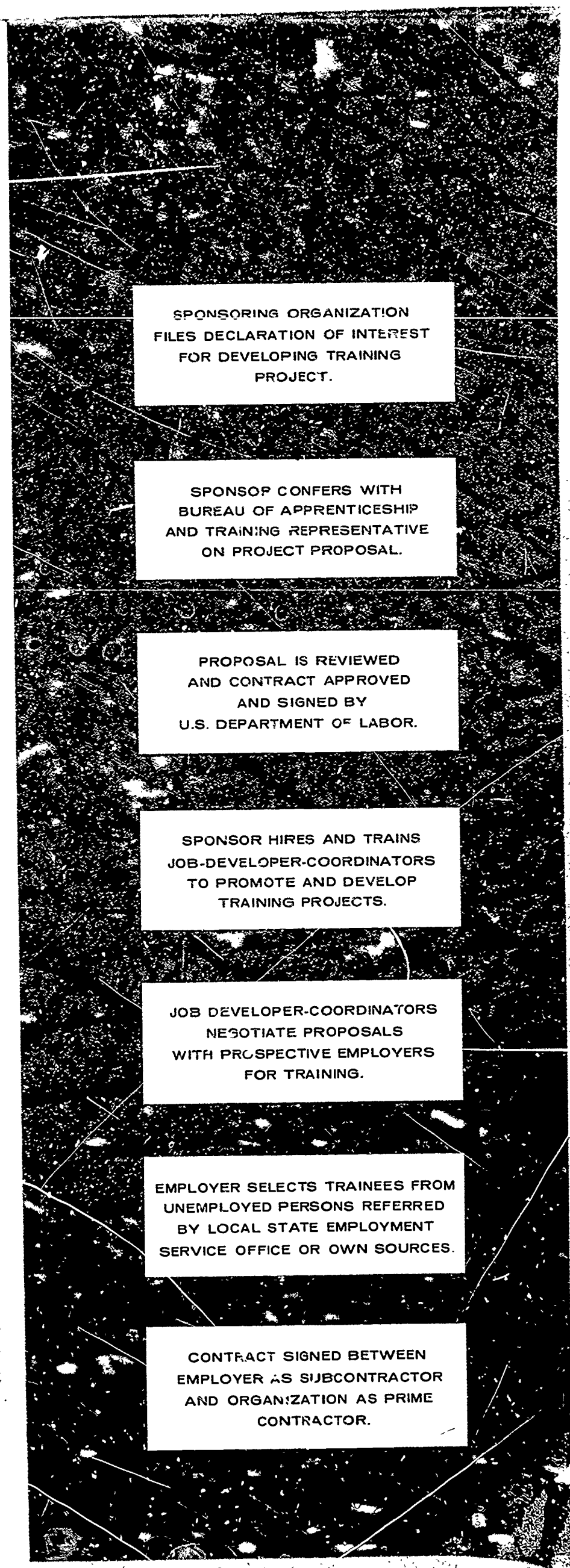


TABLE 11. SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ENROLLEES IN MDTA ON-THE-JOB TRAINING PROJECTS, 1964 AND 1965

Characteristic	Percent distribution	
	1965	1964
Age	100.0	100.0
Under 22 years	39.2	32.8
22 to 44 years	50.9	58.2
45 years and over	9.9	9.0
Family status	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	48.5	54.1
Other	51.5	45.9
Years of gainful employment	100.0	100.0
Under 3 years	40.0	33.4
3 to 9 years	37.0	39.7
10 years or more	23.0	26.9
Education	100 0	100.0
8th grade or less	12.1	14.0
9th to 11th grade	26.2	26.1
12th grade or more	61.7	59.9

A broad sampling of 22,000 trainees showed that the first-year wages paid the trainees averaged about $3,455, and more than $4,300 the 2nd year. These wages included those received during training and after training.

TRAINEE CHARACTERISTICS

The most notable change in the characteristics of OJT trainees during the past year was the sharp increase in the number of youth. (See table 11.) In 1965, 2 out of 5 OJT trainees were under 22 years of age, representing an increase of almost 30 percent over 1964, most of which was in the teenage group. As a consequence of the heavy emphasis on youth, there was a corresponding decline in the number of heads of households and those with longer attachment to the work force. Similarly, because of the higher educational attainment of present-day youth, the proportion of trainees with some high school education increased and those with less than an eighth-grade education declined slightly.

Although not as large as the increase in youth enrollees, the gain in the proportion of older workers enrolled in 1965 was significant. Because of the difficulty in job placement for the over-45 worker, OJT training, with its high placement rate, is particularly rewarding for this group. As a result of the combined increase in the younger and older groups, the age group from 22 to 44 declined, particularly in the younger 22 to 34 age group, the years during which workers are most easily placed in employment. A shift from this group, which has always constituted the largest proportion of trainees, to the less employable groups at both ends of the age spectrum is indicative of some success during the past year in reaching important segments of the labor force who would have had little opportunity for employment without the benefits of skill training.

Men continue to represent the overwhelming majority of OJT trainees, with no significant change over last year, and 3 out of 5 of the men are heads of households. A large proportion (over one-fifth) of the women trained were heads of households and 1 in 3 had one or more dependents. (See table 12.) On the average, more women trainees are in the older groups—twice as many women as men were 45 or over. Also, proportionately twice as many women were in the long-term unemployed group and only 5 percent were eligible unemployment insurance claimants. In general, these characteristics reflect the job pattern for women workers who absent themselves from the labor force while their children are young.

TABLE 12. FAMILY STATUS OF ENROLLEES IN MDTA ON-THE-JOB TRAINING PROJECTS, 1965

Characteristic	Percent distribution		
	Total	Male	Female
Family status	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	48.5	57.0	22.2
Other	51.5	43.0	77.8
Dependents	100.0	100.0	100.0
0	45.8	39.6	65.3
1	17.4	17.8	16.3
2	13.5	15.1	8.6
3	10.3	12.2	4.2
4	6.5	7.6	3.0
5 and over	6.5	7.7	2.6

Although the total numbers of both white and nonwhite trainees more than doubled during 1965, the proportion of nonwhites remained about the same as last year—about 20 percent of total trainees. Several programs designed especially for Negroes, particularly the massive Urban League program, did not get underway until the latter part of 1965. Nevertheless, the failure to train larger proportions of Negroes, despite the extensive developmental efforts of the past year, is disappointing and indicates that a careful analysis must be made of ways in which the major difficulties can be overcome. Perhaps one of the chief problems in recruiting more Negroes for OJT is the peculiarly close relationship between the training and employment phases, whereby the employer frequently has a part in the trainee selection process because the trainees will remain in his employ after training. Employers normally look for the highest possible educational and skill attainments, and the Negro unemployed are greatly handicapped in both education and work experience.

part II

SPECIAL MANPOWER PROGRAMS

part
II
SPECIAL MANPOWER PROGRAMS

The Experimental and Demonstration Program

The experimental and demonstration program (widely known as E&D) seeks to develop new ways to meet manpower problems. Its object is to learn and to teach by doing, to explore feasibility and to measure effectiveness of new approaches, to set examples which can be widely adopted to improve established manpower programs.

This authority has exciting potential. As yet, it has been applied on only a limited scale. But already it has broken new ground on many problems, built increased receptivity for new ideas, and helped hasten and broaden adoption of useful innovation.

This chapter reports on the emphases of this program, traces some of its early impact, presents several examples of projects and findings, and cites notable recent trends in program direction.

PROGRAM EMPHASIS

The E&D program has been directed principally to the disadvantaged individual, the person unable to gain steady employment. Projects have sought to identify the distinctive needs of individuals who cannot ordinarily be adequately aided by established programs and to develop techniques to "reach" them, help make them trainable, and provide them with occupational skills.

E&D projects are not readily categorized, however. They differ widely, not alone by group or problem focused on, but by technique or combination of techniques tried and, of great importance, by type of institution or combination of institutions enlisted to conduct the effort.

In all, over 100 E&D projects were in effect at any point in 1965, the number fluctuating as some terminated and new ones started. About 85 of these were operational projects, while 15 to 20 were developmental (undertaken to plan and initiate specific projects), or analytical assessments of a project's operations by an independent organization.

Priority Target Groups

Projects in operation in late 1965 had worked with approximately 40,000 persons, testing a variety of manpower services according to the particular problems involved. Over half, about 55 percent, of these persons were *disadvantaged youth*, primarily in the large urban ghettos, but in some rural settings as well.

Urban youth projects have tackled, often in close conjunction with other community efforts on related problems, the tangled difficulties posed by slum-area youth alienation, negative attitudes toward work and education, and other social and cultural barriers to employment. The rural youth projects have sought to meet manpower problems stemming from geographic isolation and limited rural opportunity, both to prepare those who will migrate and to upgrade capability of those who wish to remain in rural settings.

Minority groups have been a central concern. Most of the youth projects (all of the largest) have concentrated on new means of opening access to education, training, and employment opportunity for minority group youth. A series of projects has also been undertaken to learn and do more about employment problems of *chronically unemployed and underemployed adult family heads*—both in cities and rural regions. Most have been designed specifically to work with minority groups.

Overall, about half of the participants in E&D projects have been nonwhite. Nearly 20 percent have been persons of Spanish-speaking background (Mexican-Americans and Puerto Ricans). Limited education is another common characteristic. Three-quarters of the E&D participants did not complete high school—and nearly a third did not go beyond elementary school.

Although youth and minority problems have been given the most attention, the program has purposefully developed projects focusing on employment handicaps of such other disadvantaged groups as unemployed older workers with obsolete skills or limited education, migrant workers, the mentally retarded, the recovered mentally ill, and those to be released from correctional institutions.

Special Techniques

To attack more effectively the employment difficulties of the disadvantaged, E&D projects seek to improve traditional techniques and to devise new methods and combinations. These include principally:

Recruitment—to identify and "reach out" to attract and encourage participation by those who need but cannot or do not seek the traditional services offered by established programs.

Vocational assessment and selection—by new tests, work tryouts, counseling, and self-selection methods to overcome shortcomings of customary tests in determining potential of the culturally and educationally disadvantaged.

Motivation—to encourage and provide incentive through varied counseling approaches, guided exposure to work realities, and involvement of family and peer groups, to overcome apathy, fear, and discouragement.

Training—to provide needed basic education, work orientation, and other prevocational remedial services, and new job instruction methods and settings.

Job development—to identify or design suitable jobs, and use on-the-job training as a job-finding and employer-participation mechanism.

Beyond such efforts, the program also seeks to develop insights from action projects as to other elements of technique so often critical for effective result: Staff selection, training, attitude, and division of responsibilities; degree and nature of personalized attention to individuals; linking and phasing of various types of services; and types of useful community involvement.

Institutions Used

A central aspect of the E&D strategy of innovation has been to draw on different types of institutions—to gain new capabilities and resources, fresh ingenuity and resourcefulness, and new ways of pooling multiagency efforts.

Thus, organizations only partially involved in manpower development efforts, primarily universities, community groups, and social welfare agencies, have been encouraged to assume new demonstration responsibilities. New organizations, including indigenous organizations of the disadvantaged, have been supported to carry through specific projects. And new forms of combined multiagency and public and private efforts have been established to develop more comprehensive and cohesive effort than feasible through separate activities.

As of late 1965, some 45 percent of E&D operating projects were being conducted by private community, civic, or social welfare organizations, and another 20 percent were being run by universities or colleges. Over 15 percent were being carried on by indigenous organizations of the disadvant-

aged. Local public agencies were sponsors in another 10 percent, and Federal or State agencies were conducting nearly 10 percent.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

The impact of the program is of course far broader than the sum of project findings or service to individuals directly aided.

While difficult to document, and often hardly attributable wholly to the experimental and demonstration program alone, it is evident that approaches demonstrated by various projects have rapidly been made operational on a wide scale.

The urban youth projects, for example, helped pave the way for the current rapid nationwide establishment of Youth Opportunity Centers, broadened recognition of the practicality and usefulness of outreach efforts, developed support for the concept of one-stop, multiservice centers, and contributed notably to the present growth of work crews as a device to orient youth to work settings.

The program helped speed adoption of multioccupational and prevocational preparation to provide orientation and training suitable for several occupations where occupational objectives cannot readily be assessed initially, with more specific training then developed in light of the individual's reaction to the preliminary preparation.

By concentrating on the undereducated and exploring new ways of identifying hidden abilities, the program has encouraged new understanding of the feasibility, and has nurtured broadening use, of work-sample and nonverbal tests to measure training and employment potential of those with limited communication skills.

By drawing on volunteer and nonprofessional staff resources, many projects have shown the potential of indigenous subprofessionals for effectively aiding the disadvantaged.

By seeking and supporting new institutional arrangements to meet gaps in manpower programs, the E&D effort has helped to broaden the sights of established agencies and to lay the groundwork for some approaches now being embodied in community action programs under the Economic Opportunity Act.

Indeed, by helping to stimulate mobilization of community resources to attack employment problems of the disadvantaged, the E&D program fostered new organizations which persist and are expanding their activities beyond original demonstration objectives. Notable examples include Community Progress, Inc. (CPI) in New Haven, the Youth Opportunities Board in Los Angeles, and Job Opportunities through Better Skills (JOBS) in Chicago.

As a by-product of value, many demonstration projects have served as practical training grounds for the new staff resources and talent now being relied on to broaden national efforts in human resource development.

Beyond early accomplishments such as these, and others illustrated later in this chapter, there are several broad effects on the national development of an active manpower policy.

EFFECTS ON MANPOWER POLICY

The attempts of many E&D projects to reach the most disadvantaged persons have not always been successful. But repeated examples of remarkable achievement in dozens of communities have helped build general recognition of the potential of imaginative, resourceful efforts at manpower development.

There exists now, as a base for national policy, a wide awareness that virtually all persons formerly considered as untrainable and unemployable can in fact be reached, can be persuaded to enter, stay in, and benefit from an education and training course which is suitably devised, and can be placed in jobs they want and can perform and hold steadily. The E&D program has been a key factor in gaining this recognition.

Another major contribution to emerging active manpower policy has been to demonstrate the constructive role which private resources can play.

Nearly three-quarters of the action projects funded by the E&D program since its inception have had private or university (nongovernment agency) sponsors. Public agencies have made vital contributions to all E&D projects, and projects conducted through local and State government agencies have provided a substantial part of the knowledge gained in E&D activities, but it is nonetheless clear that the program has helped develop use of private talents in formal public manpower programs on a scale unparalleled before.

One of the more significant immediate results has been the expansion already evident in on-the-job training under MDTA. Under a procedure developed in E&D projects, private groups such as the Urban League and industry associations have been enlisted as contractors of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training to develop and administer OJT programs, working directly with employers and providing reimbursement of costs for training of manpower program enrollees.

Another result of reliance on private agencies has been broader access to groups not previously reached through efforts of governmental bodies. In project after project seeking to involve youth, migrant agricultural laborers, older workers, urban and rural heads of households, and other types of disadvantaged persons, the outreach activities of private and community groups had a large measure of success in finding and eliciting the cooperation of hard-to-reach individuals and families where public efforts often had limited response.

The value of linking manpower development activities closely to broader range, community programs of human renewal has also been demonstrated by the E&D program. Obstacles to effective employment are often rooted in social welfare, health, housing, and other deficiencies which require general community attack; in turn, community efforts to overcome poverty and its social evils must rely heavily on manpower programs to develop needed skills and employment opportunities.

What E&D projects have helped show is that where community supportive services and manpower services can be well coordinated, each gains in effectiveness. "One-stop" comprehensive assistance offered through a multipurpose center can provide more effective and more economical total impact.

Another impact of the E&D program on evolution of active manpower and antipoverty policy has flowed from its efforts to get disadvantaged workers to express their views and to take advantage of their ideas. A vital degree of participatory democracy is being built into manpower programs. On occasion, E&D and other manpower projects have faltered when predetermined programs did not sensitively recognize wishes and attitudes of the groups involved. In other cases, projects evoked substantial response, but failed to reach those most in need of their services.

Many projects have therefore created active advisory committees and community organizations to draw meaningfully on groups and civic officials involved. Many have also developed training class councils, group counseling sessions, and other devices to furnish feedback to aid reshaping of activities and services in light of trainee reactions.

Establishment of such mechanisms for creative contribution from interested organizations and the participants themselves has sometimes created difficulties. But it has also brought values of self-help and genuine participation, plus benefits of distinctive talents, with positive results.

EXAMPLES

The program's scope and activities can be illustrated usefully by brief descriptions of several projects and problem areas concentrated on.[1]

Many E&D projects have been undertaken to explore *whether and how comprehensive manpower services can be developed effectively in disadvantaged neighborhoods.*

North Richmond, Calif., is a Negro ghetto. It has chronic severe unemployment and underemployment. Its residents generally have had limited education. Broken homes are common and delinquency and crime rates are high. Poverty has been accepted fatalistically by much of its population.

In 1963, a community organization, Neighborhood House of North Richmond, agreed to undertake a 15-month demonstration effort, using a neighborhood building as a base. The project called for this organization to counsel, test, train, and place in employment a target number of 125 out-of-school and out-of-work male youth 16 to 22 years of age who had distinctive problems which conventional manpower programs were generally unable to meet.

The area's problem youth responded affirmatively to the opportunity. In all, 178 young men were enrolled in the project; over 85 percent were school dropouts, over 65 percent were from families known to welfare authorities, and over 70 percent had police records.

[1] Two specific activities are discussed more fully elsewhere. See page 45 for a report on the mobility assistance demonstration projects and page 93 for training in correctional institutions.

The need for basic education and remedial literacy training if occupational training is to be successful is one of the areas explored by E&D projects. Person-to-person tutoring is one of many approaches which have been used.

The project's counseling approaches, tutoring in basic education, and work experience and training arrangements (plus resourcefulness, dedication, and patience), led to job placement or full-time return to school for 5 of every 6 of these youth.

A second project was thereupon undertaken to test additional approaches with a larger number of area residents—this time adults as well as youth. Included in the 1965 activities were the use of workshops and work crews outside the segregated neighborhood to aid in work orientation; counseling focus on family stresses, role playing in practice job interviews, and work attitudes and personal grooming: individualized remedial education; outstationing of State Employment Service personnel in the neighborhood center to provide counseling and job development skills; and promotion of on-the-job training.

To *reach disadvantaged youth* at a time they might be particularly receptive, a demonstration effort by the National Committee for Children and Youth focused on volunteers rejected for military service because of academic deficiencies. Conducted in Baltimore and Washington, D.C., the project worked with some 1,000 enlistment rejectees.

At the time they unsuccessfully sought to enter military service, only some 30 percent of these young men were employed or attending school. Most functioned at the third- or fourth-grade level and had never had any vocational training. Followup study of the first 728 men to whom the project gave counseling, education, training, and other assistance found 82 percent gainfully occupied, either on jobs, in school, or in the Armed Forces.

The project accomplished this upgrading through a variety of innovative efforts, including (1) cooperative referral arrangements developed with military recruitment officers, (2) immediate counseling on alternative opportunities available,

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(3) individualized education to help qualify those who wanted to go on to military service, and (4) other assistance, including education, job training, and job finding, for those who preferred civilian employment.

The success of the project has spurred plans for wider scale adoption and testing of such techniques through joint efforts by the Employment Service and the National Committee for Children and Youth.

For the *rural poor, colleges have been utilized as experimental regional manpower centers.* Such efforts have been undertaken particularly in the South, where predominantly Negro colleges have been enlisted as key rural manpower development resources. College sponsors in the South include Tuskegee Institute in Alabama, Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University, North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College, Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State University, and Bluefield State College in West Virginia. Northern Michigan University and Southern Illinois University have conducted major programs in their areas.

These projects have varied considerably, but among their notable distinctive features are efforts to (1) try new rural communication mechanisms to work with rural residents who are hard to reach for geographic and cultural reasons; (2) develop special educational-occupational curriculums needed to help the rural disadvantaged overcome employment barriers; and (3) explore whether and how college facilities and capabilities can serve rural manpower development needs.

Early findings indicate that college faculties can establish effective relationships with deprived socioeconomic groups and that a college campus can be a positive aid in motivating undereducated persons to new efforts at raising their literacy and work skills.

The Tuskegee Institute project is a notable example. It sought to show that a campus-based manpower development program could help underemployed rural household heads overcome educational, social, and motivational inadequacies to improve their employment status.

Through rural "door-to-door" recruitment in the so-called "Black Belt" of rural Alabama, Tuskegee readily found hundreds of eligible applicants (heads of rural households, with under $1,200 annual income, and below eighth-grade literacy) and, after grappling with the reluctance of some selectees to participate, enrolled 180 in a program of counseling, basic education, and job training (for brick masonry, carpentry, farm machinery repair, and meat processing).

Half the enrollees lived on campus with access to all college activities; the other half commuted daily from their homes. Both groups were about comparable in age and intelligence.

Over 90 percent of the enrollees stuck through the 12-month program. Those living on campus, however, had better attendance records and recorded greater educational and vocational skill advance. Of the graduates, over 80 percent were successfully placed in jobs whose average pay was $2.16 an hour (ranging from $1.35 in meat processing to $4.25 in brick masonry).

Several significant conclusions Tuskegee drew from the project were that (1) it seemed most effective to group the trainees according to estimates of their learning potential rather than according to their age or area of residence, (2) medical services were often a precondition for effective progress, (3) literacy and arithmetic courses could and should be tied directly to the occupational skills training, and (4) the most challenging demand on project staff, and the primary factor in project success, was effective counseling.

A followup study being conducted by a private organization, the Bureau of Social Science Research, is assessing the project's case records and interviewing project staff, trainees, and employers of graduates. Its early findings are that (1) the environment and cultural activities on campus contributed substantially to trainee preparation for employment, (2) the college staff involved possessed the human know-how to carry out successfully the development program for the economically and educationally depressed, and (3) employers are satisfied with job performance of the graduates.

Development of new occupations has been aimed for by other projects. Two of particular note are those of Howard University and the National Committee on Employment of Youth (NCEY).

The Howard project is designed to train 240 subprofessional aides in health, education, and welfare skills. Recruited for the program are disadvantaged persons whose own background has been shaped by social, cultural, and educational deprivation similar to that of the groups with

whom they will later work. Training is provided on two levels—the first for counselor interns who are incorporated into the project staff to play leadership roles within the groups of aide trainees, and the second for the aides themselves. Experimental course curricula combine a basic institutional training program with work orientation and on-the-job training at community facilities which serve the general public. The project is also working to encourage public and private agencies to establish new subprofessional positions to employ newly trained aides.

The National Committee on Employment of Youth project has been training 60 unemployed adults with limited education to become semiprofessional aides to work in youth-serving agencies in the New York area. Considerable effort has been devoted to persuading social work organizations to add subprofessional positions to their staffing patterns. Placements for the first training class of 20 were obtained in a variety of aide positions at salaries ranging from $5,750 to $6,500 a year. Both the NCEY and Howard projects have achieved unusual holding power, with extremely few dropouts from training.

New ways of *upgrading to qualify for professional and skilled occupations* in which shortages exist are also being explored. An E&D project conducted by the Urban League of Greater New York and Yeshiva University provided short-term training to bridge the gap between inadequate college preparation and teacher qualifying standards in the New York school system. In many cases this involved overcoming of cultural obstacles and dialect difficulties of graduates of predominantly Southern Negro colleges. Graduates qualified and were hired by New York schools.

As a result of this model, similar programs are now being developed in New York and elsewhere under the resources available through the MDTA and education legislation to meet chronic shortages of qualified teachers.

In the field of apprenticeship for skilled occupations, an E&D project conducted by the National Institute of Labor Education sought to *open up apprenticeship opportunities for unemployed, minority group school dropouts* in different cities. The project sought to link union and industry cooperation to upgrade such youth to the point where they could qualify for admission to formal apprenticeship programs. Results were mixed: Problems were encountered in recruitment, retaining youth in such programs, and developing the needed integration of pre-apprenticeship and full-apprenticeship programs. The success in some instances and clarification of the nature and intensity of key problems in others, however, have paved the way for greater effectiveness in new efforts being undertaken.

One of the most important areas which E&D projects have been probing is *basic literacy* in both language and number skills. The close association between limited schooling and unemployment is well known, but beyond this, a repeated experience of E&D projects is that many persons with some high school education or even a high school diploma still cannot read or handle numbers well enough to absorb occupational training.

The initial E&D youth effort of the Chicago YMCA, Boys Clubs, and Youth Centers in the JOBS project tested more than 1,500 youth and found an average completion of 10 years of education—but ability to read and figure at only the sixth-grade level. An E&D youth project administered by the Mayor's office of the City of Detroit reported that nearly 85 percent of the 520 trainees it worked with were high school graduates—but their average reading ability was measured at the eighth-grade level.

In response to these basic education needs, most E&D projects have had to include remedial literacy training. Many approaches have been used, ranging from person-to-person tutoring and traditional classroom methods to programed machine instruction; a wide variety of educational materials, some newly developed by the projects themselves, also have been tested. Some projects have complemented such efforts with "life skills" or "skills for urban living" courses on such subjects as credit buying, good grooming, minority group history, and job search techniques; others have tried to blend literacy and job skill instruction in the same course.

While the projects have established that it is feasible to raise reading and numbers skills quickly for most trainees, and that certain practices are needed to induce and sustain motivation, the varied efforts have not yet come to any reliable conclusion as to particular methods or curricula consistently more effective than others.

Health obstacles to employment have also become a matter of significant concern in E&D

comprehensive manpower development programs.

A project conducted by the Woodlawn Organization in a disadvantaged neighborhood in Chicago found that 20 percent of training dropouts left because of health difficulties.

The city of Detroit youth project's physical examinations found that 85 percent of trainees needed some medical treatment. Its analysis reported that 60 percent of the difficulties could be traced directly to inadequate diet and commented that this "takes on new meaning . . . when correlated with why trainees are late, absent, and in general have a lethargic outlook on life." It initiated a nutrition program in cooperation with the city health department.

The E&D projects have sought to overcome the health barrier to training and employment by enlisting assistance of public health agencies, local hospitals and medical societies, university facilities, vocational rehabilitation agencies, and other sources of medical care, but have often reported that the problem simply is not met fully in the absence of financial resources expressly provided for needed medical services.

The extent and significance of this need as monstrated by these projects suggests strongly that provision for medical examination and treatment must be made a regular adjunct to manpower programs which focus on disadvantaged workers.

The problems of *social adjustment* to work demands are considerably more difficult to quantify than educational and health difficulties, but they are nonetheless critical in manpower development programs for the disadvantaged.

Many slum area youth have no familiarity with the content, tensions, or demands of steady wage work. They have had little opportunity to observe work settings or learn work habits. Adult groups also often face difficult problems in adapting to social demands of new work situations. Older workers who have lost long-time jobs, rural adults financially forced off the land to enter a strange work world, and women (and men) with

Experimental and demonstration projects combine occupational training with a variety of recruitment, counseling, basic education, and job development approaches to difficult employment problems.

long dependency histories cannot readily cope with socially required work standards.

A variety of approaches have been used by E&D projects to meet the social types of manpower development needs. One constant runs throughout: there must be an empathetic person providing some type of successful personal relationship as a base for moving effectively into the work community.

The coldness of the workplace seldom offers much solace to the new employee of disadvantaged background who enters it without support from another source. The most common manifestation of this need in the manpower development process is the trainee's expression that he has at last found someone concerned about his progress and his problems.

The most common means of meeting such social needs is counseling. The counselor-counselee relationship in E&D projects ordinarily has had to go considerably beyond the vocational adviser role usually played by counselors. The individual's personal and training needs are assessed in detail by the counselor, who transmits the information to instructors and job developers, interprets the trainee's reactions to training and to employment, and guides adjustments in the individual's course through the manpower development program.

Group counseling has frequently proven useful in the adjustment of persons, particularly youth, who are unresponsive to the teacher-pupil relationship of the classroom. The supportive group environment enables many individuals to reformulate their attitudes toward work and the interpersonal demands of the workplace.

A principal E&D contribution has been repeated demonstration of the value of indigenous subprofessionals as aides in the counseling process. Individuals who share much of the background of the trainees can help meaningfully to bridge the social and cultural distance between the trainee and professional counselor. They consistently have been of great value in introducing the trainee to the project, in providing support for him to remain in the program, and in following-up to sustain support temporarily after job placement.

All too often the need for post-placement assistance has been underrated. Reports from E&D projects repeatedly stress the importance of sustained aid for a transitional period to assure job retention. In a typical project, the post-placement counselor has had to suggest solutions to problems created by the new job, act as mediator between the worker and his employer, inform the worker of weaknesses found by the employer and suggest corrective measures, and help the worker consider longer range plans and see how his present job fits into such plans. The projects have found that followup of this nature requires face-to-face contact; it cannot be done effectively by telephone calls or mailing of postcards or letters which need reply.

A number of E&D projects have used with considerable success a controlled workshop as a means of meeting social work adjustment problems (as well as an aid for vocational assessment and training), capitalizing on the example of the traditional sheltered workshops established for the physically handicapped and mentally retarded. The workshop can furnish practice work experience where continued progress is not automatically jeopardized by initial poor productive performance. It introduces the trainee to requirements of regular attendance and punctuality, a demanding work pace, and the need for acceptance of supervision and cooperative relations with other workers.

The work crew, a small group of trainees performing actual work tasks under the guidance of an industrially experienced foreman, has been developed by E&D projects as an outdoor extension of the sheltered workshop idea. This technique has gained early and widespread acceptance in urban youth projects, and a number of its aspects have now been incorporated into other manpower programs.

NEW TRENDS AND DIRECTIONS

Several significant developments and new directions initiated in 1965 warrant special note.

One was a shift from demonstration to continuing operation for many of the major projects prominent in the E&D program's initial efforts. As demonstration efforts established the feasibility and desirability of particular techniques and the value of the project structures which applied them, the projects were phased into regular program funding to carry forward useful needed services on a continuing basis. (Ordinarly, demonstration

financing is short-term, normally not more than 3 years.)

Thus, a number of projects were transferred to the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training for continuation under regular OJT programs. Other projects established a base for subsequent regular institutional MDTA training programs. Comprehensive youth service projects in Boston, Chicago, Los Angeles, New Haven, New York, and elsewhere were absorbed and continued by Community Action Programs with funding under the Economic Opportunity Act, generally in close linking with regular Employment Service operations, including new Youth Opportunity Centers.

This experience is pointing up a new need. In some cases, the need for manpower services by disadvantaged persons continues long after the conclusion of the demonstration period, but the established agencies are not in a position to provide them. Under these circumstances the worker groups in the areas involved will be denied those services—unless a special manpower program expressly designed for them is established.

Another key development during the year was the MDTA amendment which shifted authority for experimental and demonstration activity to the research title of the act, signaling a broadening of its scope to permit testing of ideas on manpower programs other than training-related activities alone.

A notable example of one such new idea is the demonstration effort initiated with the State of Iowa to determine the value of a State administrative innovation. It provides for a State manpower commission—the Iowa Manpower Development Council—as a device for identifying specific manpower program needs, developing new efforts, providing technical assistance for them, and rationally meshing statewide manpower activities.

The E&D program is also moving to introduce more measured and disciplined project efforts. In its initial years, the program has been largely exploratory and relatively unstructured in design of projects, in the interest of maximum flexibility. While such leeway will continue to be a feature of most developmental and demonstration activities, new attention is being devoted to formally structured and systematic measurement.

The program's first large formal experimentation project—the first step toward the idea of "program research laboratories" to systematically test out manpower program techniques—was started late in 1965 with the Mobilization for Youth organization in New York. The initial project will rigorously measure the effects of three key aspects of youth work programs and alternative approaches on them:

1. Work training for out-of-school youth—the merits of work crews as against individually dispersed work assignments.

2. Remedial education—the values of instruction integrated into the workday as against instruction on a voluntary basis after work.

3. Selection for a particular occupational field—the effectiveness of assessment by interviewers as against vocational evaluation through work-sample tasks.

The E&D program also is increasing the emphasis on designed multiproject demonstrations on major problems, as against isolated projects with limited impact, to develop better comparative experience for an interrelated series of efforts, with various modifications of basic techniques, for groups in different settings across the country.

Two major examples are a broadened series of projects for training of various groups of prisoners and a program to test for the emotionally and socially handicapped various rehabilitation facilities and concepts which have effectively aided the physically handicapped.

Another purposeful effort will be to encourage and aid a number of regular State and local manpower agencies to introduce new administrative methods or operating techniques on an exploratory basis. Specific Employment Service, Vocational Education and other manpower-oriented public agencies will conduct demonstration efforts to develop increased effectiveness in their operations

Finally, to develop and administer the broadened E&D program more effectively, a new organizational unit—the Office of Special Manpower Programs—has been established. A project review panel of leaders from public service, academic, management, and labor organizations and from professional disciplines will provide guidance on project priorities, design, and project-contractor capabilities.

part
II
SPECIAL MANPOWER PROGRAMS

The Labor Mobility Demonstration Program

During 1965 the Department of Labor conducted 16 pilot projects providing relocation assistance to help unemployed workers who had little prospect for steady employment in their own community to move to available jobs elsewhere. In all, some 1,200 workers and their families were helped to move.

The projects, each rather small, were designed, not to relocate large numbers, but to explore problems and potentials of financial and related relocation aid in varied settings.

The initial findings were highly promising, but they also point up some of the difficulties to be faced by a relocation assistance program.

This chapter briefly describes the statutory background for this demonstration program and the nature of these first pilot projects, the preliminary findings, and plans for the next series of such projects.

BACKGROUND

Migration has always been a significant factor in the adjusting of geographic imbalances in manpower supply and demand, but the United States has never adopted a general relocation assistance program as a purposeful tool for reducing unemployment or meeting needs in labor-shortage areas.

Specialized programs of relocation aid have a long history, however. A century ago the Homestead Act offered free land to encourage movement to the West. Immigration policies have had manpower as well as humanitarian objectives. Programs for farm migrants have sought to meet some problem of worker moves. The Cuban refugee resettlement program and one for Hungarian refugees in the last decade provided public assistance. And a comprehensive program of assistance to help Indians relocate from reservations is now in its 15th year.

In late 1963, the persistence of high unemployment in many areas, the realization that some chronically unemployed workers willing to relocate may remain immobile for lack of financial resources or other assistance, and the favorable experience of several European countries with relocation aid led the Congress to amend the Manpower Development and Training Act to direct the Secretary of Labor to conduct pilot relocation assistance projects.

The House Committee on Education and Labor explained that, although it found "virtual unanim-

ity of opinion and informed judgment" that relocation aid would be useful, the limited experience in this country warranted starting with exploratory projects to indicate "whether this assistance should be provided on a wider basis" and, if so, to "provide the guidelines this committee will require in developing its legislative recommendations."

The amendment called for projects "in a limited number of geographical areas," specifying that they should provide mobility assistance only to unemployed workers who cannot reasonably expect employment in their own community; should help a move only if the workers had definite job offers elsewhere; and should limit financial assistance to grants of 50 percent and/or loans up to 100 percent of expenses needed for relocation. Funds were appropriated late in 1964 and 16 projects were initiated in 1965 to run in the spring and summer months.

The projects were purposefully varied. (A list is presented at the end of this chapter.) Eleven of them were operated by State employment security agencies and 5 were run by private organizations (3 universities, 1 nonprofit foundation, and 1 national social welfare organization).

Projects focused on different geographic areas and different types of unemployed groups. Some concentrated on workers with particular skill, age, or social characteristics, while others worked with a general cross section of the unemployed. They varied also in types and degrees of relocation assistance offered.

Each project sought, not to maximize the number of relocations, but to work with a limited number of potential relocatees to gather information on interest in moving, operational problems of matching geographically separate unemployed workers and vacant jobs, difficulties encountered by workers in relocating, and means of overcoming obstacles to effective relocation.

FINDINGS

Project experience varied widely in the different settings in which they were conducted. Some found great interest in relocation, others found little. Some rather easily helped many unemployed workers move, while others could develop only a small proportion of the relocations for which they had been allotted funds.

A series of rather definite general findings has emerged, however, even though they cannot be presented firmly as reliable frequencies or magnitudes. Followup studies and detailed tabulations of extensive data gathered are still in process, but the preliminary major findings are summarized here.

Relocation assistance can increase unemployed workers' geographic mobility and thereby make possible moves that otherwise might not be made to jobs that otherwise might not be filled. This effect obviously varies by type of worker and area, but the projects report that:

1. Some persons who moved had not actively considered it until they were offered concrete help in getting a job elsewhere and moving there. Without financial and related assistance, they would not have moved, at least not in the near future.

2. Others, who had considered moving, might have relocated without aid, but their plans and timing were uncertain. The projects' offer of assistance helped them convert vague intentions into specific action.

Relocation assistance can reduce or prevent problems in moving, both by helping to channel mobility to specific jobs needing workers and by helping movers adjust more effectively to new surroundings. Three basic impressions flow from the early experience:

1. Many who were helped to move might indeed have migrated on their own, but without having obtained a job first, and often without knowing where (or even how) to seek jobs in other localities. The relocation assistance helped guide them to specific areas and jobs needing workers.

2. Problems other than job finding often confronted movers. These difficulties would have prevented many moves or, particularly for rural workers moving to cities, would have led to early discouragement and return "home" in the absence of financial and other relocation assistance.

3. Many movers who would have adjusted to new surroundings on their own did so more rapidly and smoothly (according to their comments) because of the assistance provided.

Willingness to move and relocation aid alone are often not enough: skills are usually needed too.

Unskilled workers were ordinarily difficult to place even though willing to move for a job.

At least one project was able to move appreciable numbers of unskilled rural workers. It focused on an area (North Carolina) with a number of labor-shortage communities in which expanding industries were seeking unskilled personnel. Although these jobs were at relatively low pay, often at or little more than the Federal minimum wage, they meant a marked step-up in income for these workers.

Generally, however, relocations were developed most readily for workers who have some work backgrounds or skills which, while not needed in their home community, are in short supply elsewhere.

Several projects linked relocation assistance and training programs, with good success in relocating graduates. There is strong indication that training will often be a desirable or necessary precondition for effective relocation.

Financial assistance is important, but (at least for those relocating in these projects) is often not the most important factor.

The financial aid offered by the projects was typically rather limited—a partial grant and/or loan for moving expenses and for a settling-in allowance varying by family size. The total grant and/or loan was under $200 in about half the relocations. The average was approximately $300, although there was wide variation by project, distance of move, family size, and amount of household goods.

Many of the relocatees would have been able (and willing) to make the move even without this financial aid. The key factor for many was not merely the financial aid but the firm offer of a job. For some the critical element was counseling on what was involved in going to a new area and other nonfinancial assistance to meet the problems of settling in the new area.

Financial aid sometimes appeared valuable as much for psychological as for financial needs. By helping to allay financial worries, it apparently helped crystallize and support some decisions to move.

Closely related to this is the fact that, even where there was not a compelling financial need, the relocation grant or loan was often valued as an aid in easing financial burdens, thereby putting the move on firmer footing.

One caution should be noted: these comments refer to those who did move. Not yet analyzed is the extent to which others were unwilling or unable to move because of financial obstacles greater than could be met by the limited aid offered by these initial projects.

It appears, however, that several types of financial problems often did hamper effective relocation. For example, the costs of traveling for an interview for a potential job offer were beyond the means of some of the unemployed or were an investment they were reluctant to make from limited resources. Several projects were authorized to finance interview travel and reported it to be helpful in making firm both an offer by the employer and a decision to accept it. Financial assistance for this purpose would appear to be a useful and relatively inexpensive tool for helping to develop geographic mobility.

For many who moved, a variety of unanticipated or underestimated expenses created unexpected financial problems, and in some cases led relocated workers to return "home." A customary major one is the "dual-residence expense" incurred by a relocated worker who cannot or does not want to move his family immediately. He has the expense of maintaining living quarters in both the former and the new community, the expense of weekend or other periodic commuting to spend time with the family, plus other lesser expenses often required by separation of the breadwinner and the rest of the family. It is not yet clear how often or in what types of situations this problem makes relocation unsuccessful.

Project reports show clearly that *willingness to move varies considerably by type of worker and area.* Data on this have not yet been analyzed to identify broad patterns, but several significant points have quickly become apparent:

1. Seasonal work opportunities influence attitudes on when a move would be considered seriously. Many chronically unemployed and underemployed workers in rural areas who expressed interest in relocating were unwilling to move during a season when temporary work was available locally or "until after the plantings are harvested."

2. When local area economic prospects are expected to improve or actually do improve, there is a rapid reduction in the proportion of unemployed workers willing to relocate.

3. Willingness to move is quite low among

workers who see no prospect for financial betterment from a move. This was most notable among workers with large families who receive subsistence income from welfare payments—and who can qualify only for low-wage jobs elsewhere, which would not materially improve their income position.

4. Word brought or sent back by the first movers is often a strong factor in influencing mobility attitudes of others, particularly in rural areas. Initial moves that worked out well quickly paved the way for further relocations by originally hesitant groups.

Willingness to move was also enhanced if the move was to a location where others from the same area had already moved. The early movers served as a magnet and orientation aid for the later arrivals. (By the same token, however, in several instances where a "leader" left a new job or area, others who followed him left quickly too.)

It is significant that in several projects, most notably in North Carolina, customary migration patterns were changed and the beginning of a new migration path established. Although the usual migration of North Carolinians in the counties focused on is to the north along the coast, the project led many to migrate instead to the west to jobs within the State's Piedmont region.

Substantial supporting services are often necessary, at least during the early weeks after a move by rural residents to urban employment. The adjustment problems are still being examined, but initial reports describe many difficulties in getting set in the new community, particularly for those from rural low-income backgrounds. Housing especially is a major one and the transportation-to-work problem is another. Inability to meet these needs satisfactorily rendered some relocations ineffective; without early prospect for resolving such difficulties, some relocatees did not stay in the new community long. These problems and some of the efforts by various projects to meet them are still being assessed. The efforts of some projects to provide temporary housing in receptive neighborhoods and to help rent or purchase suitable quarters were reported as major aids in persuading movers to stick to the new area.

Still, as anticipated, *some workers quickly leave the jobs to which they relocate.* The rate of return home in the first 2 months varied by project but was almost 50 percent in two projects; the overall return rate was about 20 percent (coincidentally, the same reported in European experience). The findings of analyses as to common reasons for such return and comparison as to how such unsuccessful relocation placements compare with unsuccessful local placements are not yet available.

Another type of change occurred more often than anticipated. Many relocatees, roughly an additional 20 percent, left or lost their initial job but did *not* return home. Instead, they went to other jobs, usually obtained on their own but sometimes with assistance, either in the new community or in still another community. In most such situations, the initial move seemed to open the worker's eyes to new possibilities of mobility and led him to use the first job as a springboard to a better one.

Closely related to this is the fact that some young workers from rural areas seem to have approached relocation with the attitude of "let's try it out because there's nothing to lose," and to have envisioned the move, not as a permanent step, but as a start on a new type of worklife.

Employers have generally been pleased with the relocation projects. Although no systematic inquiry has been made, their comments and willingness to hire additional relocatees indicate a recognition and acceptance of some turnover problems and difficulties in individual situations as inherent in the hiring process. The fact that these employers have been unable to fill their hiring needs locally contributes no doubt to the high degree of cooperation reported by the projects.

A potentially quite significant secondary effect is that some employers have become newly aware of the availability of unemployed workers in not-too-distant areas where they had not recruited desipte inability to fill their requirements from their own community.

The characteristics of the relocatees and the moves vary by project and the group it was directed to, but preliminary analysis does offer useful perspective on the total program. The following is a picture of the approximately 1,200 workers who were helped to relocate (the tally does not include many more who moved as a result of project activities but without financial assistance):

Age. Over 40 percent were under age 25. In three projects focusing on laid-off defense workers, however, the majority were 35 or over. Overall, 12 percent of the relocatees were 45 or older.

Dependents. Most relocatees had families, often large ones. Fewer than 30 percent had no dependents moving with them. Over half had two or more dependents. More than 25 percent of the moves were by families of five or more.

Sex. Over 90 percent of the relocatees were men, although most of the projects did help at least a few women workers relocate.

Distance of move. Most of the projects concentrated on short-distance moves, generally within the same State or to a neighboring State. In two projects most moves were interstate because of limited instate opportunities, and in two others that worked with displaced defense workers the moves were interstate because the skills of the workers were sought in national job markets. Overall, more than two-thirds of the moves were intrastate.

Wages. About a quarter of the moves were to jobs paying $2.50 or more an hour; about half of these, however, involved the displaced skilled defense workers. Some 45 percent of the new jobs paid from $1.50 to $2.50. Almost 30 percent paid less than $1.50; these were largely jobs at or a bit above the Federal minimum wage obtained for unskilled rural (largely farm) workers for whom this wage represented a sizable jump over any past earnings level.

NEW PROJECTS

The MDTA amendments of 1965 provided for further mobility demonstration activities (until mid-1967) which permit broader flexibility with respect to the financial assistance with which the Secretary of Labor may experiment. The original 50-percent restriction on grants was removed, and the Secretary was given greater discretion in determining the purposes for which financial aid might be provided to enable effective relocation.

New projects are now being undertaken (a) to broaden the range of geographic settings, the types of unemployed workers assisted, and the types of financial assistance and other relocation techniques tried by the initial projects; (b) to test out more definitively the major positive and negative findings of the first efforts; and (c) to determine whether problems which in some cases hampered or thwarted successful relocation might be met more effectively by revised sets of assistance measures.

More specifically, the second round of projects will seek to develop more information and insight by (a) working particularly with the rural unemployed; (b) further linking of training and relocation; (c) using new financial-assistance tools (such as financing of interview travel costs and loans for housing or other special expense); (d) providing more intensive and varied counseling and social services to aid both in preparation for moving and in settling into a new community; and (e) using different types of organizations with distinctive capabilities for assisting with specific mobility problems.

It is anticipated that about 20 to 25 such mobility pilot demonstration projects will be conducted during 1966.

Design of 16 Mobility Demonstration Projects Conducted in 1965

Sending State	Principal sending areas	Principal receiving areas	Organization conducting projects	Type of unemployed workers offered relocation assistance
Alabama.	All of State.	Industrial centers in southern part of State.	Tuskegee Institute.	Rural, virtually all Negro, some from experimental training programs, some recruited generally.
California.	San Diego.	Sacramento, San Jose, Van Nuys.	State Employment Security agency.	Sample of job applicants registered with Employment Service.
Illinois.	Ten counties in southern Illinois.	Chicago, Davenport, Rock Island, Moline, Peoria, Rockford.	State Employment Security agency.	Sample of job applicants registered with Employment Service.

Design of 16 Mobility Demonstration Projects Conducted in 1965—Continued

Sending State	Principal sending areas	Principal receiving areas	Organization conducting projects	Type of unemployed workers offered relocation assistance
Illinois.	Two depressed counties in southern Illincis.	Upstate Illinois, neighboring cities.	Southern Illinois University.	Enrollees in experimental and demonstration training projects.
Indiana.	St. Joseph County (South Bend).	Gary, Hammond, East Chicago, Indianapolis, Fort Wayne.	State Employment Security agency.	MDTA trainees.
Indiana.	South Bend.	Major cities in other States.	National Council on the Aging.	Workers over age 50 laid off in Studebaker shutdown.
Kentucky.	Floyd, Johnson, Magoffin, Martin Counties.	Louisville and Lexington.	State Employment Security agency.	Job applicant file of Prestonburg Employment Service office.
Michigan.	Upper peninsula of Michigan.	Southern Michigan and Wisconsin.	Northern Michigan University.	Rural, mostly young workers who were selected for training.
Minnesota.	Northeastern Minnesota.	Central and southeastern Minnesota.	State Employment Security agency.	Sample of job applicants registered with Employment Service.
Missouri.	Southeast Missouri.	Northern Missouri.	State Employment Security agency.	Rural farmworkers.
Montana.	Billings, Anaconda, Mills City.	Elsewhere in State and contiguous States.	State Employment Security agency.	Sample of job applicants registered with Employment Service.
New York.	Nassau-Suffoik	In State; neighboring States.	State Employment Security agency.	Workers laid off by Republic Aircraft or other defense employers.
North Carolina.	Northeastern and southern counties of high unemployment and underemployment.	Industrial areas of North Carolina and nearby States.	North Carolina Fund.	Rural, mostly Negro and Indian.
Utah.	Brigham City.	In State; neighboring States.	State Employment Security agency.	Workers laid off by Thiokol Chemical Corp.
Virginia.	Appalachian region of southwest Virginia.	Industrial areas of Virginia.	State Employment Security agency.	MDTA graduates or job applicants registered with Employment Service.
West Virginia.	Counties in southern coal field area of West Virginia.	Neighboring States.	State Employment Security agency.	Sample of job applicants registered with Employment Service.

part
III

EVALUATION OF THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAM

part
III
EVALUATION OF THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAM

Evaluation of the Manpower Development and Training Program

Regular evaluation of the Manpower program is essential in order to know how the various segments of the program are meeting goals set for them, to detect new and changing manpower problems which may require program adjustments, and to insure that both the policy and operation of the total program are responsive to the Nation's manpower needs.

Program evaluation was expanded during 1965 to include manpower programs other than those under the MDTA. Staff responsibilities in the component organizations of the Manpower Administration were drawn together into an interrelated system to obtain the information on which a continuing appraisal can be made. The emphasis for 1965 was placed on increasing the number and improving the quality of special evaluation studies and continuing operations reviews and on instituting a system of periodic followup.

Evaluation studies are broad studies usually national in scope to determine how a program or phase of a program is meeting its objectives, what the major strengths, weaknesses, and problems are, and what, if any, improvements are needed in policies, administration, or legislation. A variety of research techniques are used, but primary reliance is placed on structured and unstructured personal interviews. These studies are conducted primarily by the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

Operations reviews consist of regular inspections, administrative audits, review of operating activities, and special investigations to determine adherence to policies, to correct violations, or to improve operations. These are conducted by the bureaus responsible for program operation.

Followup involves periodic assessment of the extent to which recommendations resulting from evaluation studies are considered and implemented by the agencies involved, determination and assessment of reasons for rejection of recommendations, and determination of actions to be taken on pending recommendations which have been accepted.

1965 EVALUATION STUDIES

The year 1965 marked a gradual transition in evaluation emphasis. Most of the evaluation studies have in the past focused on aspects of the MDTA program. Evaluation studies of MDTA remained paramount during the year, but at the

same time major studies were planned and some started (to be completed in 1966) of the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the referral and placement programs of the U.S. Employment Service, and the Youth Opportunity Centers. The interrelationship of these programs with each other and with the MDTA program is a major point of concentration of these studies.

Five studies concerning the MDTA program were completed in 1965 and four more were in process. The major findings of the completed studies are summarized below.

MDTA TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS

This study was undertaken to obtain information on personal circumstances, earnings, and employment status of trainees before and after training; attitudes of trainees towards training; and the experiences and reactions of the trainees' employers. Nearly 1,000 trainees and 400 employers were interviewed in the course of the study.

Trainee Interviews

Interviews of MDTA trainees revealed that:

—Eighty-seven percent obtained some full-time employment after training; 73 percent were employed when interviewed, 7 out of 10 were in training-related jobs; trainees in the 22 to 44 age groups were most successful in both obtaining and retaining employment.

—About 70 percent said that training helped them to get their jobs.

—Median earnings were $74 per week or a gain of $5 over earnings in their last period of employment before training.

—Half of the trainees had received a wage increase or promotion and 1 out of 25 was made a supervisor since completing training.

—Nearly all OJT trainees (97 percent) had employment following training. As expected, most of the trainees went to work for establishments where they had received their training. This accounts for the fact that approximately 90 percent were employed at the time of the interview compared to 70 percent of the institutional trainees.

—Of the former welfare recipients, 55 percent had full-time jobs at the time of the interview. This represents a substantial gain in their employability.

—Job turnover of the MDTA trainees was at about the national norm, with greater job stability for those employed in training-related jobs.

—MDTA training stimulated the desire for additional training in a third of the trainees.

Employers' Reactions

Three hundred and sixty-six employers of trainees were interviewed, representing a cross section of industries and establishments. Their observations were consistent with the trainees' statements as to their relationship with training, their present jobs, trainees' earnings, wage increases, and promotions. The employers were asked a series of questions pertaining to the job performance and work attitudes of the trainees in the sample and the range of favorable responses to these questions were from 75 to 85 percent. The majority of MDTA trainees were found to be dependable and well motivated workers. Employers also expressed themselves as satisfied with the work performance of the former trainees. Thirty-six percent said that the MDTA trainees had helped to relieve skill shortages.

TRAINEE DROPOUTS

Since the beginning of the MDTA training program about 1 out of 3 of the trainees had failed to graduate with their classmates. What were the reasons why some trainees did not complete the course of instruction; what happens to them after they leave training; and what benefits, if any, were obtained from the training? The purpose of this study was to learn the answers to these questions. Personal interviews were held with 725 of those who failed to complete training and with a control group of 385 who had completed training.

The reasons given for failure to complete training did not indicate that the unemployed do not want jobs or are irresponsible. The majority of trainees left either to take a job (35 percent) or for

health, family, or financial reasons. In the prime working age groups, 22 to 44 years old, the prevalent reason for leaving was to take a job, while for those over 45 years, health and family considerations played the most important role. As expected, most of the leavers withdrew from training in the early stages.

Nearly half of the leavers (46 percent) found full-time employment within a month after dropping out as contrasted with the 60 percent of the completers who found a full-time job within 1 month of completing training. This favorable employment record of the leavers is not surprising when it is remembered that 35 percent of the leavers dropped out of training in order to take a job.

One out of three "dropouts" reported that their training, although terminated early, had contributed to their employability, and three-quarters of those in training-related jobs said that the training had helped them to get their jobs. The "dropouts" who obtained jobs were earning nearly as much as the completers at the time of the interview.

However, the unemployment rate at the time of the interview was about 2½ times higher among the "dropouts" as compared to the control group. This indicates that trainees who completed their courses can expect more stable employment.

The majority of "dropouts" (57 percent) reported that as a result of the training they could now perform a new skill or a new job. Seventy percent of the "dropouts" stated that the training had given them more confidence in their ability to learn a new job, and slightly more than half (52 percent) felt that training gave them more confidence in their ability to find a job.

MINORITY GROUP TRAINING

Both of the above studies probed carefully into the differences in results of training experienced by minority groups and the predominant white population. In the effectiveness evaluation there was a separate category for Spanish-speaking trainees. A substantial proportion of the Spanish-speaking trainees in the sample were Puerto Ricans enrolled in on-the-job training (OJT) courses in Puerto Rico. The only large statistical difference found for this group as compared with other groups was that their median weekly earnings were lower, reflecting largely the difference in wage structure between continental United States and Puerto Rico.

The posttraining experience of Negroes pointed to continuing job market difficulty for this minority group. Three key indicators of training effectiveness—employment rate, job retention rate, and median weekly earnings—were all lower for Negroes than for other groups. Negroes had more difficulty in getting jobs after training. They also lost them more quickly than whites and they earned less while working.

The percentage of Negroes who obtained some full-time employment between completion of training and the time of the interviews—conducted 3 to 15 months after training—was 82 percent as compared to 89 percent for other groups. The employment gap widened over time. At the time of the interview, only 61 percent of the Negroes had jobs while 77 percent of other trainees were employed.

Negroes in the sample group earned on the average $70 a week while the predominant white group had median weekly earnings of $81. The kind of jobs which Negroes held tells why they earned less than other trainees. One out of four of the Negro trainees worked in service occupations, which are traditionally lower paying than most other occupations. On the other hand, less than 7 percent of the non-Negro trainees were service workers.

Nevertheless, there was tangible evidence that training was of greater benefit to Negroes who retained their jobs than to those in the white group. As a result of training, Negro trainees increased their median weekly earnings from $57 in pretraining jobs to $70, as compared to a gain of $4 for other trainees.

The attitude of Negro trainees toward the training and toward their jobs, as expressed to the interviewers, was further evidence that training was beneficial. Proportionately half as many Negroes as whites left training because of dissatisfaction with the course. On the other hand, 37 percent of the Negro trainees, compared with 26 percent of the white trainees, indicated they quit because of financial reasons. A larger proportion of Negro trainees said they had gained confidence in their ability to learn and hold a new job as a result of training.

Regular program monitoring to learn whether Negroes are being given equal training opportunities is impeded by Federal regulations pro-

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IN THEIR OWN WORDS . . . .

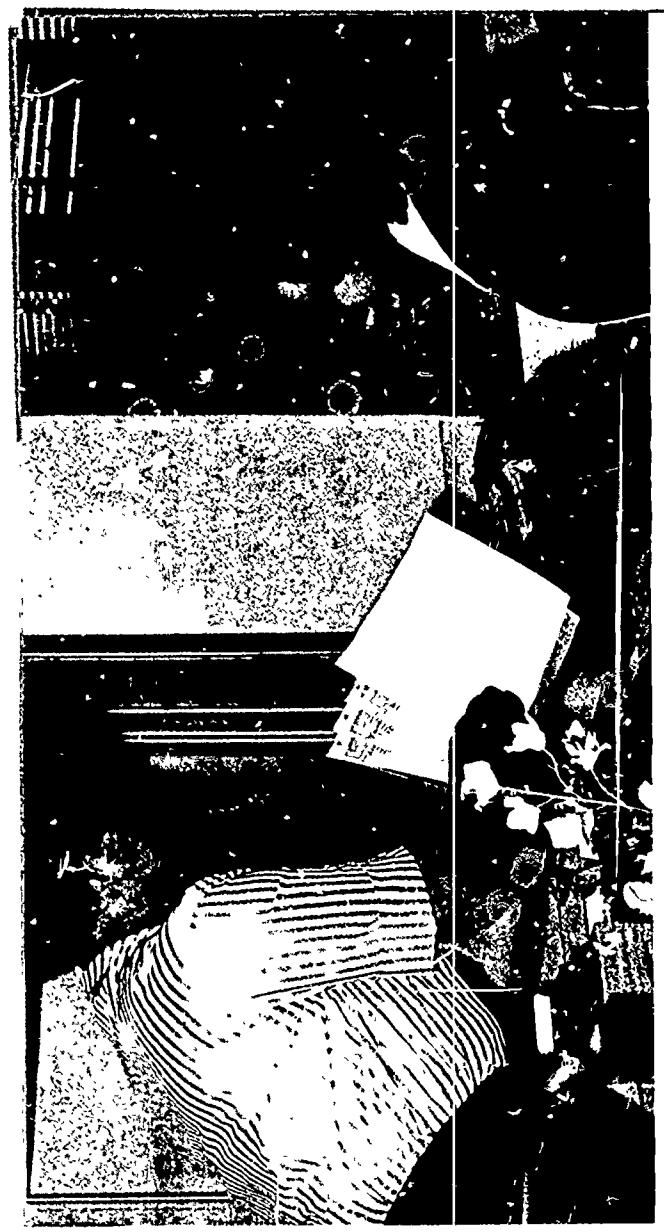
". . . After I got out of high school I found I couldn't land a job. I couldn't qualify. The neighbors were beginning to think I didn't want to work. I showed them. I enrolled in an on-the-job training program for painters. The boss hired me at $2.27 an hour after training and in a couple of years I'll be earning $4.80 an hour. . . ."

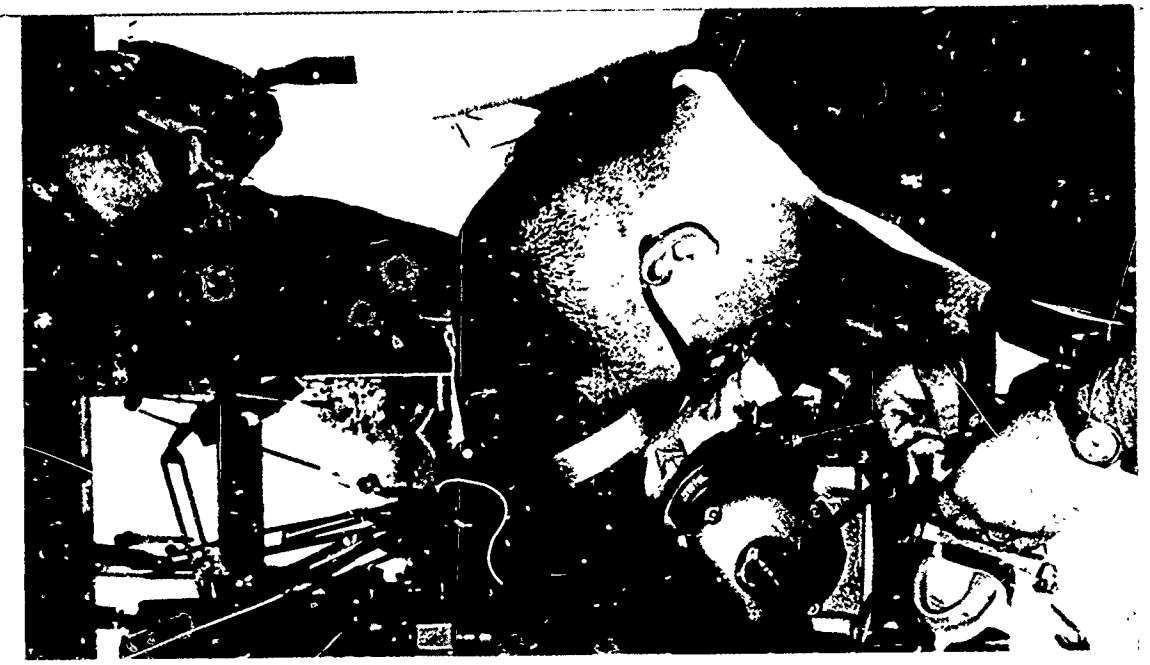
". . . Practical nurse training gave me a better chance at life. As a widow with three children in grammar school, I was forced to accept public assistance besides doing daywork just to make ends meet. But now with my salary as a full-time licensed practical nurse, I can hold my head up. I like the work, but more important—I'm self-supporting. . . ."

". . . Being thrown out of work because your employer closes shop is tough enough when you're young. But when you're over 50 it's murder. No employer would even consider hiring me at my age. Luckily, after being out of work for 5 months, I heard about on-the-job training for machine operators. I made the grade and am now making $84 a week plus overtime as a lathe operator. The boss has promised to promote me to a new type of operation on a layout drill. . . ."

". . . MDTA gave me a chance I thought I'd never get! I left high school early and could only get work doing odd jobs. I was discouraged. After taking a training course for duplicating machine operator, I got a steady job. Now I'm a printing room supervisor with two assistants and earn $2.75 an hour. . . ."

". . . I always wanted to work in a beauty shop, but as an Indian I thought I would have trouble getting what I wanted. But MDTA training gave me the chance to work in a small beauty shop. After the owner became sick, I took over the responsibility. I'm now taking in $90 weekly after expenses and business is growing. I plan to get a loan to purchase the shop. . . ."





hibiting State Employment Services from recording race data on application, referral, and placement records. Methods which would guard the individual against discriminatory action but provide information for program monitoring are under review.

NORFOLK PROJECT GRADUATES

The findings of the Norfolk evaluation study confirm that under the proper conditions Negroes are indeed assisted by job training. This project, conducted by the Norfolk Division of the Virginia State College, was one of the earliest efforts to r ·h, train, and place disadvantaged persons. The project trained approximately 100 Negroes for 5 skilled occupations and included remedial education designed to help graduates get and hold jobs.

A study was made of the employment experience of the trainees 1 year after completion of training because of the widespread interest in the program. The program succeeded in breaking the cycle of low-skill, low-paying jobs for many graduates and helped them obtain and hold permanent well-paid jobs. Employment experience was better than that reported for regular MDTA programs as a whole. During the year following completion of training, 99 percent had had a job, and at the time of the interview 89 percent were still employed. In general, trainees were earning higher wages than before training. At the end of the first year after training, some of the graduates became unemployed and fewer were working in training-related jobs. Several of the graduates, however, left training-related jobs for other higher paying jobs and were as well or better off than many who remained in training-related jobs.

Major gaps in the program were the need for posttraining counseling and other services to assist further with job adjustment and the need for a more careful appraisal of entry wages in occupations for which training was planned.

The overriding conclusion of this project is that disadvantaged persons, when provided with adequate and intensive services, can be helped through skill upgrading so that they can break out of the poverty cycle.

COST REDUCTION

The major objectives of the study were to identify the major cost factors in both institutional and OJT training and to recommend action to reduce the average trainee cost while maintaining or improving the quality of the program. Two task forces, including representatives of the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare, made recommendations, a number of which are now in effect.

Recommendations made for the institutional program included:

Revised standards for transportation and other benefits; appropriate teacher-trainee and supervisor-teacher ratios; ratios for training equipment cost to total training cost; standards for use, rental, and purchase of equipment; proper duration of courses; training in private centers; and establishment of area or regional training centers.

Recommendations for the OJT program included:

Training increased numbers of the disadvantaged; stepped up development of national and community contracts; limitations on duration of contracts; more adequate data and controls of costs, and experimentation with new types of short-term contracts.

REDUCTION IN TIME LAGS

There have been delays between the initiation of a project and the start of actual training because several Federal and State agencies are involved in the MDTA training program, and because a variety of funding controls are required. The purpose of this study was to determine if delays were excessive at any stage of the project, and, if so, what remedies could be proposed.

Although many of the time delays were because of State and local conditions that could not be controlled, the study pinpointed areas where the delays appeared to be excessive and could be reduced. Recommendations were made to set maximum time limits at various procedural steps, to simplify methods for determining training need, and to improve coordination between the various State and Federal agencies. Some of these procedural problems are byproducts of the more substantive questions which were considered in other

evaluation studies. The solution of these questions should result in reduction of excessive procedural time lags.

OPERATIONS REVIEWS

Operations reviews of training projects are conducted by the bureaus responsible for field operations, although in some cases the Manpower Administrator's office or the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare may participate. Institutional projects are evaluated by the Bureau of Employment Security (BES) and on-the-job training projects, by the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT).

Review of Institutional Operations

Review of program operations of institutional projects, carried out through the State Employment Service agencies, is a vital part of the manpower evaluation system. Experience gained in the 1964 operations reviews showed that staff training and new techniques would be needed to respond effectively to the revised and expanded evaluation system established in 1965 by the Manpower Administrator for all manpower activities.

Accordingly, during the first half of 1965 new standards and guidelines were developed which could be used by Federal and State staffs at all review levels. A method of followup was developed to enable operating officials to translate evaluation findings into program improvement. In addition, a staff training program was developed to instruct Federal and State personnel in the new review and followup procedures.

Each State review of MDTA training operations covers the major components of the State agency's functions in implementing the MDTA program. The review includes: The agency's method for determination of training needs; development of training projects; counseling, testing, and other selection procedures; services to trainees while in training; job development activities; Manpower Advisory and Coordinating Committees' relationships with other agencies and with community groups; and adherence to manpower procedures and policies. A comprehensive report of the State's training accomplishments, with recommendations for any corrective action needed by the State agency, is prepared.

All reports of reviews of State program operations are submitted to the Manpower Administrator's evaluation staff, for their continuing appraisal of overall evaluation and identification of the problem areas which should be considered in planning future evaluation studies.

During the latter part of 1965, reviews of program operations in 12 States were conducted by national and regional staff of the Bureau of Employment Security. These evaluations formed the basis for corrective action for program operations within the States visited, and were also useful in detecting problems and trends which might have implications for the nationwide program.

While most aspects of the program advanced, the 1965 reviews pointed up a number of areas in which program operations can be strengthened during the coming year.

Recruiting trainees, finding jobs for them, and followup work on MDTA graduates has added an especially difficult task to Employment Service facilities throughout the Nation, particularly in urban centers with concentrations of disadvantaged persons. Generally, local office personnel of the State agencies were aware of the importance of reaching the disadvantaged and were familiar with the resources available for meeting the special needs of the disadvantaged in their communities; some were not making maximum use of these resources. From the 1965 reviews it was evident that special job development efforts for youth, minority groups, and other disadvantaged trainees need to be redoubled.

The difficulties of finding jobs for disadvantaged persons have been partially offset by increased knowledge about MDTA training brought about by more frequent contacts between Employment Service personnel and community leaders, including political, business, union, and minority group representatives.

Additional efforts need to be made to utilize State and local Manpower Advisory Committees for development of training and job opportunities. There are now 47 State committees, 9 of which were appointed last year, and 1,077 local committees, of which 112 were appointed last year. State agencies and their local offices need to encourage more active participation by these committees in manpower training activities. Similarly, there is a need for more coordination with advisory com-

mittees concerned with related programs affecting manpower, and with personnel of other agencies in such programs

One of the most favorable byproducts of the MDTA program has been the increasingly close rapport between Employment Service personnel and staff members from other Federal and State agencies. Nevertheless, adequate planning will be necessary with State vocational education agencies and other State and Federal agencies to effect maximum use of financial and other resources, such as training facilities, equipment, and instructors. Comprehensive planning to identify and assess resources, the manpower needs, and the needs of the potential trainees—particularly those of the disadvantaged—would assist in setting more realistic priorities.

Training Allowance Review

Reviews of operations in the payment of weekly training allowances to persons undergoing manpower training were conducted to promote effective administration and to determine whether payments were made in accordance with the statutory provisions.

Review teams, using formal outlines for guidance, reviewed all operations of the training allowance payment program in 32 States during 1965. The teams found that State agencies generally were discharging their responsibilities for making such payments in a satisfactory manner. Improvements have been effected, however, to insure prompt payment of allowances and maintenance of proper records of payment authorizations. Economies in operations also were achieved through the elimination of unnecessary functions and duplication of effort.

OJT Operations Review

During 1965, the operations of 19 OJT projects covering 4,500 trainees were reviewed. Although a cross section of projects was included, emphasis was placed on national contracts, such as those with trade associations and civic groups, where subcontracts are made with individual employers. Some of the projects reviewed had been completed, some were more than half completed, and others had been in operation 4 weeks or less. Reviews were conducted by a representative of the national office of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, accompanied by the Bureau's regional representative who supervised the program.

In general, the evaluation indicated that the quality of the training was satisfactory. The majority of trainees were selected from the unemployed; where the underemployed were being trained their skills were being upgraded, thereby opening up jobs at the entry level. Ninety percent of the trainees interviewed reported that training was beneficial, particularly when supplemental classroom instruction was given. Training course outlines had improved over the previous year, although in some of the smaller projects further improvement, both in training materials and in the quality of instruction was needed. Conclusive data on trainee progress were not available because most of the projects reviewed had not been completed. Available data showed a low dropout rate among the trainees. Also, the employers retained a high percentage of the trainees at wages specified in the OJT contract, a clear indication that the employer was satisfied with the training.

Employers who had never before instituted formalized training programs were particularly enthusiastic about OJT training. Three such companies, all of whom had operated over 50 years without formal training systems, subsequently requested MDTA training in other occupations as a result of OJT training.

Some projects included pre-apprenticeship training, a particularly useful device when trainees need preliminary training to qualify them for regular apprenticeship programs. The bricklayers' program in Washington, D.C., for example, prepared and placed members of minority groups in apprenticeship-entry programs at a starting wage of $100 per week.

The cost of OJT training surveyed ranged from $1,000 per trainee in tool and die projects to $110 per trainee in certain hospital occupations. A high correlation was found between training costs and wages: Projects with low training costs provide training in occupations with lower wage rates; whereas trainees from projects with higher training costs receive higher wage rates after training and frequently obtain wage increases.

OJT projects generally cost less than institutional projects, even for the same occupation, be-

cause the employer usually pays trainee wages during at least part of the training period, obviating the need for training allowances. Wages paid to trainees by the employer during OJT training averaged about three times the total training costs to the Government.

National contracts for developmental work have made it possible to extend OJT substantially and in all such projects surveyed the quality of the training was good. Employers under subcontract with a national contractor were receptive to such operations, although in some of the community-sponsored programs there were reports of delays, some difficulties with followup and other services, and some complaints about the quality of the trainees. These programs concentrated primarily on the hard-core unemployed minorities, particularly youth; to be successful, more followup will be required, both with the employers and with the trainees. The promotion and development of this kind of training was difficult and time consuming. In some cases where the OJT program was developed in conjunction with a Community Action Program, some of the additional development costs of the OJT program are paid by the Office of Economic Opportunity, with the training costs paid under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Minorities were well represented in all except one of the projects visited. Most employers kept data on race and the records of one large contractor showed that the completion rate of Negroes and whites was about equal and the rate of retention after training was better for Negroes than for whites.

Where indicated, corrective action was taken as a result of the project evaluation. Several important revisions of national contracts were made, in some instances to insure better utilization of Government funds, and in others, to rectify situations which were affecting the quality of the training or delaying the start or completion of the project. In one case where upgrading training was being given, a procedure was instituted to insure the entry of more unskilled workers at lower levels. Action also was taken to remedy interbureau and interangency procedural problems that were causing delays in contract approval.

Further consideration is being given to methods for securing closer working relationships between BAT field staff, the State agencies, and the prime contractors. The feasibility of establishing training for OJT instructors to improve the quality of teaching is being explored with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Evaluation is largely a wasted effort unless there is effective followthrough on the findings and recommendations made for improvement of the program. To insure this, a precise and highly systematized procedure of followup was instituted as a basic element of the evaluation process.

A report of each evaluation study, with findings and recommendations, is submitted to the Manpower Administrator together with comments from the pertinent bureaus regarding the findings and the feasibility and soundness of the recommendations. Information and recommendations for future action are then immediately sent to the responsible operating officials. The extent to which action has been taken by operating officials to implement the recommendations is ascertained by subsequent reviews and evaluations.

A quarterly report is made to the Manpower Administrator summarizing action taken on all principal findings and recommendations resulting from evaluation studies. In addition, periodic reports are made on the effective functioning of the evaluation system itself.

The first quarterly report submitted in December 1965 covered all major recommendations growing out of evaluation studies. In most cases, action has been taken to carry out the recommendation; in the remainder, where some action was still pending, a detailed status report was furnished. The recommendations in the latter group were not susceptible to a simple or speedy solution.

CURRENT PROGRAM EVALUATION

Major emphasis in 1966 will be placed on expanding and coordinating the various evaluation activities of the Manpower Administration, including nationwide evaluation studies and operations reviews of the various State and local programs. Methods developed in 1965 for strengthening and expanding the evaluation system, described earlier in this chapter, will be

refined and improved. Much of the program will consist of a continuing evaluation of MDTA training programs.

During the current year, three evaluation studies that were started in 1965 will be completed. Plans also have been made for extensive studies of multioccupational projects, special youth projects, training in redevelopment areas, mobility demonstration projects, and on-the-job training. These studies are expected to follow the outlines summarized below.

COMPLETION OF 1965 STUDIES

Comparison of Trainees and Non-Trainees

This study was begun in July 1965 in response to the March 12, 1965, report of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare concerning the 1965 amendments to the MDTA. The committee requested information comparing the employment status of trainees a year after completing training with the status of individuals who enrolled but failed to complete the course, and with others who were unemployed during this same time period but not referred to an MDTA program. The study is being made with the cooperation of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

A private research contractor is interviewing a sample of 1,250 former MDTA trainees, including persons who completed MDTA courses in July, August, and September 1965, and persons who failed to complete their courses. Concurrently, 1,250 persons who are in the same locations, have similar characteristics and were unemployed at about the same time but did not enroll in training will be interviewed. In addition, a sample of 1,000 employers of these groups will be surveyed by mail questionnaires about their experience with and attitudes toward the former MDTA trainees. Field visits also are being made by national office teams to selected communities to interview Employment Service officials, vocational educators, and community leaders about the progress of the program.

The evaluation is focusing on the economic and occupational status of the sample individuals prior to the date training started, at the time training started, and at the time of the interview, in order to assess the measurable effect of MDTA training on the people who took the complete course or a partial course. It is expected that the final report will be available in the latter part of 1966.

Review of MDTA Amendments

The study will review results of the application of the 1963 and 1965 MDTA amendments, will assess the difficulties encountered, and will recommend changes in the amendments if warranted. Emphasis is being given to those pertaining to: (1) Basic education; (2) extension and expansion of training allowances; and (3) use of the individual referral method through both private and public facilities. Preliminary findings will be available in mid-1966. This study is being conducted jointly by the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare.

E & D Projects

This is to be a comprehensive study of the overall direction and effectiveness of the experimental and demonstration program under MDTA, with resulting recommendations for improvement of the program. The evaluation will be carried out during the first half of 1966 by a private research organization, under contract with the Department of Labor, working in cooperation with the Manpower Administration staff. Plans for the study were begun during the latter part of 1965.

STUDIES TO BE INITIATED IN 1966

Multioccupational Projects

The multioccupational approach in MDTA training is now a well-established part of the MDTA program. Primarily aimed at the hard-core unemployed, multioccupational programs generally include basic education, work tryouts and other special techniques to a greater extent than do other programs. There is a wide range of project costs because of the variation in the kinds and numbers of occupations covered, the

size of geographical areas served, and the number of trainees accommodated.

A national evaluation of multioccupational projects is planned, including visits to a nationwide sample of projects and interviews with officials, instructors, trainees, advisory committee members, community leaders, employers, labor officials, and others connected with the program. This evaluation represents a second phase of a comprehensive study of multioccupational projects that was initiated when the multioccupational program was in the early stages of operation. This phase will be concerned primarily with projects that have been in operation for some time. Together, two evaluations will constitute a comprehensive study of the multioccupational program from its beginning.

Special Youth Projects

Special youth projects were established primarily to deal with the special training problems of disadvantaged youths. A nationwide evaluation of these projects in 1966 is regarded as essential in view of the critical need to increase effectiveness in reaching and training youth for employment. The study will be aimed at determining the progress and results of these projects, the kinds of obstacles encountered, and any changes required to improve the program. The procedures to be followed will be similar to those used in the study of multioccupational projects, including interviews with youth enrolled in the projects and officials and other key people involved.

Training in Redevelopment Areas

A supplementary training program for redevelopment areas was formerly administered by the Department of Labor under the Area Redevelopment Act. Under the 1965 amendments that training program was incorporated in the MDTA. Major objectives of the evaluation will be to determine to what extent the program has alleviated unemployment and underemployment in redevelopment areas, and to determine the relative effectiveness of the program before and after its inclusion in MDTA. In addition to analysis of existing statistical records, visits by national office evaluation staff will be made to selected redevelopment areas to secure data and opinions regarding the strengths and shortcomings of the program upon its inclusion in MDTA.

Mobility Demonstration Projects

Under the 1965 MDTA amendments, authority to conduct mobility demonstration projects was extended by relaxing limitations on the use of funds for these projects and by adding other liberalizing features. Some mobility projects are conducted through the Federal-State employment service systems; others by organizations under contract with the Department of Labor. A nationwide evaluation will be made of the progress and results of these projects, of the kinds of lessons learned from them, and of ways to make projects more effective. The study will entail field visits to out-migrant and in-migrant areas and extensive interviews with representatives of the various organizations participating in the programs.

On-the-Job Training

Evaluations of three new aspects of on-the-job training will be made in 1966 by the Manpower Administrator's evaluation staff, with participation of the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.

The first study will center on OJT developmental contracts with national organizations. Cost factors, efficiency, and training will be studied. A sample of participating employers and former trainees and other individuals in the program will be interviewed.

A second study will be made of the nine BAT contracts with State Apprenticeship Councils (SAC) for the promotion of on-the-job training with individual employers. The study will examine OJT programs within the State before and after the SAC received the contract. Also studied will be the method of coordination of the State Council with the Federal BAT representative in the State and the method of geographical and occupational promotional distribution.

The third study will cover community programs. These programs consist of contracts with cities or special community organizations established for

the promotion of on-the-job training, and Community Action Programs funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity and allocated contracts by the Department for the promotion of on-the-job training. The study will assess the effectiveness, progress, and problems of training under subcontract.

There is a considerable interest in upgrading employed workers to prevent layoffs and to enable them to better utilize their capabilities and potentials. All OJT evaluations will examine the extent to which upgrading training is taking place, the effects of this training, and the job vacancies created by upgrading.

Cost Benefit Analysis

Connected with the evaluation program, but not an integral part of it, is a new program of continuous cost analysis of manpower programs, which will be conducted by a special unit to be established early in 1966. The unit will establish and apply procedures for the determination of the ratio of MDTA training cost to the benefits which society and the economy receive from that training. The relative cost benefit advantages of institutional versus on-the-job training for different occupations will also be determined.

Operations Reviews

It is anticipated that BES review of the operations of institutional training programs will be conducted in every State during calendar year 1966. During this year, evaluation emphasis will shift from overall analyses of the State programs to detailed studies of operational problems within the different kinds of projects, such as those in multioccupational projects, and less than class group referrals.

Review of training allowance payment operation will be conducted in approximately half of the States during the year. Current plans require full review of training allowance payment operations at least biennially.

In addition to special evaluation studies of aspects of the OJT program referred to previously, operations will be evaluated by BAT at the regional level for at least 1 State within each of the 11 regions, and by a representative of the national office of at least 3 projects in each of the regions.

BAT regional offices in their program review will emphasize individual prime contracts. National office staff will concentrate on operational aspects of national contracts, State Apprenticeship Council contracts, selected individual contracts than cover more than 500 trainees, and community sponsored programs.

part
IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

part IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Manpower Research Programs

The research program of the Department is committed to three major objectives: (1) Improvement of the Department's operational programs, (2) search for new perspectives and approaches to manpower problems, and (3) early warning on emerging problems.

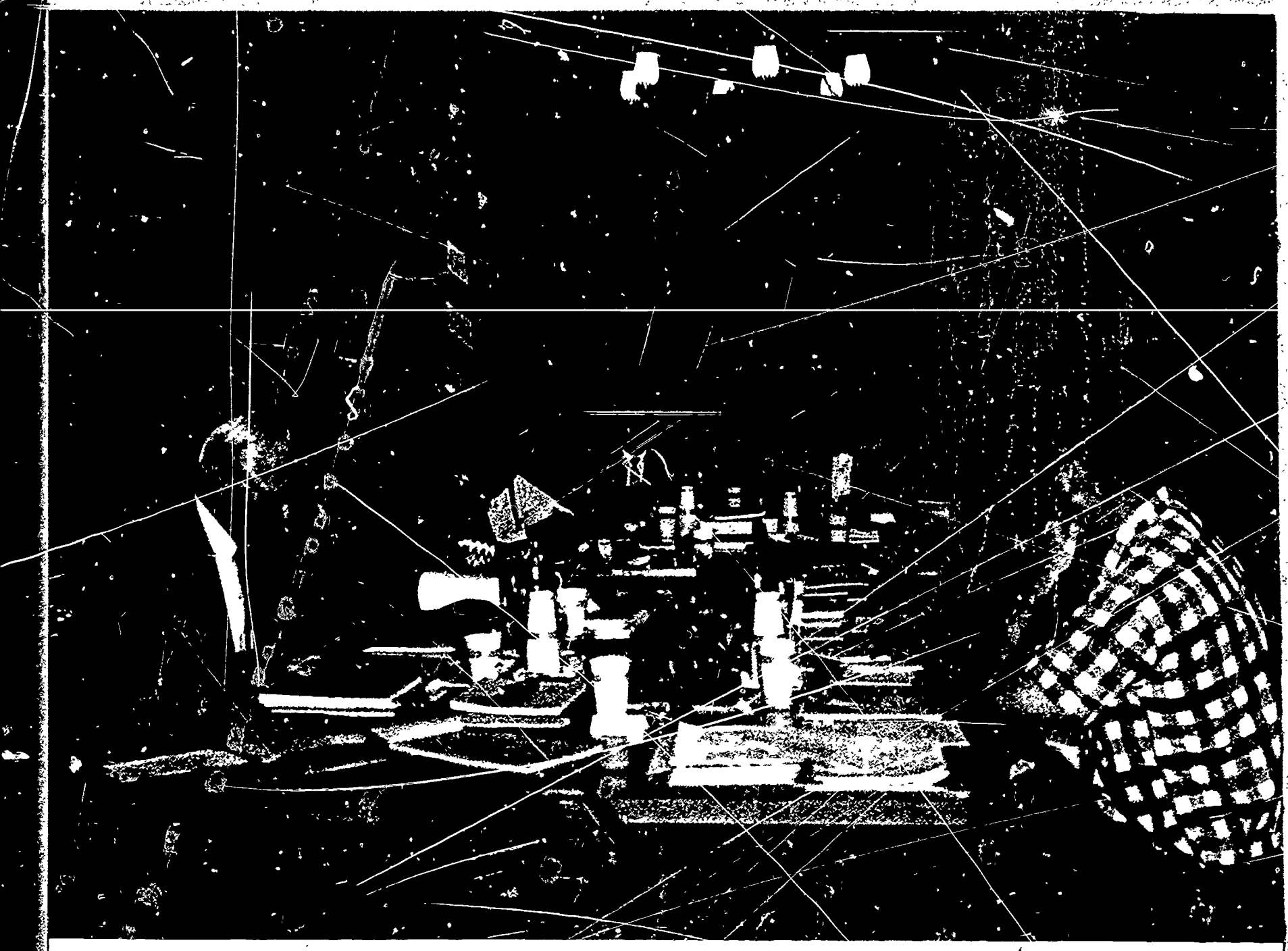
In keeping with these responsibilities, the Department's expanding programs of research and experimentation have been joined in a comprehensive, action-oriented approach to major manpower issues. The 1965 amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act increased the funding for basic research on manpower problems and brought together under title I all research-related programs—experimental, demonstration, and pilot projects. The amendments also added the authority to award grants to the Department's existing external research program.

In this part of the report, the findings from research studies and related experimental and demonstration projects are summarized. The studies discussed here focus on four major areas of manpower concern: Motivation for work, the search for work, matching workers and jobs, and manpower implications of a changing economy. These are selected studies, which are representative of the major activities in research, experimentation, and demonstration.[1]

CONTRACT RESEARCH

The Department's external research program is directed mainly at improving operating manpower programs and providing information that can be used in developing new policies and actions designed to strengthen the attack on fundamental manpower problems. A growing volume of final reports, resulting from studies contracted during the first 3 full years of the contract research program, is bringing new information and perspectives to the Department's action programs and policies. Among the major contracts completed during 1965 were two reports on important developments in the manpower field: *Retraining and Labor Market Adjustment in Western Europe* and *The Pluralistic Economy*. (Both were published in book form.) In 1965 the Department awarded 30 new contracts to universities, individuals, and

[1] Part II of the report discusses the activities of the experimental and demonstration program.



A meeting of the Subcommittee on Research of the National Manpower Advisory Committee, September 1965

private research organizations; 10 research projects contracted in previous years were continued. These research projects are being conducted in 13 States.

Published reports on contractual research projects have been distributed widely to individuals and organizations in the United States and in several foreign countries. A descriptive list of research projects, *Manpower and Automation Research Sponsored by the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training Through June 30, 1965*,[2] was issued during the year. This issue, third in the series, includes a description of all new and continuing research contracts and grants made by the Department from the enactment of the MDTA in 1962 to the end of June 1965.

NEW RESEARCH GRANT PROGRAMS

The new grant authority under the 1965 amendments to the MDTA offers the individual research scholar and the university a broad flexibility in conceiving and conducting manpower research. It also provides graduate students an opportunity for research experience on manpower problems and will help to increase the supply of manpower specialists. Three new manpower research programs have been initiated under this new authority: (1) Grants to established scholars in the social and behavioral sciences for the development of new and imaginative research designs and ideas, (2) grants

[2] The name of the organizational unit known as the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training has been changed to the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

to support doctoral candidates writing their dissertations in the manpower field, and (3) institutional grants designed to encourage colleges and universities to develop continuing research programs and research training activities centered on major manpower problems.

The first two of these programs are limited to not more than $10,000 per grant; and because of limited funds, the maximum institutional grant awarded in the first year will be $75,000. No more than six or eight institutional grants will be made during the fiscal year ending in June 1966.

The objectives of the Manpower Research Institutional Grant Program are:

1. To support systematic, long-term programs of manpower research.

2. To stimulate greater interest in the manpower field by established scholars, and to develop additional research talent interested in the manpower area.

3. To encourage greater cooperative effort among the various behavioral scientists in conducting human resources research.

4. To stimulate the development and exploration of new ideas for solving manpower problems.

5. To undertake continuing programs for the dissemination of manpower research results which may have application to operating programs and contribute to the clarification of manpower issues.

6. To develop resources and capabilities for providing technical support to local and regional organizations concerned with manpower problems.

7. To assist the Department of Labor in making policy and operational decisions based on the information and insight gained through research.

Institutional grants will be used initially to support the development of new capabilities for manpower research in smaller colleges and universities. As more funds become available, larger schools will be brought into the program.

Although these new grant programs were not established until late in the year, the initial response from the academic community has been encouraging. Colleges and universities in all sections of the country have expressed interest in the grant programs and many have indicated their intention to submit proposals for institutional grants for consideration during the first year of the new program.

ORGANIZATION OF RESEARCH

The Department's external research program undergoes continuing review and evaluation. Advice and critical appraisal are sought from research specialists in other Federal agencies, and from manpower experts in universities, industries, unions, and other areas outside the Federal Government. This review is particularly valuable in helping the Department to shift research emphasis and reorient its research programs to meet the manpower problems arising from a rapidly changing economy and society.

The Subcommittee on Research of the National Manpower Advisory Committee continued its key role in bringing fresh ideas and perspective to the Department's external research program. The September 1965 meeting of the Subcommittee marked a high point of the year for the Department's research activities. During this 4-day meeting, the Subcommittee reviewed several staff papers on major aspects of the research and experimental and demonstration programs as they have developed under the MDTA. The papers presented intensive, critical reviews of the staff's experience in planning, developing, and putting into operation the Department's contractual research program in the field of manpower. Among the subjects covered were an overall appraisal of the research program of the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, a review of the first 2 years of contract research on the manpower implications of technological change, a discussion of training research under title I of the MDTA, and a summary of research on the problems of special groups in the population. On the basis of its extensive and thorough review, the Subcommittee recommended changes in the organization of the external research program and in research emphasis. The Subcommittee also recommended that more "people-oriented" research should be undertaken and that vocational guidance, selection, interviewing, testing, and counseling should receive greater attention under the Department's contract and grant research program.

The chapters that follow illustrate some of the Department's major research emphases. They highlight those research efforts which mark the beginning of new research approaches and help to identify some urgent manpower problems. Some of these studies have already made sig-

nificant contributions to the Department's policies and action programs. Several chapters are devoted to manpower problems characteristic of the current period of economic growth and social change.

Studies in the chapter on Man's Motives for Work are directed at a continuing need to improve the matching of workers with changing job requirements. This matching process is far more complex than the mere assembling of facts about workers and jobs. Subtler elements often intervene. Motivations about work, for example, can be powerful influences upon how some persons fare in finding and keeping jobs and they may compound the handicaps borne by those who are disadvantaged because of lack of education, impoverished homes, or racial discrimination.

The many approaches that individuals use in searching for a job in a complex industrial society and the reasons for their success or failure in finding a suitable job have only recently been given systematic attention. The chapter on The Search for Work, which discusses a study of jobseeking behavior conducted by the Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, makes a good case for additional educational efforts to improve the limited techniques by which many workers search for jobs.

The Department has an established program to seek better ways to test the skills and aptitudes of job applicants and to develop better tools for counselors and vocational advisors. Current efforts to develop better means of testing the aptitudes of persons with poor reading ability and other educational and cultural disadvantages are described in the chapter on Matching Workers and Jobs. This chapter also discusses the improvements and innovations in the recently published revision of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and its use as an aid in placing qualified workers in suitable jobs. Having adequate information about vacant jobs is essential to the effective placement of workers. The chapter also describes studies leading to better job vacancy information.

The chapter on Training in Correctional Institutions describes some of the Department's new efforts to assist young men in correctional institutions to prepare for jobs. The studies discussed show that such restorative efforts can be remarkably successful when job training is supplemented with intensive followup services to young parolees and their families during the initial period following their release.

The nature of structural changes in the national economy—economic, social, or technological—has an important bearing on manpower problems. These are discussed in the chapter entitled The Changing Economy: Manpower Implications, which points to the manpower implications of rapid growth in the not-for-profit sectors of our economy. Companion studies examine two instances of major technological innovations and their manpower impacts: The growth of computer usage in the insurance industry, and numerical control techniques in the machine tool industry. This chapter also describes an experimental effort to provide early warnings of future shifts in manpower needs likely to result from technological change.

A broader view of future trends is presented in the chapter on Estimates of Future Manpower Requirements, which includes a discussion of industrial and occupational manpower requirements compiled for the National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress and an examination of the probable manpower effects of technological change in major industries over the next decade.

The chapter on International Manpower Research presents three studies that examine manpower programs and experiences of Western European countries and look at the parallels and the lessons that can be profitably applied to U.S. manpower problems. Particular attention is given to European experiences with the development of manpower policies and programs, the retraining of workers, and the changes in apprenticeship programs.

The final chapter in part IV describes some recent actions stemming from the Department's research activities which illustrate their relevance to operating programs and their application in the development of national policies responsive to current and future manpower needs.

part
IV
MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Man's Motives for Work

Man's attitudes and motives toward work are complex. It is clear that they involve factors other than money, but we are largely ignorant of what other elements are involved and how important they are. The Department of Labor has developed a series of interrelated studies to explore these more complex factors.

The general emphasis in these studies is upon the familial and the small group determinants of work attitudes and motives. The family is an important point of departure in these investigations, because the family serves not only to nurture and protect the child, but also to interpret to the child the values and goals of the larger society of which he is a part. And these attitudes and motives, once acquired, are difficult to change. This is partly because they are a dynamic part of the individual's psychology for many years afterward; once acquired these attitudes and motives "lead" into other small group associations which tend to be self-confirming. This is the psychological explanation for the old adage that "birds of a feather flock together." A child who has learned inappropriate attitudes and motives, later in life seeks the company of adolescent peers whose "growing up" has been similarly impaired. The other important emphasis, therefore, in the social psychological research program, is upon the "social meaning" of work attitudes and motives.

ATTITUDES AND MOTIVES OF MDTA TRAINEES

The Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan was asked to conduct two studies of the attitudes and motives of MDTA trainees, under the joint sponsorship of the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare. The two studies differed in some respects but were similar in design, and were concerned with the same attitudinal and motivational issues. By means of questionnaires given to a sample of MDTA trainees and intensive interviews with a subsample, both projects planned to look at the trainees when they entered the program, when they graduated from it, and 6 to 12 months afterwards. Evaluations of trainees and training programs were to be obtained from the supervisors of the trainees' first jobs.

In one of the projects studied, the JOBS Project (Job Opportunities Through Better Skills), in

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Chicago, Ill., a sample of approximately 200 mothers of the trainees were interviewed in an attempt to ferret out some of the familial factors. The JOBS Project had a staff of about 150 counselors, teachers, shop instructors, and employment specialists, and was concerned with certain motivational issues of the "hard-to-reach" youth, as well as with vocational training and basic education. The data from this project have been gathered, although only preliminary analyses can be reported here.[1]

In the second study, using a national sample of 6,000 trainees, certain questions of motivation and attitude will receive a more extensive analysis. From most of the completed MDTA classes, questionnaires or interviews have already been obtained. In January 1966, the final phase of this research was started. This phase covers the post-training history of those who have completed the MDTA courses and the dropouts. It also includes interviews with their job supervisors.[2]

The analysis of the data so far from both studies shows the complexity of the motivational issues involved in the study of manpower trainees. Many complicated processes underlie words like "alienated," "unmotivated," and "demoralized." In attempting to untangle these problems, it is helpful to distinguish between two different levels of motivation. The more basic level reflects personality characteristics which are more likely to be residues of the trainees' disadvantaged past. The second level represents the trainees' reactions to their present social realities. It may be important to emphasize this second level, since it is often forgotten in our current concern with "cultural deprivation" and "inadequate socialization." The Michigan research was concerned with both levels of the problem.

At this time we can report only preliminary findings, but some important clues to MDTA dropouts are already emerging. In the JOBS Project, for example, one of the most important factors was the extent to which trainees saw the project as improving their chances for job success. Although this project had three facets—basic education, intensive counseling, and job training—it was learning a skill and getting a job that 9 out of 10 trainees emphasized when they were asked what they hoped to get out of the project. When asked whether any parts of the project were "a waste of time," those who did complain mentioned either the basic education or group counseling sessions. The trainees expressed more positive reactions to the "practical" sessions, where they learned how to fill out job applications and where they role-played being interviewed for a job. Similarly, in their overall evaluation of the project, the trainees' criticism was most often aimed at the failure of the project to fulfill their hopes in the job area.

Some data already available from the national study of the regular MDTA classes support this finding. In a preliminary analysis of the responses to the pretraining questionnaire, it was found that the trainees who dropped out of the program to take jobs were very similar to the group of trainees who completed the program except that the former group felt under greater economic pressure at the time they entered the program. They were less certain that the training allowances would be adequate, they felt that they would have to work to supplement payments, they were more often married with children, and they more often had very young children. They also had less savings and more debts. Their greater economic concern, therefore, was a realistic reflection of their more precarious economic situation.

FAMILY STRUCTURE

When the analysis turns from secondary motivations to the more basic personality characteristics of the trainees, one finds that there is considerable evidence that even with good job opportunities and few economic pressures, motivational problems might still prevent large numbers of trainees from utilizing the opportunities presented to them. The histories of the trainees, particularly those in the JOBS Project, show striking examples of the influence of matriarchal family structure. This family structure shows itself not so much in the physical absence of the father as in the fact that the father plays a reduced

[1] "Job Opportunities Through Better Skills," (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare through a transfer of funds from the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

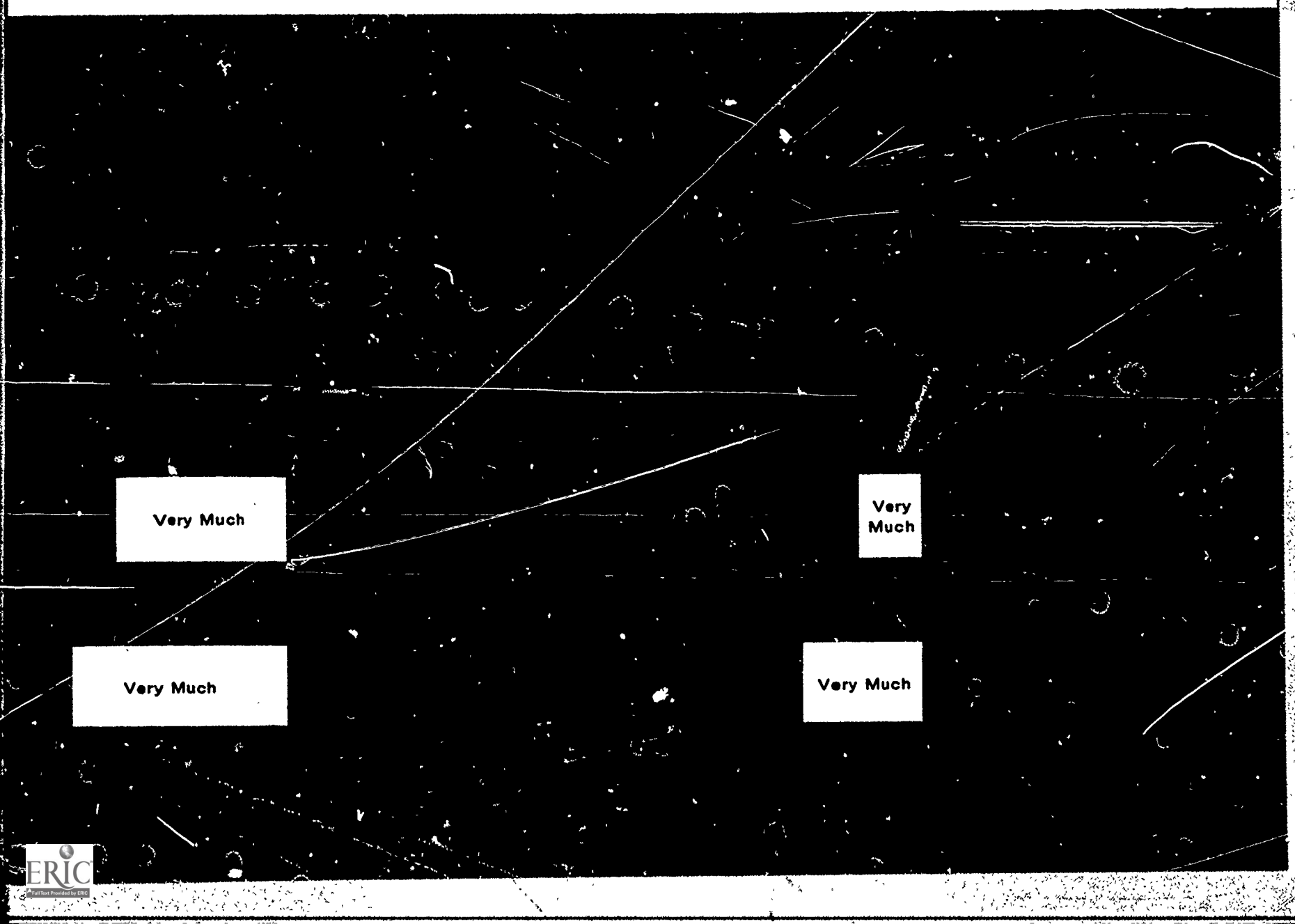
[2] "Attitude Survey of Manpower Development and Training Act Trainees," (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare through a transfer of funds from the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

role even when present. For example, only 1 out of 10 men trainees mentioned his father, or some other male figure, as the person who was "most important" and "influential" in his life. It was even more surprising that the men trainees reported that they "take after" and "admire" their mothers more than their fathers. This result is presented in chart 11.

The complexity of these deep-lying motivational factors is suggested, again, by the fact that not all of the trainees with difficult economic situations, responded to training in the same way. Although most of the trainees knew that 1 out of 3 graduates was still working at his first job, that many had received raises, and that almost all were favorably viewed by their supervisors, still some got discouraged and left the program.

At this stage in the analysis, there are many unanswered questions about motivation, but some tentative answers are emerging. The trainees do not appear to be "alienated," nor do they seem to be rejecting American goals, values, and aspirations. These areas were stressed in the research, and most of the findings suggest that the trainees do aspire to "middle class" values. They do believe that success comes from ability, hard work, and initiative. This appears to be true for both the "culturally disadvantaged" trainees in the JOBS Project and for the national sample of trainees. Some of the questions in this area were simple and obvious. For example, when the trainees were asked to select from a list of sentences the way they "feel things actually are in life," more than 70 percent chose sentences like "the unhappy things that happen to people come from the mistakes they make," or "a person becomes a success in life because he works hard." When asked to comment on the unemployment problem, more trainees blamed unemployment on the unwillingness to work than on the lack of jobs, bad luck, or discrimination.

The data suggest that the trainees doubt that the "American way" applies to them. In an abstract sense, they feel that success depends on planning and hard work, but they are not certain that they are the masters of their own fate. The



majority of trainees, when asked about the need for personal planning, chose the sentence, "It is not always a good idea to plan ahead, because too many things turn out to be a matter of luck." Only a minority checked the sentence, "When I make plans, I am almost always certain that I can make them work."

VALUES AND MOTIVES

The complexities of motivational dynamics have already been referred to, and even these preliminary findings can be seen as supporting an earlier investigation which pointed to the trainees' lack of an adequate male model and to the disparity between certain abstract values held by the trainees and their eventual behavior.[3] Findings from an intensive study of gang and non-gang boys may be relevant here.[4] This study found that middle-class norms were equally acceptable to both groups, but that the gang boys, the Negroes, and the lower-class boys did not see legitimate social opportunities as being really available. The findings from various research projects, therefore, are beginning to reinforce one another. By whatever terms they are designated, those impoverished, undereducated, unemployed young adults in our society show some similar characteristics. They are not unaware of middle-class values and attitudes. But they do not, will not, or cannot—and possibly all of these—work successfully toward them. One of the suggested reasons these young men and women may not strive more successfully for middle-class values is the haunting doubt that they do not and they would not "apply to me, anyhow."

Another study, being conducted by the Psychology Department at Wayne State University, is concerned with what kinds of rewards are necessary to improve the trainee's image of himself.[5] As a first step, different kinds and quantities of social rewards will be given for the successful completion of laboratory-type tasks. Next, these same procedures will be repeated in regular job situations. This study represents a unique interlocking of laboratory and real-life situations. Several hypotheses will be tested which bear directly upon the motivational issues discussed earlier. For example, in one portion of this study two kinds of "verbal rewards" will be given to the trainees. One kind of reward will praise the trainee as a person, while the other kind of reward will concentrate upon the correctness of his performance. It is being hypothesized that persons with impoverished life histories will perform better under the "praise the person" kind of reward.

A third project, being undertaken by the Institute for the Study of Human Problems at Stanford University, will compare the career decision-making of an upper middle-class group of young men and women and a lower socioeconomic group.[6] A random sample of about 1,200 students will be studied by means of questionnaires and other psychometric instruments which measure vocational interests, aptitudes, and some personality characteristics. Of these 1,200 students, a subsample of about 120 from each group will be interviewed intensively. These students will then be followed into their first job experience in order to see how differences in socioeconomic backgrounds, vocational interests, and career expectations affect job satisfaction and success.

A fourth project, to be conducted by the Department of Labor, will investigate the meaningfulness of work in a national sample of men between the ages of 16 and 65. Very little research has been done in this area, although it has been said that work is related to a sense of self-respect, to social identity, and to feelings of well-being. It is known that noneconomic factors play an important role in work motivation. For example, 80 percent of a national sample of adult men reported they would continue working "even if they inherited enough money to live comfortably without working."[7] But more needs to be known about the meaning of work in America, and the Department's study will attempt to specify these psychological dimensions in greater detail.

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[3] *Attitudes and Motives of MDTA Trainees: A Pilot Investigation* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, November 1965), Manpower Report No. 11.

[4] J. Short and F. Strodtbeck, *Group Process and Gang Delinquency* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965).

[5] "The Role of Social Reinforcement Parameters in Facilitating Trainee Motivation, Learning and Job Performance," (Detroit, Mich.: Wayne State University, Department of Psychology for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

[6] "Decision Process and Determinants in Occupational Choice," (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University, Institute for the Study of Human Problems, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

[7] N. Morse and R. Weis, "The Function and Meaning of Work and the Job," *American Sociological Review*, 1955, pp. 191–198.

This study also has important policy implications, for any attempt to train men who are unemployed and any effort to motivate workers to their best and fullest efforts must be based on an understanding of what work "means" to these men. A fuller understanding of the meaningfulness of work may be gained from comparing the attitudes of those who have lived lives of gainful and successful employment with those who have been both less happy and less successful.

The intelligent utilization of our Nation's manpower depends upon providing each person with the opportunity to develop and use to the fullest extent his particular combination of aptitudes, motives, and skills. In order to reach and motivate the educationally and culturally disadvantaged, we need to know more about how work attitudes and motives affect men's employability. Only in this way will they be able to achieve their potential as productive members of our society.

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part IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

The Search for Work

Looking for a job can be a difficult task even under favorable economic circumstances. A scarcity of employment opportunities is the most obvious but not the only obstacle faced by the jobseeker. The worker's knowledge of job opportunities and how he goes about his search for work can also be important to his success in finding employment, and particularly to his success in getting a job appropriate to his skills and work experience. There are a variety of techniques a worker may use in his search for a job and, depending on circumstances, some techniques are more effective than others. The worker's motivations, his values, and even his behavior and appearance during a job interview may all bear importantly on his ability to find a satisfactory job.

Two research studies and experience from the experimental and demonstration program that provide insight into the jobseeking process are reported here. The research studies were initiated at the request of the Department, as part of its continuing efforts to improve the man-job matching process. The first concerns the job-search practices of blue-collar workers in one metropolitan area. In contrast, the second looks at highly-trained college teachers and their methods of finding jobs in a market which is often national in scope. The demonstration projects underscore the importance of providing intensive and individualized services to disadvantaged workers in order to help them quickly find employment and adapt to new jobs.

JOBSEEKING BEHAVIOR OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS

The jobseeking process has been studied many times, particularly by economists interested in understanding how the supply of labor shifts among firms, industries, and regions in response to changing wage rates. These studies have provided useful information about the channels used by jobseekers.

The first study reported here,[1] however, differs

[1] Harold L. Sheppard and Harvey Belitsky, *The Job Hunt: Job-Seeking Behavior of Unemployed Workers in a Local Economy* (Washington: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1965, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research). As with other studies conducted under Department of Labor contract, the research methodology, conclusions, and recommendations are those of the authors. Acknowledgment is made to Dr. Sheppard for preparation of part of the preliminary narrative material from which this chapter was developed.

from earlier studies in that it goes beyond the examination of jobseeking techniques, giving some consideration to social-psychological factors which may underlie specific types of jobseeking behavior. The investigators gave attention to three psychological indicators thought to be particularly relevant to the job-search process: *Achievement motivation* (the willingness to persist in efforts to reach a goal), *achievement values* (the degree of acceptance of social values which emphasize economic success), and *job interview anxiety.*[2]

Some of the authors' findings were:

1. Certain psychological attributes of jobseekers were found to be important to their success in finding jobs. For example, the unemployed who found their jobs through the public employment service tended to be those with relatively low achievement values and high interview anxiety.

2. The effectiveness of a laid-off worker's job search may be conditioned by expectations of a callback to his last job. The study found that such expectations—often overly optimistic—are associated with ineffectual efforts to find a new job, which may continue long after the worker has been laid off.

3. Laid-off workers who express willingness and determination to reach a goal and who hold values which emphasize success are much more likely to conduct a thorough and successful job hunt than are those who do not possess these attributes. Also, the degree of anxiety a jobseeker feels in a job interview situation was found to be associated with his success in finding a job as well as his thoroughness in looking for a job.

4. Most laid-off workers who scored high in motivation and low in interview anxiety got new jobs through direct application to companies. Very few of this group got their jobs through friends or relatives and none through the public employment service.

5. Laid-off workers who started their job search immediately and contacted many companies, rather than limiting their applications to those firms that they had heard were hiring, were most successful in finding jobs.

[2] Achievement motivation was measured by projective techniques developed by David McClelland of Harvard University, achievement values by scaled responses to questions based on the work of Bernard Rosen of the University of Nebraska, and interview anxiety was measured through a series of questions adapted from studies by Lawrence Littig of Howard University.

The personal interviews in this study were conducted in Erie, Pa., in 1964. Although the sample included white-collar and blue-collar workers of both sexes who had recently been unemployed, the discussion that follows is concerned with findings that pertain only to male blue-collar workers. It should also be noted that the Erie community had an abnormally high unemployment rate early in 1963, but during the following 8 months a remarkable recovery took place and the number of available jobs increased significantly. Many workers in the sample who were unemployed early in 1963 had been called back to their old jobs by mid-1964, while others had found new jobs. The analysis maintains the important distinction between those who expected a call to return to their old jobs and those who did not.

Types of Jobseeking Behavior[3]

Contrary to the view that unemployment insurance payments may tend to delay any real effort by laid-off workers to find a new job, the majority of male blue-collar workers studied began to look for work in less than 1 week after layoff; more than two-fifths waited no longer than 1 day to start their job hunt. About one-fifth reported that they did not look at all for a new job when laid off, largely because they had expected a callback. Although a large number of workers expected to be called back (about 70 percent), many of them chose to seek new employment. For example, of the group reemployed at their old jobs, about two-thirds sought new jobs before receiving and accepting a callback. At the time of the survey, only 43 percent of those interviewed were working at their old jobs; 41 percent had found new jobs, and the remaining 16 percent were unemployed.

Workers used a variety of approaches for selecting companies at which to apply for employment. A great majority of the workers adopted a wide-ranging approach and checked companies at random to find out if they were seeking new employees. On the other hand, a much smaller group

[3] It should be noted that a distinction exists between the *jobseeking behavior* and *job-finding success* of workers. The latter concept is related to the level of economic activity and the amount of employment available in an area. This study focuses primarily on the *jobseeking behavior* of workers, i.e., how soon a worker starts looking, the kind of job search techniques and sources used, the number of companies contacted, etc.

checked primarily with only those companies they believed were looking for new employees.

The authors found that the jobseekers' knowledge concerning companies that were supposedly hiring was likely to be faulty. If a worker concentrated only on those companies that he had heard were hiring, his chances of finding a new job were lower than if he were less selective and went from company to company. In brief, the more companies a worker checked with, the greater his chances of finding a job.

Effectiveness of Jobseeking Sources

The study classified jobseeking sources and methods, concentrating on four major groups: (1) Friends and relatives, (2) direct company application, (3) unions, and (4) the Employment Service.[4] An "Effectiveness Index" was developed for each of these four sources for finding a new job. The index reflects the percentage of jobseekers using a given source who actually found their jobs through that source.

It was found that friends and relatives were the leading sources for jobfinding among male blue-collar workers. Unions proved to be the second most effective technique, although the actual number of users of this source was limited. Next in job-finding effectiveness was the use of the Employment Service and direct application to companies. Among the skill levels, direct company application and unions were far more effective sources of jobs for skilled workers than for the other blue-collar workers. Friends and relatives were the most effective job-finding sources for semiskilled workers, and the Employment Service was the most effective source for unskilled workers.

Skill level	*Most effective sources*	*Least effective sources*
Skilled	Direct company application. Unions.	Friends and relatives. Employment Service.
Semiskilled	Friends and relatives.	Direct company application. Unions.
Unskilled	Employment Service.	Unions.

[4] In addition, jobseekers reported using private employment agencies, newspaper ads, and religious, welfare, veterans, fraternal, and political organizations.

The Public Employment Service

While nearly all the workers in the sample reported that they had used the Employment Service as one of their ways to find a job, the extent of services they received varied widely. About one-half of all those who used the Employment Service received at least one type of assistance—they were referred to an employer for a job, received some type of test, received counseling, were prepared for a job interview, or were referred to a training program. Workers not called back to their old jobs were generally given more assistance by the Employment Service. The authors found that such additional effort was associated with subsequent job-finding success. The larger the number of services received, the higher the rate of job-finding success regardless of age of worker or level of skill.

Social-Psychological Factors

One of the basic generalizations stemming from the study is that social-psychological factors are important determinants of unemployed workers' jobseeking behavior and that such behavior affects the duration of unemployment.

Regardless of educational level, workers who held values stressing achievement were more likely to start looking for a job sooner than those who placed less importance on such values. Most workers who did not look for a job at all scored low in achievement values. The extent of anxiety about job interviews was also found to be related to the length of time before the job search was begun, particularly among younger workers. Among the younger workers who expressed little anxiety about job interviews, a large majority had started to look for a job within 1 week of layoff. In contrast, only 1 in 5 of the younger workers who reported a high degree of job-interview anxiety began to look for a job in the first week after they were laid off.

The authors found that the great majority of workers who began to look for another job within 1 day after layoff were highly motivated toward achievement and relatively unapprehensive about job-interview situations. Conversely, very few workers measuring low in achievement motivation and high in interview anxiety started looking for

another job within 1 day. A relatively high percentage of workers with these characteristics did not look for a job at all.

Workers (still unemployed when interviewed) with high and low achievement motivation differed sharply in the manner and thoroughness with which they looked for jobs. Workers who were highly motivated toward achievement (1) applied at more companies, (2) checked more often with out-of-town companies, (3) used more of the job sources available to them, and (4) tried more often to get a job different from their usual line of work. Regardless of age or skill, workers who had high achievement motivation used a greater number of methods to seek a job.

The authors found that the extent of resourcefulness used in searching for work was also related to the workers' achievement motivation and values. Workers who checked only those companies they had heard were hiring scored much lower on each of these indices than did workers who made a wide-ranging search for work.

Job Finders' Techniques and Behavior

The particular job-finding technique a worker used was found to be associated with his achievement motivation, achievement values, and job-interview anxiety. The largest percentage of workers with high motivation and low anxiety found their jobs through direct company application.

It is significant that none of the job finders characterized by both high achievement motivation and high achievement values obtained his new job through the public employment service (although one-sixth of all other workers did).

In commenting on the significance of their findings for the public employment service, the authors observed:

> The fact that one-half of all the new job finders obtaining their new jobs through the Employment Service have low motivation and high anxiety—in sharp contrast to less than one-fifth of all other workers—is clear evidence, in our opinion, of the important role that must be played by this type of public agency in the jobseeking problems of certain kinds of unemployed workers, notably those with social-psychological characteristics that tend to require an institutional intermediary in their quest for jobs. A combination of low achievement motivation and high job-interview anxiety would seem to be among such characteristics.

They suggest that identification by the Employment Service of jobseekers with "high interview anxiety" and subsequent specialized services to help them overcome this anxiety would enhance their employability.

The study found that job-finding success was significantly greater for workers with high achievement motivation and values—regardless of age or skill level—than for all other workers. Also, skilled and semiskilled workers who expressed high motivation combined with low job-interview anxiety had a significantly greater degree of success in finding jobs than all others. Among older workers (39 and over), those with low achievement values and high anxiety had much less success in finding jobs than all other older workers. However, the same combination of motivation and anxiety characteristics was not related to job-finding success among unskilled workers.

The authors conclude, ". . . Among the lesser-educated workers who have become unemployed; among the lesser-skilled workers; and among the older workers, those individuals who are characterized by high achievement motivation, or by high achievement values, or both . . . have become more successful in finding reemployment than workers with the same skill, age, or education not so characterized."

Recommendations

The authors offer a series of recommendations on the practical program implications of their research. They present them with the understanding that many of the conclusions drawn in the study are necessarily tentative and that the study has limitations imposed by the particular time, geographic location, and sample size. Recommendations include the following:

1. The psychological orientation of workers will affect their responsiveness to suggestions for improving their job-search techniques and their initiative in seeking employment. Any program designed to improve the jobseeking behavior of unemployed workers (as well as new entrants and the underemployed) should include a systematic program to improve their resourcefulness and self-confidence as a means of enhancing their ability to find a job.

2. The public employment service could provide a very helpful service to unemployed workers if it

identified those jobseekers with high "job-interview anxiety" and provided them with specialized aid designed to reduce such anxiety and enhance their employability.

3. Jobseekers should be urged to start their job hunt immediately and make as many company contacts as possible.

4. Since checking with a wide variety of companies during a job search results in greater job-finding success than merely concentrating on those companies that workers believe are hiring, it might be useful if the Employment Service provided jobseekers with a list of all employers who employ workers with the same occupations or skills as the jobseekers—even if such employers have not registered vacancies with the Employment Service.[5]

5. The expectation of being called back to his old job substantially affects a worker's jobseeking behavior (and his job-finding success, if he is not actually called). Therefore, "it may be useful for such agencies as the Employment Service to verify with the worker's former employer just how accurate his expectations are . . ." Greater attention could then be provided to those whose expectations of being called back were not justified.

6. Much more concrete research needs to be done to learn how the "informal" methods of jobseeking (use of friends and relatives) actually operate, especially since such methods appear to be the major technique used for successful job finding.

JOB FINDING IN EXPERIMENTAL PROJECTS

Under the Manpower Act, the Department initiated a series of experimental and demonstration (E&D) projects designed to seek out appropriate new methods for the motivation and training of severely disadvantaged unemployed workers. A broad assortment of methods has been used by both public and private sponsors under contract to the Department.

While the specific objectives in these various experimental efforts differ, the trainee is often given direct help in the job-search process. Trainees in these projects receive a wide variety of special services including counseling, testing, prevocational training, instruction in social skills, and placement—all tailored to the particular social, cultural, physical, or occupational problems that pose special difficulty to the trainees.

In the *Tuskegee Institute Retraining Project*, conducted in Alabama, some of these functions and the attendant problems are illustrated.[6] A group of unskilled and unemployed rural Negro workers were given a year's occupational training in brick-masonry, carpentry, farm machinery repair, and meat processing, coupled with general education in communication and number skills and counseling in personal habits. Vocational guidance also was provided. As the training neared completion, the project staff initiated an intensive job development program within the State. Job developers made a series of personal visits to potential employers in which attempts were made to break down traditional attitudes and hiring practices in order to present trainees as potential employees. Only a few jobs were developed through these efforts, however, and the search for jobs was extended to other States and regions through the various contacts and organizations available to the project staff. The staff made contact through letters, telephone calls, and personal visits. Placements in many of the out-of-State jobs eventually developed were made in conjunction with a pilot relocation program initiated at the institute shortly before the training program ended.

A project undertaken by the Health and Welfare Council of the Baltimore Area, Inc., sought to provide intensive preparation in the techniques and procedures of jobseeking. A "job-search clinic" taught workers age 50 and over (who as "older workers" encounter considerable resistance under current hiring practices) how to plan a jobseeking campaign and how to perpare application forms and work histories. The workers learned job-interview conduct and the importance of personal appearance. To reduce nervousness, they practiced taking preemployment tests. In addition, participants were provided with current information on job and training opportunities. Group counseling was also used to help reduce tensions and frustrations associated with prolonged joblessness. Upon completion of the clinic, unemployed workers then sought jobs on their own through the various channels suggested to them.

[5] Initial steps by the Department have been undertaken to explore the feasibility of this suggestion through a joint research effort by the Research Office of the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research and the Bureau of Employment Security.

[6] Other aspects of this project are described in detail in the chapter on The Experimental and Demonstration Program.

As a result of the valuable initial experience gained, this project was recently extended for another year and a job development program added in order to place project clients more effectively in occupations suited to their needs.

The experience from such demonstration projects suggests that the effectiveness of the individual's job-search effort and his probability of success in finding work can be dramatically increased when he receives intensive, individual assistance attuned to his specific employment needs.

JOB-SEARCH METHODS AMONG COLLEGE TEACHERS

A jobseeker's position on the occupational ladder affects the way he seeks employment. Differences have already been noted in job market channels used by unskilled, semiskilled, and skilled blue-collar workers. These differences are even more pronounced in the case of professional employees. This section is concerned with the effectiveness of academic job markets in bringing an important and relatively limited supply of professional educators and institutions of higher learning together in an effective matching of men and jobs.

The University of North Carolina in Chapel Hill was asked by the Department of Labor to identify, describe, and evaluate the operation of the academic job market, the role of placement intermediaries, and the methods and procedures by which positions in institutions of higher learning are found and filled.[7]

About 7,500 college professors who changed jobs at the start of the 1964–65 academic year responded to the mail questionnaire on which the study was based. The respondents represent virtually all regions, disciplines, levels of experience, academic ranks, salary levels, ages, and types of 4-year colleges and universities.

A summary of the major findings is presented below.

Tradition and professional ethics play an important role in the academic job market and differences in talents, skills, and professional subject area restrict the use of some of the usual job-search methods. In some respects the job hunt is limited by professional custom. While new graduates may publicly announce their availability, for example, such an approach is frowned upon if engaged in by college teachers in the highest ranks.

At the same time, academic jobseeking behavior is similar to that of blue-collar workers in at least one important respect: the study revealed that the great majority of newly hired teachers found their jobs through informal approaches—principally through a friend or former professor—and only after informal channels failed did teachers turn to formal channels such as college placement offices and teacher placement bureaus.

Job-Search Practices

College teachers generally are highly mobile. For the academic year beginning in September 1964, more than 28,500 new faculty appointments were made and the median distance moved was 450 miles. More than one-fourth of the job changes between college jobs involved moves of more than 1,000 miles. The typical associate or full professor has changed institutions at least three times in his career.

Few professors consider their present job as permanent. Among those serving in new jobs in the academic year 1964–65, 15 percent indicated that they did not expect to remain in this job beyond the end of the academic year, while another 38 percent expected to stay fewer than 4 years. Less than one-fifth considered their new jobs as permanent.

Because job changes are so frequent, the communication of information about applicants and vacancies is a central problem in the academic job-search process, and it is becoming more difficult as the demand for college teachers grows. The author observes: "Today communication in academic job markets is structured in ways which may well have been adequate in the Nineteenth Century . . . but which are grossly inadequate to the modern United States."

Although informal channels of communication have failed to meet the needs of universities and colleges, especially the smaller 2-year and 4-year institutions, informal methods nevertheless continue to predominate. The best job vacancies are seldom made known through a formal market mechanism. Nearly two-thirds of the newly hired

[7] David G. Brown, *Academic Labor Markets* (Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina, September 1965, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training).

teachers found their jobs through informal approaches.

According to the study, the more prestigious universities avoid the use of formal placement methods, partly because they have adequate informal contacts and partly because they do not want to have "an avalanche of underqualified candidates." Moreover, the top jobs in the universities are filled using the informal methods considered most reliable by the recruiters. Professors at the major graduate schools are central to the informal placement networks. They "are widely known in their fields, and inquiries about persons who might fill vacancies in their areas naturally gravitate toward them." The author suggests that the formal approaches simply do not provide enough information to allow the recruiters to make the final decisions about top job candidates. Consequently, the better qualified students and professors tend to look for jobs through the informal sources and the less qualified tend to use the formal methods.

According to the study, only about a third of the jobs taken were found through formal placement centers (e.g., college placement offices, graduate school departmental offices, fee-charging private employment agencies, and placement operations of professional associations).

However, the use of formal methods has increased in recent years. The study showed that of all the formal methods, the direct letter of application was used most frequently. Although the majority of teachers found their jobs through informal methods of all kinds, more respondents found their current job through direct application by letter than through any other single formal or informal method.

The importance of the convention placement service as a mechanism in the jobseeking process for college teachers has been steadily increasing in recent years. One of the major reasons for this is the new role taken by the U.S. Employment Service of the Department of Labor in designing and financing such services. Perhaps the most extensive and most successful of such services is the one provided to the Allied Social Science Associations at their annual December meeting. These convention placement services are now considered as an acceptable means of jobseeking, especially by students seeking their initial college teaching jobs.

Aside from service at annual professional meetings, over 100 State offices of the public employment service provide year-round counseling and placement help to professional workers including college teachers and their employers. However, only 3 percent of all jobseekers in the study used this method. According to the author, the college teachers' job markets are frequently national in scope and not easily serviced by local- and State-oriented employment offices.

Among private fee-charging employment agencies, 7 percent of the new hires registered with such agencies, but only 3 percent found their current positions through this source. The main disadvantages of this intermediary, according to the study, is in the high cost of service and the fact that applicants are frequently experienced teachers while the jobs listed with such agencies often are those with the heaviest teaching loads and at the entry level. On the other hand, this source, more than any other, supplies the registrant with large numbers of job options.

College teachers are usually members of national professional associations that often provide placement services. The professional associations, through their publications and conventions, offer an opportunity for the exchange of job information for both the applicant and the recruiter. Unlike many of the other methods, the use of professional associations as a job-search device is not considered unprofessional. As a result, the percentage of jobs filled through this type of service at the rank of full professor is higher than for any other.

Recommendations

The author suggests a number of ways in which the operation of academic job markets can be improved.

1. More professional associations should be encouraged to offer and expand placement services to their members at annual meetings, especially those scheduled during the recruiting season. (The public employment service recently has expanded and improved its placement services for professional society meetings.)

2. Graduate school departments should appoint a faculty member as liaison with the university placement office in order to enhance its use among

graduate students beginning their college teaching careers.

3. To improve communication in academic job markets, the author recommends that a "Journal of Academic Vacancies" and an academic register be established. The "Journal of Academic Vacancies" would list and briefly describe openings in 4-year colleges and universities. The academic register would be essentially a nationwide listing of professionals capable of teaching at the college level, including those not currently employed in academic institutions.

4. Information about salary trends and other factors affecting college teaching opportunities should be more widely publicized through pamphlets and other easily distributed material.

Our complex, dynamic economy requires a broad variety of highly efficient and adaptive jobseeking processes. These studies have shown that existing mechanisms are frequently inefficient and costly both to the jobseeker and to the public. Inadequate knowledge, misinformation, or traditional biases may prolong unemployment and limit the effectiveness of the job hunt for workers at all skill levels and for professional workers as well. The public employment service and other institutions and organizations concerned with the process of bringing workers and jobs together must seek new and better ways to perform their functions if the overall process of man-job matching is to be improved.

Manpower research plays a central role in highlighting problem areas in the operation of job markets and contributes important suggestions and ideas to increase the effectiveness of jobseeking efforts. Fundamental to any immediate improvement in the process of matching workers and jobs would be better and more widespread dissemination of job vacancy information and the development of services tailored more specifically to the special needs of employees and employers.

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part IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Matching Workers and Jobs

The full development of human resources requires special efforts to reach the disadvantaged individual and to provide him with the personal and vocational guidance—and job opportunities—he needs to become a more productive member of society. The research described in this chapter illustrates some of the Department's most recent efforts to improve its programs and techniques for matching workers and jobs. These are exemplified in new approaches in further development of the General Aptitude Test Battery and the revised *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* Emerging skill shortages point to another manpower problem and underscore the need for detailed information about job vacancies in a changing economy. A new program of job vacancy studies which seeks to fill in this informational gap in the interest of improving the matching of workers and jobs is also discussed in this chapter.

OCCUPATIONAL TESTING

In order to effectively match worker qualifications with job requirements, an accurate appraisal of work interests, aptitudes, and skills is needed. Vocational counselors and training specialists must have the tools to appraise worker interests and aptitudes if every individual is to have the fullest opportunity to acquire a skill and obtain a job consistent with his potential. The test research program of the Department of Labor has been directed toward the development of such tools.

The need to help the individual appraise his potential in order to make an appropriate vocational choice led to the development of the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) in 1947. During recent years, the GATB has been used in appraising the aptitudes of candidates for training under the Manpower Development and Training Act. However, many of the hard-core unemployed, who have the greatest need for training, have been unable to take the tests because of their cultural and educational deficiencies. To meet this problem, the Department has expanded its test research program.

The Department has undertaken to determine whether the GATB is a fair measure of the aptitudes of persons with limited cultural and educational background. Although many such individuals have been included in group testing sessions for the GATB, the results have not been

considered meaningful because it was believed that there was no way of knowing whether their low scores reflected limited ability, inadequate reading ability, or cultural deprivation.

For this reason, a short, objective, easily scored screening test was needed to determine the ability of individuals to take the GATB. A test using three-dimensional space and vocabulary items was developed for use in Employment Service offices, and pilot studies were conducted in three States to determine the best way in which to use the test device. These tryouts indicated that the test should be given and interpreted by the counselor rather than by a test administrator.

For persons who are culturally and educationally disadvantaged, a nonreading measure to provide information on their general learning ability was also needed in order to gauge the person's learning potential. This was to be used with reading and arithmetic achievement measures and other personal data to help in determining the remedial action needed to improve the individual's employability. For these individuals, the testing objective is not to determine each individual's status and to "screen out" the most disadvantaged, but ultimately to improve it. For example, the information that an 18-year-old high school dropout has a score of 80 on a nonreading test of general learning ability, a fourth-grade level of reading achievement, and an eighth-grade level of arithmetical achievement provides a counselor with useful clues about the way this individual functions. Along with the other information known about the individual, these test results would be helpful in devising a plan for remedial action.

The need for this type of appraisal led to the development of a nonreading measure of general learning ability. A study was conducted in several States to provide a test that would be related to general learning ability as measured in the regular GATB. There is still dissatisfaction with the test content and the level of verbal skill needed to understand the test's instructions under actual operating conditions. For example, at the Bluefield State College in Bluefield, W. Va., six MDTA training courses were conducted for adults in building and construction trades and in secretarial training. No educational, aptitudinal, or age requirements were used in selecting trainees. However, as part of the research phase of the project, the trainees were administered the GATB and the Non-Reading Measure of General Learning Ability. The results indicated that even with the use of the Non-Reading Measure, adults with limited reading skills are still under a substantial handicap.

Research is now underway to develop a complete nonreading edition of the GATB and to develop a suitable method of administering the new nonreading tests to educationally deficient individuals. Directions will be simplified and test pictures, forms, and diagrams will be printed directly on a machine-scoreable answer sheet. The applicant will be able to make his mark in the appropriate places on the answer sheet even without being able to read or write. Fourteen experimental tests set up in this format have been tried out with poorly educated individuals to get information on problems of administering them and on score and time distribution.

The Bluefield project findings indicate that there are problems in the interpretation of test results in the occupational counseling of the undereducated adult. Also, the MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Youth Training Project in St. Louis, Mo., revealed that the test results of any undereducated applicant need to be interpreted in terms of his social and environmental background. His test scores alone may not provide a fair indication of his level of potential or performance. Such considerations have led to the development of about a dozen experimental designs for GATB occupational norms. About 4,000 MDTA trainees in 25 States will be involved in the research.

The Department has also started work on the development of a vocational interest questionnaire with items worded at a sufficiently low reading level to be suitable for educationally deficient individuals. The current interest measure has a reading level of 10th grade for the job activity items and 7th grade for the instructions. The instructions and job activity items are to be modified to lower the reading level to the 6th grade for both.

Another approach to measuring vocational potential was made in E&D projects administered by the Philadelphia and St. Louis Jewish Employment and Vocational Service (JEVS). Experimental work in sheltered workshops and other work adjustment settings showed that interests and vocational potentials of the disadvantaged could be assessed by observing performance of a

graded system of real work tasks, often called work samples. The work samples ranged from those requiring routine repetitive responses to those involving problem solving by abstract reasoning. Psychologists observed the process as unobtrusively as possible, looking for such factors as frustration tolerance, interpersonal relationships, visual motor coordination, work rhythm, relationship to authority, comprehension level, and learning speed. Individuals were considered as having higher level vocational potential if they could successfully perform work samples involving higher order sensory-motor functions. Limited resources precluded extensive standardization and validation of work-sample tests, so that precise measurements and predictions for general use were not established in these projects. However, these experiments have stimulated the interest of a variety of organizations concerned with developing new approaches to assessing human potentials. Further experimentation with work-sample testing will be made in a study involving Neighborhood Youth Corps trainees recruited by Mobilization for Youth in New York City.

DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES

A valuable tool in counseling and placement work was made available in December 1965 with publication of the third edition of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT).[1] This comprehensive guidebook lists, defines, and classifies 21,741 jobs with 35,550 titles.

As the economy changes, occupational demands change accordingly. Through research, current job requirements can be analyzed and made known to those seeking work. The Department's testing research seeks to understand the individual worker and his problems in order to help prepare him for employment. The *Dictonary of Occupational Titles*, in a sense, takes up where this endeavor leaves off, providing comprehensive information on occupations and their content to be used in the next step of matching workers and jobs. While the matching process is highly individualized, the DOT contributes to it by categorizing the workers' demonstrated and potential abilities as well as the requirements and demands of the job.

The new dictionary is the culmination of 15 years of occupational research by the U.S. Employment Service and its affiliated State agencies. To obtain the current definitions of jobs and to discover new jobs in the economy, occupational analysts studied some 45,000 jobs at 75,000 jobsites, covering all known occupations in all industries. This research involved obtaining and verifying the basic facts about each occupation, including: tasks performed; skills and knowledges required; machines, equipment, and materials used; physical demands and working conditions; and worker characteristics required.

The rapidly changing economy together with the technological developments of the postwar period have exerted a major impact on the content and structure of jobs. New occupational research techniques have been needed to develop a classification system which would reflect relationships among jobs in terms of not only the work performed, but also requirements made on the workers.

The results of this experimentation and research are presented in the two volumes of the dictionary. Volume I lists jobs alphabetically and defines them. Each definition contains, explicitly or by implication, information on the functions performed by the worker; the significant aptitudes, interests, and temperaments required; and the critical physical demands and working conditions associated with the job. Volume II identifies and classifies jobs in three arrangements—by occupational groups, by worker trait groups, and by industries.

Obsolete jobs have been deleted from the dictionary and 6,432 new occupations not listed in previous editions have been added. Many of the new jobs listed are in the aircraft and guided missiles industries, electronics, and atomic energy. The total number of jobs listed in the DOT has decreased—from about 24,000 in the 1949 edition to less than 22,000 in the 1965 edition. Allowing for the 6,432 jobs new to the dictionary, over 8,000 jobs that were listed in the 1949 edition have been deleted or combined with other jobs.

There are many new jobs generated by new technology and invention, but the newest occupations do not necessarily appear in the newest industries. Many new occupations are found in agriculture, the oldest industry. For example, trees are now

[1] *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Bureau of Employment Security, 1965), 2 vols.; 3d ed.

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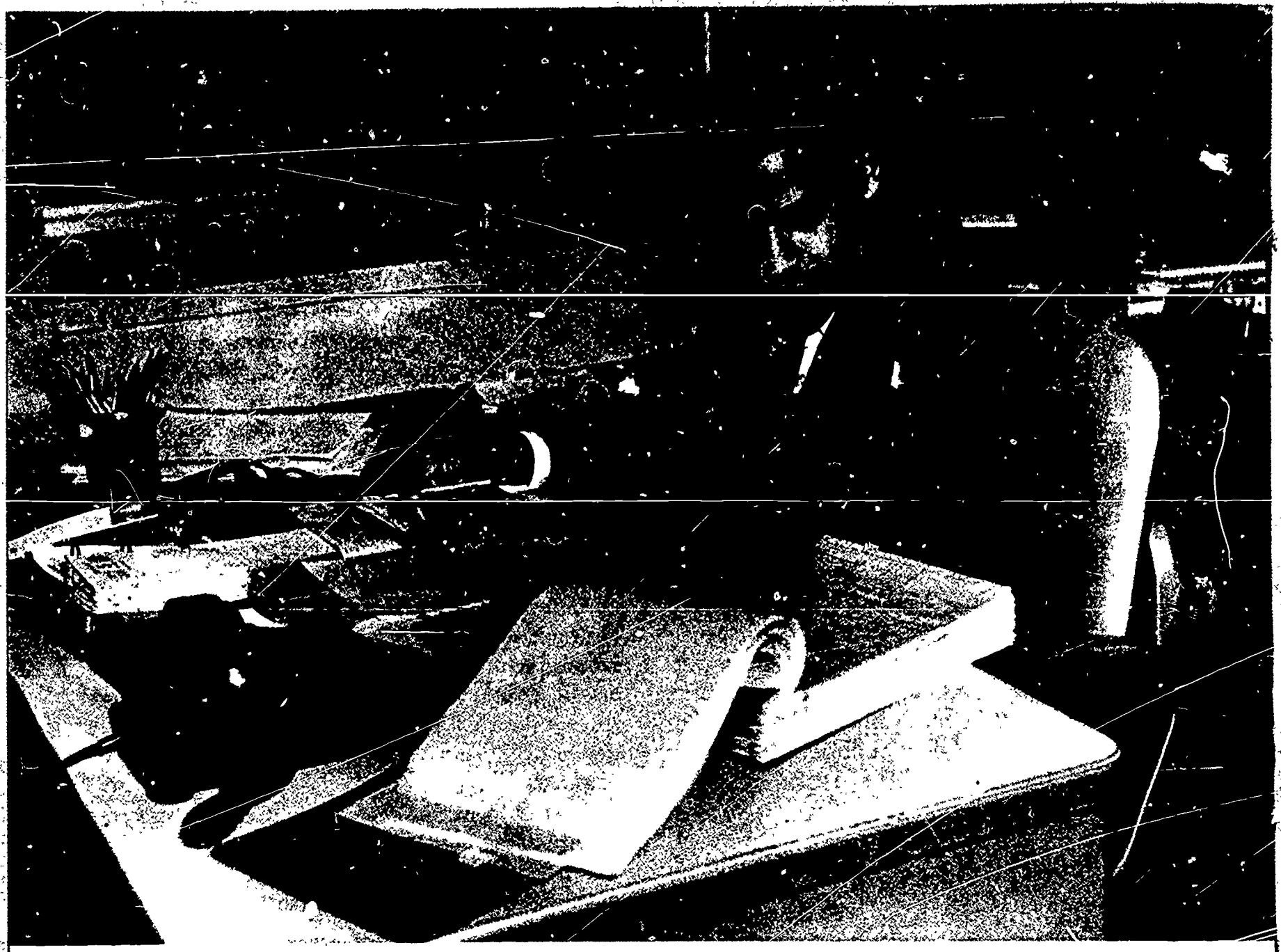

The Employment Service seeks to match worker qualifications with job requirements.

planted by machine, and cranberries are picked by a scoop machine that permits one picker to do the work of a number of hand pickers.

The public employment service uses the occupational data in the dictionary in interviewing, counseling, and placing applicants for employment. The dictionary also serves a wide variety of users in this country and throughout the world, including industry, labor unions, schools, libraries, and manpower planning groups. Educators will find this latest edition particularly valuable in planning vocational training programs and in revising and reorienting course content.

In the case of the inexperienced job applicant, the worker traits arrangement provides the interviewer with classifications of occupations based on factors in the applicant's background other than fully qualifying work experience. The occupational group arrangement classifies the same occupations in groups that show entry and progression possibilities in the form of job ladders. These two arrangements of the classification structure present job interrelationships in terms of knowledge required, similarity of equipment, materials, and work aids used, and requirements made of workers relative to such factors or traits as aptitudes, physical demands, interests, and temperaments. The structure presents job groupings which are job families in nature and shows not only the individual jobs arranged according to level of complexity, but also the potential progression possibilities and the interrelationships of jobs having similar worker trait characteristics. When applicants who meet exactly an employer's requirements are not available, the job relationship data in the dictionary provide a basis for discussing with the employer the qualifications of applicants in related classifications.

The dictionary also provides the counselor with information on the requirements and interrelationships of jobs in terms of areas of work, levels of complexity, tasks performed, materials used, subject matter and services involved, and industry affiliation.

Clues such as the applicant's expressed interests, hobbies, and success in certain school subjects may be related to appropriate job requirements along with the kind of education, type and duration of training, and usual methods of entry for the jobs in the group. Within each worker trait group, a variety of jobs may be explored to arrive at a vocational objective consistent with an individual's potential.

JOB VACANCY STUDIES

As the level of unemployment declines, skill shortages emerge as a manpower problem of growing significance in early 1966. In view of this, the need continues for better information about existing job opportunities. Data about job vacancies are important if manpower programs and policies are to be responsive to shifting imbalances between jobs and workers. For many years the Department of Labor has been collecting information about the employed and unemployed—their number, their occupations, and a variety of their personal, social, and economic characteristics. But up to now information of comparable detail about job vacancies has not been available.

Beginning in 1963, the need for more information about job vacancies became increasingly obvious as a result of emphasis on the development of training programs geared to job market demand under legislation directed to retraining, area redevelopment, vocational education, and the various antipoverty programs. With information about both job vacancies and jobseekers, the Department of Labor could serve more effectively as intermediary between the workers' search for jobs and industry's search for workers. Those responsible for planning training and counseling programs could improve their services if job vacancy information were available to them. It is hoped that as job vacancy information becomes national in scope, it will be able to provide a more rational basis for the moves between localities which jobseekers now often make haphazardly. An effective interarea exchange of information on job vacancies and jobseekers may add needed flexibility to our labor force.

In order to secure information about job vacancies, the Department in late 1964 and early 1965 surveyed employers in 16 metropolitan areas about the number and kinds of jobs which were currently vacant.[2] Job vacancies were defined to include all current openings which were unoccupied and immediately available to workers outside the firm and for which the firm was actively seeking workers. The 16 areas surveyed accounted for approximately one-fourth of all nonfarm employment and included large employment centers such as New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Philadelphia, as well as small and medium-sized metropolitan areas to give some representation in terms of geographical dispersion, industrial characteristics, and the nature of employment conditions.

The results of each area survey were evaluated according to their utility for analytical and operational use. Answers were sought to two questions: (1) Can this type of information be obtained? (2) Can it be used to aid other manpower programs?

The most important finding of the surveys was that it is both feasible and practicable to collect job vacancy information by detailed occupation. A very large proportion of employers—approximately 80 percent of those sampled in the 16 pilot areas—were able and willing to provide these data. In addition, a series of controlled tests in some of the 16 areas indicated that employers appeared willing to furnish other types of data relating to their vacant jobs, such as wage rates and information on the duration of vacancies.

About 1 out of every 4 employers responding in the 16 areas reported at least one vacancy, although this varied by size of establishment, of course. About 1 of every 2 large firms had some vacancies; in the smaller establishments, 1 in every 10 reported at least one vacant job.

In the 16 areas, there were about 2½ job applicants registered for work in the public employment service files for every job vacancy. There were wide variations among areas, however, ranging from an approximate balance between applicants and vacancies in Richmond and Milwaukee to a 10 to 1 relationship in Charleston, W. Va.—long an

[2] A comprehensive report of these studies is in preparation. Much of the present discussion is drawn from several articles which appeared in the April 1965 issue of the *Employment Security Review*. Complete citations appear at the end of this chapter.

area of high unemployment. The problem of structural unemployment was apparent from the imbalance between the types and numbers of workers needed, who were mostly in the higher range of skills, and the types and numbers of workers available in the localities, who were mostly on the bottom rungs of the occupational ladder. The lowest ratios of applicants to vacancies were in professional and managerial occupational classifications, where vacancies outnumbered applicants. In the clerical and sales and skilled occupations, the number of applicants averaged about double the vacancy total. In the service, semiskilled, and unskilled groups, the applicant-vacancy ratio averaged about 4 or 5 to 1.

Although vacancies occurred in a variety of occupations and at all skill levels, they were heavily concentrated in a relatively few occupations. For example, nurses accounted for 1 out of every 4 professional vacancies. Sales persons, sales clerks, and stenographers and typists accounted for two-thirds of the vacancies in clerical and sales occupations. Over half of the job vacancies in the service occupations were for waiters and waitresses, kitchen workers, practical nurses, and hospital attendants. One-fifth of the vacancies for unskilled workers were in warehousing. Vacancies for skilled workers were more widely dispersed. Obviously, each locality reflected its unique industrial pattern.

A surprisingly high proportion of the job vacancies—about half—were hard-to-fill, as indicated by the fact that they had remained vacant 1 month or longer. The identification of these hard-to-fill jobs in relation to total vacancies, by occupation, promises to be one of the most useful tools of the program. Over a period of time such data can be a guide to training opportunities, assuming other variables such as wages and working conditions are not obstacles to matching workers and jobs.

Employers proved able and willing to furnish data on wage rates in conjunction with their vacancy information. On the basis of comparisons with the range of prevailing rates by occupation in the area where the data were collected, less than one-fifth of the vacancies carried wage rates which could be considered below prevailing levels for that occupation in the area. Among those occupations with wages below the prevailing rate, there was a surprisingly large number of below-average offers in the professional and managerial group. It should be noted that information about job requirements and working conditions with respect to reported vacancies was not obtained.

The job vacancy program, through its listing of many hard-to-fill jobs in the lesser skilled occupations, also has operational implications for the antipoverty programs. About half of the vacancies for unskilled workers listed in the first survey had been open for at least a month. Prominent among these were laborers for the metalworking, transportation equipment, warehousing, and construction industries. Over three-fifths of the vacancies for semiskilled workers also had been available 30 days or longer; among them were jobs in the machine shop, construction, and textile manufacturing industries. Of the vacancies in service occupations, approximately one-half were hard-to-fill. Many of the vacancies were for practical nurses, hospital attendants, porters, waiters and waitresses, and kitchen workers. The available wage data do not show any special concentration of less-than-prevailing wage offers for the lesser skilled jobs.

Despite the pioneering aspects and the magnitude of the 1965 program, the actual conduct of the surveys revealed only a few technical flaws in the overall survey design and structure of the program. The most important change made to correct these flaws was the development of new sampling procedures for small firms. Some changes have also been made in the employer collection form and in instructions for reporting the duration of the vacancies. Provisions were also made to collect wage data in all areas.

The program will continue on an experimental basis in 1966, during which time tests will be made of the feasibility of collecting job vacancy data in connection with the ongoing labor turnover statistics program. A fully operational job vacancy program would improve the capability of public employment and training agencies to match men and jobs, by opening up a much broader range of employment opportunities to the jobseekers as well as identifying for them potential training opportunities.

CONCLUSIONS

Matching workers and jobs encompasses more than a mechanical concern with the demand and supply of labor. For the undereducated and dis-

advantaged workers, literacy training and work orientation must precede job training, and special methods are needed to appraise work aptitudes and interests. A constantly changing economy and technology requires knowledge of job vacancies and of the tools such as testing, counseling, and guidance needed to bring a useful job to every individual seeking one. The Department's research in occupational testing will continue, and additional techniques for reaching disadvantaged workers are to be expected in the future. The new *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* will be especially useful as an aid to counseling and other placement services in view of the occupational changes brought about by technological advances. The job vacancy studies are in their infancy, and even when complete will provide only part of the information needed to assess changing occupational needs. The Department also is seeking to improve the effectiveness of its information on jobs and available applicants through an experimental application of telecommunications and automatic data processing to placement operations. This project, Labor Inventory Communications System (LINCS), consists of a teletype network that provides direct communication between local offices in metropolitan areas, and a computer application designed to identify applicants who possess qualifications required to fill specific employer job openings. Experience to date indicates that automated file search produces results superior to those accomplished through manual file search, which is limited by an inflexible and predetermined numeric occupational code structure.

These results notwithstanding, much remains to be done before the occupational and geographic coverage of the project can be extended to a significant segment of applicants and employers. The recent report to the Secretary of Labor from the Employment Service Task Force has suggested that the LINCS system provides a basic unit from which to develop an interarea recruitment system based on electronic data processing and computer technology.

Additional elements are needed for a comprehensive occupational job market information program. These include:

1. A relatively current benchmark or inventory of employment by occupation in a community—to be updated periodically, perhaps once every 2 years.

2. A detailed analysis of intermediate range (2 to 5 years) occupational requirements *in relation to probable manpower resources.*

3. A broader program for the translation of these materials into appropriate counseling and guidance tools, and for the utilization of the information in planning community development and training programs, improving the functioning of the job market, and facilitating interarea recruitment and mobility of workers.

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part
IV
MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Training in Correctional Institutions

The Department of Labor's objective of full employment has resulted in research programs which explore the special problems of workers who must overcome difficult obstacles in order to become productive members of our economy. One group of persons who find it particularly difficult to find jobs are released prisoners. Most of the prison population is poorly educated and few prison inmates possess the levels of skills or training needed to acquire a job which will provide them with an adequate income and self-respect. For the most part, their previous work experience consists of a series of short-term marginal jobs interspersed with long periods of unemployment. In addition to these handicaps, ex-prisoners bear the stigma of prison records when looking for work.

Many of this country's serious crimes are committed by ex-prisoners and studies show direct relationships between rates of recidivism and the inability of ex-inmates to maintain employment. To improve the rehabilitative prospects of inmates, the Department has launched a concerted effort—through manpower research, training, and related services—to encourage new programs to train inmates for productive jobs and to enlarge their opportunities for employment. As a part of this effort the Department is planning to make MDTA training available to prisoners under work-release arrangements that permit the prisoner to hold a job in the community during the day and return to confinement at night.

Two research studies and four experimental and demonstration projects centered on the job training and postrelease employment problems of prisoners and ex-prisoners are described in this chapter. The first study is an overview of the general problems of vocational rehabilitation, and the second is an account of a program to train youthful inmates for data processing jobs. The experimental and demonstration projects draw from the findings of these and earlier studies and also test some new methods of training and vocational rehabilitation for young prisoners.

TRAINING NEEDS

In a report issued in 1965, the Department provided a new dimension to arguments for the improvement of vocational training programs in prisons.[1] The report was based on labor force and

[1] *Training Needs in Correctional Institutions* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, September 1965), Manpower Research Bulletin No. 8 (advance printing).

census data, supplemented by findings from significant studies of prisoner rehabilitation.

In summary, the study found that the prisoner population is predominantly male (95 percent), young (nearly two-thirds under 35 years of age), and poorly educated (a majority of adult prisoners had failed to reach high school). A substantial number of prisoners come from broken homes. Their pre-prison work experience is usually in the least skilled and most unstable jobs. A survey of releasees from Federal institutions referred to in this study reported that during the first 3 months after release only 4 out of 10 had been employed as much as 80 percent of the time. About 1 ex-prisoner in 5 had been unable to find any kind of work during the entire period. Reimprisonment rates usually range from 30 to 70 percent (depending on the type of crime and institution).

These findings reflect a pattern of failure for the typical prisoner—failure of his family life, failure in school, and failure as a productive individual. Despite this pattern, studies have shown that the general level of intelligence of prisoners is not markedly different from that of the general population, and well-conceived programs can substantially improve their employability. Furthermore, the tendency toward failure on parole appears to be directly related to the parolee's inability to secure and maintain productive employment. These conclusions flow from the study's findings:

—Most inmates in Federal and State institutions are in prison long enough to receive vocational training which would enable them to reenter the job market with higher levels of skill.

—Most prisons are more concerned with providing work activity for prisoners than training. Such activity is limited by requirements that inmates perform services or make products for use in the prison system itself or in other governmental agencies—under policies which seek to avoid significant competition with private enterprise.

—Because of the limited markets for products of State prisons, the regularity of work and its other self-disciplining characteristics are not present in prison industry employment. Thus, under the majority of these programs, prisoners are not conditioned to work with the efficient sustained effort required on jobs in private industry.

—Most releasees need special assistance in finding jobs; many parole officers try to assist in placement, but large caseloads usually prevent them from providing the individual attention and placement assistance needed. In the entire Federal prison system there are only 12 placement officers; 7 are employed in the regular penal institutions and 5 in special prerelease guidance centers.

—Formal vocational courses in correctional institutions typically provide training for jobs as auto mechanics, body-and-fender repairmen, radio-and-TV repairmen, office machine repairmen, welders, plumbers, draftsmen, hospital aides, and waiters, and in a host of other trades and services. About half of the Federal prison population in 1963 was receiving some vocational training, primarily on-the-job training in prison industries.

—The quality and extent of vocational training available to prisoners vary widely among the States. Moreover, within State institutions, most of the production carried out by the prison industries can be performed by workers with little or no skill. Inmates typically produce license plates, signs, soap, concrete blocks, mattresses, and prison garments. Others work in canneries on the State farms and in rock quarries or at other outdoor manual labor. While some advanced programs for vocational training are found in several State prison systems, these are generally pilot efforts and involve only a small percentage of the inmates.

As a result of these research findings, the Secretary of Labor ordered a determination of "the feasibility of developing, under the provisions of the MDTA, a comprehensive program of vocational guidance, remedial education, skill training, and job referral for prison inmates who can benefit from such training." Shortly thereafter, the Department arranged a working conference (held early in 1966) with correctional administrators and representatives of the Departments of Justice and Health, Education, and Welfare to determine the institutional needs and operating dimensions of a comprehensive program. Findings from the Department's research studies discussed earlier in this chapter served to stimulate discussion of a wide variety of problems con-

nected with initiating new programs, including the critical need for national data on the nature and extent of vocational training in State and local prisons. Possible additional action programs are under consideration.

RESTORATION OF YOUTH THROUGH TRAINING

The high potential of prisoner rehabilitation through vocational training and placement geared to job market realities was demonstrated in a Department of Labor project which provided research on the results of training in data processing jobs for young prisoners at Rikers Island in New York.[2] This project, known as Restoration of Youth Through Training (RYT), was jointly sponsored by the New York City Department of Correction, which financed the training aspects, and the Department of Labor, which paid for the research on the training program and for the placement and counseling services during the crucial readjustment period which follows the trainees' release from the institution.

A principal outcome of RYT has been the demonstration that technical training for high-demand occupations can be successfully undertaken and completed by young inmates under short sentences in large penal systems. The study demonstrated further that undereducated and poorly motivated young prisoners can be given intensive vocational training under these conditions.

In RYT, approximately 250 young male offenders between the ages of 18 and 21, all high school dropouts, were divided into 2 matching groups, experimental and control. The control group received the usual institutional treatment, while the experimental group was taught to operate IBM data processing equipment, such as reproducers, counter sorters, and alphabetical accounting machines. In addition, the RYT experimental group received basic literacy instruction (or remedial reading) and self-management counseling on such matters as personal grooming and managing of personal finances. After release, they received placement, family referral, and other supportive services at a specially established facility in Harlem. The project was scheduled so that training could be completed as closely as practicable to release dates.

As is typical of local jails, this institution had a highly transient population—over 3,000 male youths were committed in an 18-month period to the custody of the city Department of Correction—with an average stay of 6 months. Living conditions were crowded; inmate contacts were mostly with other inmates; and only rarely were they exposed to the positive attitudes and behavior of persons from outside. The population was further typical of prison populations throughout the country in that the inmates generally came from socially disorganized backgrounds which did not provide them with the consistent training and personal discipline required in the day-to-day duties of a regular job.

The report on this project made additional observations which have implications for correctional vocational training in general. For example, jail inmates, particularly the younger offenders, are characterized by a "short-term psychology," which largely accounts for their difficulty in maintaining motivation toward relatively remote goals. Therefore, the training process should attempt to sustain motivation by providing short-term goals which can build gradually toward the achievement of more remote objectives. It should also provide for direct support to the training program by the custodial staff, especially in instances where a trainee's suppressed fear of failure—stemming from a lifetime of failures—leads to overt rejection of further training.

According to the study, inmates view themselves with ambivalence. They feel inadequate to deal with the responsibilities required by work and society. At the same time they may deny this feeling of inadequacy either by exaggerated claims of competency and confidence, which prevent them from facing the task of learning new skills, or by sporadic attempts to circumvent the rules by manipulating others for selfish purposes. Such actions are viewed as triumphs over the "system."

The personal limitations imposed by "short-term psychology" also underscores the importance of self-management training. Since success in personal management is vital to the inmates' future in the free community (hopefully within a new context of personal responsibility, job contacts, etc.), the project sought to preserve the benefits of

[2] "Restoration of Youth Through Training—Final Report," (New York: Staten Island Mental Health Society, Social Restoration Research Center, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

this training through postrelease supportive counseling in real-life situations where its relevance is apparent.

The study further observed that like vocational training in the community at large, job training within a prison setting should be offered for occupations in which jobs are available and should utilize equipment and processes which are not obsolete. Equally important, prison vocational training programs should be accompanied by intensive job development efforts in the community and effective coordination of community agency services available to the releasee. Difficulties in securing employer cooperation in placing graduates of this program demonstrated the need for wider recognition of the special employment problems of ex-prisoners and the importance of mobilizing a broad community effort on their behalf.

The study points out that growing community interest and involvement has been an important indirect effect of the Rikers Island project. Some improvement in regular institutional programs was noted while the RYT project was still underway. The project was visited by representatives from unions, management, and educational institutions, who worked with institutional vocational educators to help plan meaningful curriculum and training for all inmates.

One problem encountered by the project underscored the need for bonding assistance in the placement of ex-prisoners. The RYT project experienced difficulty in placing trainee graduates in financial institutions—the largest current source of employment in data processing jobs. These and similar experiences led to the 1965 amendment to the MDTA which provided the authority for bonding assistance in placing graduates of federally supported training programs, including trainees with prison records.

The research findings from these projects have led the Department to further testing of new approaches to training and rehabilitating prison inmates for productive jobs upon release.

E&D PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

In keeping with the Department's efforts to reach and train those groups most in need of help (see the chapter on Experimental and Demonstration Programs in part II of this report), four demonstration projects have been initiated for inmates or former inmates of correctional institutions. Experience to date in these programs reinforces some of the research findings of the RYT project and also demonstrates some effective techniques in motivating and training young prisoners.

One experimental and demonstration program was instituted for 200 young male prisoners at the Lorton, Va., Youth Center, a correctional institution for the District of Columbia.[3] This project was designed to demonstrate the combined effects of intensified counseling, vocational guidance, and job development on problem youths who would otherwise enter the labor force with severe employment handicaps. The project included: (1) Evaluation of trainees' vocational potentials through testing and counseling; (2) group counseling sessions for personal adjustment, orientation in job-finding techniques, and pointers on how to behave in job interviews and on the job; and (3) skill training in high-demand occupations in the Washington, D.C., area.

Although final results of the Lorton project are not yet available, it is known that the project has been successful in placing its graduates in jobs which utilize their training. Also, it has attracted wide public interest. Efforts are now underway to incorporate major portions of its program as permanent features of the institution's regular operations.

An experimental and demonstration project at the Draper Correctional Center (Elmore, Ala.), sponsored by the Department, is offering training and related services to 200 male inmates aged 16 to 26.[4] Intensive counseling and basic education courses complement the vocational training program.

A prominent feature of the Draper training is the use of programed instructional materials for academic courses and the classroom phases of job training. The project also uses prevocational training as both a counseling and a motivating device. Prospective students are given information on job and salary possibilities and the placement and progress of previous students. The

[3] Motivation for Occupational Rehabilitation in Employment, an experimental and demonstration project supported by the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

[4] Experimental and Demonstration Manpower Project for Training and Placement of Youthful Inmates, an experimental and demonstration project supported by the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

students are allowed to perform some task in a training course prior to making a final choice between courses.

According to the project's findings, this prevocational training, together with the intensive testing and aptitude assessment, makes the trainee more receptive to the remedial education, especially since he has some assurance that the instruction will be geared to his personal needs. It may have been the absence of this type of motivation for learning which led him to drop out of school in the first place. The remedial courses at Draper utilize programed instructional techniques to overcome deficiencies in language arts, mathematics, and other areas of knowledge essential to a particular occupation.

As in other projects discussed in this chapter, the Draper program also calls for extensive job development and enlistment of community groups and institutions in the placement effort. As of February 1966, 114 trainees had been graduated and 80 had been released and placed, 71 of these in training-related jobs. Only 10 of the 80 trained releasees had been returned to prison.

Other demonstration projects supported by the Department feature services to released offenders as aids to readjustment to life in the free community.

The District of Columbia Youthful Misdemeanant Program seeks to disprove the widespread view that the short sentences for misdemeanor convictions do not allow enough time for rehabilitative services.[5] Like the Rikers Island project mentioned earlier, this program attacks the "short sentence dilemma." It serves offenders sentenced for as little as 10 days.

Although information is not yet available on the results of this program, it is clear that its innovative features have broad potentials; in addition to focusing on misdemeanants, the largest prison group, it has created formal, official ties with community institutions which can continue rehabilitation.

The Department is supporting another experimental and demonstration project which may have strong implications for the future training of exprisoners, because it takes place in a community vocational rehabilitation facility identified with service to the handicapped.[6] The contractor for this project has undertaken a program to rehabilitate 150 unemployed boys and girls who have Juvenile Court Records of one or more convictions.

Along with testing, counseling, and training, this project will feature the use of 3 to 4 weeks of sheltered workshop assignments for inculcating proper work habits, attitudes, and motivation as a prelude to on-the-job training.

CONCLUSIONS

The role of public vocational services in the rehabilitation of ex-prisoners can be expected to grow with increasing recognition that ex-prisoners are one of the most vocationally handicapped groups in our society. Their underutilization in employment is a loss not only to themselves, but to the economy as well, and this loss is compounded when the ex-prisoner returns to prison. The average cost of confinement alone, per year, excluding related costs such as those for arrest and trial, is estimated at $2,000 to $2,500 per man.

The Department's interest in effective vocational training for prison inmates has been welcomed by administrators in the correctional field at all governmental levels. Departmental staff members recently served as panelists in a National Institute for Correctional Administrators, and the Secretary of Labor has contributed to public understanding of these issues through a filmed interview for a television documentary on training and employment problems of prison releasees.

Obviously, more effective efforts are needed to break the cycle of recidivism. Prisoners must be reached through both improved in-prison programs and postrelease supportive services. The Department is contributing to this effort through a coordinated program of: (1) Research which identifies the scope of a problem and the avenues to its solution; (2) experimental and demonstration projects which serve to test and refine the methods; and (3) MDTA and other training, and new job development and placement techniques which will incorporate the findings of both research and demonstration programs in a broad attack on the problem.

[5] Employment Programs for Youthful Misdemeanants, an experimental and demonstration project being conducted by the United Planning Organization and the D.C. Department of Corrections, and supported by the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

[6] A Project to Vocationally Rehabilitate Unemployed Youth with Juvenile Court Records, an experimental and demonstration project being conducted by Goodwill Industries, Inc., in Springfield, Mass., and being supported by the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research.

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part IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

The Changing Economy: Manpower Implications

Information on economic and technological developments which influence the American economy is vital to the consideration of new manpower policies and programs. Viewed broadly, technological change consists not only of innovations in production processes, but also includes organizational and structural changes that may arise from or precede innovations in industrial hardware. The economy today is much more complex than it was three or four decades ago. Enterprises and occupations unheard of only a few years ago have been created. At the same time, older forms of enterprises have declined and former occupations have become obsolete.

No view of the economy is adequate unless it takes account of new and changing forms of enterprise in which the Nation's goods and services are produced and distributed. One of the most significant changes in recent years, with broad implications for manpower policy, is the rising importance of the "not-for-profit" sectors of the economy. Most notably, this growth has occurred in education and health services, trade associations, and in the activities of Federal, State, and local governments.

This chapter discusses the Department's research efforts on economic and technological change on two levels: (1) The broad manpower effects of the changing composition of our economy; and (2) the significance of technical innovations on productivity, employment, and occupational requirements. The important economic role of the not-for-profit sectors in the Nation's total economic activity is explored first. The bases for the virtual transformation of the economy in recent decades are examined in terms of the forces of change. The impact of such changes on the growth of output and employment is studied for possible implications for manpower policy. Consideration is given to the need for revision of traditional economic models which have not adequately recognized the increasingly important role of the not-for-profit sectors of the economy.

The impact of technological change on manpower goes beyond such broad changes as the emergence of new forms of enterprise and shifts in importance economic sectors. Change can also consist of the introduction of new machines which affect the level of employment and the content of jobs. Two relatively recent technological inno-

vations which have already touched employment and job content are numerical control of machine tools and automatic data processing. These innovations have been studied in the Department's research program and the results of this research are presented in the second part of this chapter. Also discussed in this section is a study of the feasibility of developing an early warning system for forecasting impending skill changes and shortages resulting from major technological advances.

THE PLURALISTIC ECONOMY

The Conservation of Human Resources Project of Columbia University initiated a series of studies on "Manpower Resources and Economic Growth" in 1962 under a contract with the Department of Labor. The project is pursuing various approaches in order to learn more about the relationships between the Nation's manpower and the level of economic activity. One approach taken by the project's staff was to appraise the extent and ramifications of the recent expansion of employment in the not-for-profit sectors, that is, in nonprofit institutions and in all levels of government.

The following report on this research for the Department is adapted from *The Pluralistic Economy* which is now available in book form.[1] The major findings of the study are presented and developed as faithfully to the published version as space permitted. Although quotation marks are not used, the language is that of the original text, except for transitional passages and summarization.

Summary of Major Findings

The single most important finding of this study is that not less than one-quarter of our gross national product is directly or indirectly attributable to the activities carried on by government and nonprofit institutions. Even more significant for its manpower implications is the associated finding that not less than one-third and possibly almost two-fifths of all employment is accounted for by the activities of these sectors. The principal reasons for the increased scale and scope of the not-for-profit sectors were attributed to the vastly enlarged role of the Federal Government in connection with the cold war, the enlarged activities of State and local governments in relation to education and other community services, and the growth of nonprofit institutions, primarily in the fields of health, education, and welfare.

The not-for-profit sectors have grown relatively more rapidly than the private sector in each of the last three decades. Considerable innovation was found in the entrepreneurial structures in the not-for-profit sectors as well as in their relations with the private sector. Also worthy of special attention is the corollary finding that the not-for-profit sectors play a strategic role in speeding technological advances and economic progress through their training and employment of professional and technical manpower.

Profit and Not-for-Profit Sectors

The conventional model of the economy has emphasized the importance of the private profit-seeking sector. The authors of *The Pluralistic Economy* believe that a more realistic model would include three principal sectors of enterprise: Profit-seeking, nonprofit, and government. The study suggests that our model of the economy must be broadened to make room for a greater consideration of nonprofit and governmental enterprise activities; that even though these sectors do not operate to make a profit, they are an integral part of the Nation's structure; that it is not feasible to consider the operations of any one sector of the economy without understanding its complementary relations to the other sectors; that the three sectors draw their resources and generally sell their output in the same markets; that the profit, government, and nonprofit sectors have been existing side by side from the very beginning of our history; and finally, that the not-for-profit sectors have accounted for an increasing share of the Nation's total economic activity.

The key differences between the private sector and the not-for-profit sectors are not in the economic activities which they undertake, but in whether or not they are organized to seek a profit from their efforts. While a distinction is often made between the social and economic utility of the

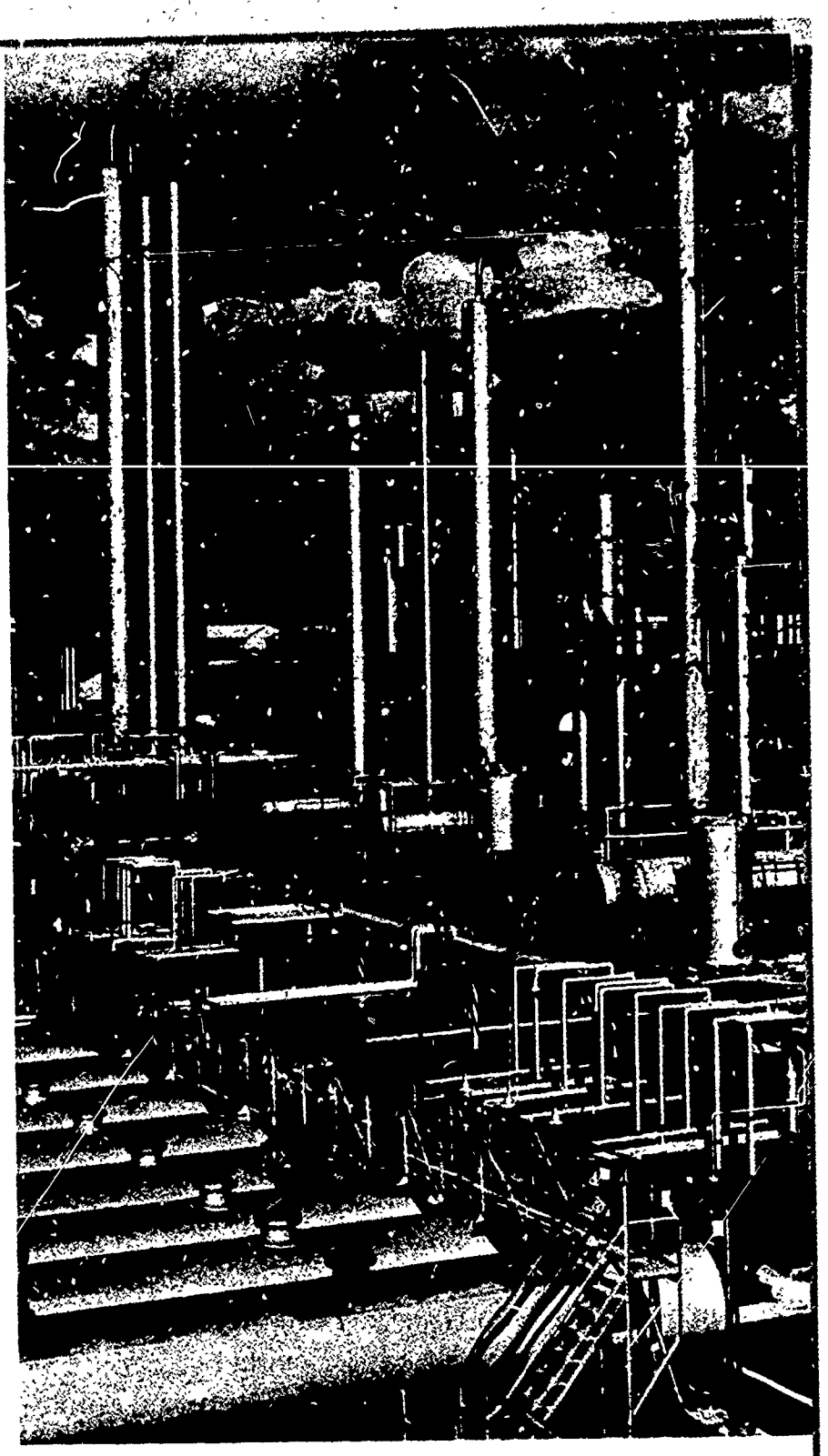
[1] See Eli Ginzberg, Dale L. Hiestand, and Beatrice G. Reubens, *The Pluralistic Economy* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training).

goods and services produced by private enterprises and those provided by nonprofit organizations, the study discloses a wide overlap. All three types of enterprise engage in the production of such basic services as communication, transportation, power, education, and medical services.

Governments and nonprofit institutions act like business concerns in mobilizing capital and other resources in order to produce goods or services as efficiently as possible, often with an aim to sell them to the consuming public, sometimes even at a price above cost. In point of fact, these "business-like" activities of government are substantial, as evidenced in the operations of toll roads and liquor stores which may realize income far in excess of their capital and operating costs. This is also characteristic of bridges, airports, auditoriums, convention centers, and other governmental facilities. In another related respect, the three sectors are similar in providing opportunities for key individuals to advance, since executives are not necessarily confined to one sector throughout their careers. Also, in each sector there is a hierarchy of jobs; some pay more than others, and some carry more prestige.

Forces of Change

Of the basic problems faced by the not-for-profit enterprise, the estimating of "demand" is underscored by the authors. In the private sector of the economy, the prospect of making a profit or higher profits is a signal that is usually, but by no means always, quickly responded to by entrepreneurs. It is much more difficult for government and nonprofit agencies to measure and meet the potential demand for their services. When goods and services provided by the not-for-profit sectors are given away or are sold at prices that are not closely geared to costs, it is difficult to apply the market concept of effective demand. A more appropriate concept would be that of "social need." But since "social needs" are vast and indeterminate and exceed the ability of government or philanthropy to meet all of them at any given time with the conventional resources at their disposal, the rate at which these institutions expand their operations is likely to be conditioned primarily by the willingness of the public to bear higher taxes or to make larger philanthropic donations.



The petrochemical industry—a pioneer in automatic processing.

Both government and nonprofit institutions have been expanding in the past several decades, and each continues to expand today. But the relative growth of the sectors during the past three decades implies that the forces operating toward expansion were more powerful than those which exercised a restraining influence. According to the study, the determining factor was the ability of the Federal Government to respond—and to respond quickly—to the major domestic and foreign challenges.

Nonprofit enterprises are heavily concentrated in three fields: Education, health, and hospital services. In education, nonprofit institutions at every level, and particularly at the college and uni-

versity level, have likewise demonstrated a high order of flexibility in rising to new challenges and opportunities. Several of the country's leading universities developed new organizations to cope with the very large research and development programs financed by the Federal Government. Many others adjusted their conventional departmental structure to make room for a vast expansion in their research and training. Graduate instruction in the sciences was transformed as a consequence of these changes.

In the field of medical care, a new structure was developed to provide insurance for hospital costs and quickly expanded to include professional services in hospitals. Few established industries have shown a faster record of growth. The voluntary hospital today is the fulcrum of the almost $40 billion health and medical services industry. The innovations in Blue Cross, Blue Shield, commercial insurance, and nonprofit hospitals together with the new relations that have come to be established between governments and nonprofit hospitals, both in paying for welfare patients and for assisting in construction, have underpinned the expansion in this sector. The crucial finding is that these innovations in the nonprofit sector have enabled the consumer to buy more health and medical services from both profit-seeking and nonprofit suppliers. Consequently, the rapid expansion of the industry has been supported primarily by enlarged private expenditures and facilitated by the new patterns of insurance. Nowhere can one find a clearer example of the interplay between innovation in enterprise structure and economic expansion.

While the most important transformation in nonprofit enterprise occurred in education and health services, there are a great many other examples of new activities—those carried on by trade associations. nonprofit clubs, cooperative housing ventures, community development agencies, the theatrical and musical groups—which contributed to quickening the economic pace.

The authors believe that the impact of the activities of nonprofit institutions on the private sector of the economy, as well as on the economy as a whole, has been, on occasion, of fundamental significance. Existing industries became obsolescent and new industries were established as a result of major breakthroughs in research in nonprofit institutions.

The influence and impact of changes also work in the opposite direction. Changes in the private enterprise sector are helping to transform the nature of nonprofit institutions. Marked changes are under way in the structure and functioning of many nonprofit institutions, particularly as more and more of them begin to shift their reliance from large-scale philanthropic gifts to the sale of services. Perhaps the most important observation, according to the authors, is that the government and nonprofit sectors and the business sector are becoming so interdependent that the differences among them are frequently more legal than economic. Many nonprofit organizations are directly involved in the production of services that are basic to the successful operation of both the profit sector and government; and in many instances they operate very much like private enterprises except for the advantages that accrue to them from tax exemption, which they usually return to the public by establishing a lower price scale.

Prospects for Future Change

The identification of the major factors that contribute to the growth of the not-for-profit sectors is important to the authors' discussion of prospects for future change in the years that lie ahead.

It is apparent that the New Deal stance toward enlarged functions for government at all levels, but particularly State and local governments, was reaffirmed after World War II. Included in these tasks assigned to government were longer periods of compulsory education, public works, and regional development. More recently, in addition to other broadened goals, government has had to cope with growing urbanization and increased concentrations of population. These developments have forced State and local governments to do more to create and maintain a tolerable environment within which more and more people can live, work, and play.

The growth in population and its concentration are likely to continue. The authors also believe that the forces that have operated since the early 1930's to increase the economic activities of government are likely to persist in the years ahead. But two caveats are in order. First, the tremendous expansion in employment and in public education is not likely to continue at the same rate

unless birth rates rapidly rise again or unless the opportunities for adult education are vastly enlarged. Second, the large contribution of the Federal Government to employment through its defense and related programs may level off if the international situation eases. New programs may be fashioned to take their place, but without them, the authors cannot postulate the growth of the governmental sectors at the same rate as in the recent past.

According to the authors, the situation is less clear with regard to the nonprofit sector. The probability of a continuing high rate of growth at all levels of nonprofit education appears likely. And this may be true also for health and medical services, although evidence is accumulating that established methods of payment may not support a continuing rapid growth. Nevertheless, nonprofit enterprise is likely to continue to grow at a rate no slower than in the recent past, particularly if government makes increasing use of nonprofit institutions in the furtherance of its programs.

The authors conclude that since the not-for-profit sectors have played an important part in the operation of our contemporary economy, prospects for future change pose questions of policy that relate to the relative progress of the private sector and the not-for-profit sectors. They note that in our pluralistic economy there is a constant feedback between the growth of the three sectors. Expansion in one almost inevitably stimulates expansion in the other. Therefore, a first question is to consider what might be done to stimulate the growth of the private sector. Three directions for action suggest themselves:

—The first is to shift more of the costs of innovation from the private to the public sector through government support of research on civilian products;

—The second is to improve the mechanisms for obtaining joint action by the three sectors so that many existing barriers to private investment can be removed. This would mean a wide range of efforts from speeding condemnation procedures for construction projects to building up strong research and development centers through the combined efforts of business, nonprofit, and government organizations;

—The third is to encourage the private sector through subsidies and other devices to start new enterprises, particularly in the service fields, which would use various groups of handicapped persons.

There is considerably more that government might do to speed enterprise and employment. There are a great many services that the public would welcome if it could obtain them at a price that is not prohibitive—cleaner and safer cities, more adequate educational, health, and recreational services, and expanded cultural opportunities. If government relies to a greater degree than heretofore on borrowing capital and charging fees, it will be better able to expand. But there are limits to such an approach. A large-scale expansion of government-furnished services would depend to a great extent on public tolerance of higher taxes.

The authors conclude their study with the following admonition: the progress of our economy depends on the efficiency of each of its three sectors—private, nonprofit, and government—and on cooperation and complementary action among them. No sector by itself can provide all of the jobs that will be required by our expanding labor force. The Nation has no option but to strive toward the accomplishment of a satisfactory level of employment. A responsible democracy adhering to its tradition and protective of its future will seek to provide jobs for all citizens who are capable of constructive work. Only such a democracy will be able to command the continuing support of its people.

INDUSTRIAL CHANGE AND ITS IMPACT ON MANPOWER

In the preceding section, a study of changes in the composition of the American economy concludes that the rising importance of the not-for-profit sectors is transforming the Nation's economic structure. While the changes described are primarily economic and social, they are intrinsically related to the technological changes that also affect industry and society. Technological innovation depends upon an appropriate economic and social environment. The reverse is also true.

Technological changes can result in significant changes in productivity, employment, and occupational requirements, and because of these, they have important implications for education, training, and industrial relations. The Depart-

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ment's research program seeks to identify, measure, and evaluate the benefits and problems of changing technology and to devise methods of anticipating both labor-generating and labor-displacing developments.

The studies discussed in this section underscore the role of technological innovation in the continued growth of the private sector of the economy. The first is a study of the impact of electronic data processing (EDP) in a major white-collar industry—insurance; the second reports the outlook and implications of numerical control (N/C) of machine tools, a new technology that is being introduced in metalworking. The final study is an experimental and demonstration project which analyzes methods of forecasting the impact of technology on manpower needs.

Automation In Insurance

In order to determine the extent of computer usage, a mail survey was conducted of over 400 insurance companies which accounted for about 90 percent of industry employment.[2] Detailed information was collected in a second survey of computer users to determine the extent and pace of adoption of electronic data processing over the past decade, probable future developments, and their implication for employment and occupational requirements. Data were collected concerning past, present, and planned computer equipment and applications, occupations affected by EDP, future expectations concerning the major occupational groups in the company, and extent of shift work in the EDP unit.

This survey shows that insurance companies with over 80 percent of total industry employment (currently over 890,000) had installed computers by 1963. Companies with another 5 percent of industry employment had ordered computers or were using computer service bureaus. Computers may be used for a wide variety of insurance office functions, but generally only a few of the possible applications have been made in each company, and the integration (or consolidation) of separate applications into a total system has moved slowly.

In the future, companies plan to utilize their electronic data processing complex more fully by bringing all major functions within a master EDP system, thus eliminating once-fragmented files and the attendant multiple handling. At the same time, companies are moving toward linking their many field offices and agencies more closely with the home office EDP system, through rapid data transmission by telephone and telegraph circuits. Lastly, insurance companies are simplifying the input end of recordkeeping by installing optical scanners which automatically read information off such forms as premium bills, and prepare it for subsequent computer accounting.

EMPLOYMENT EFFECTS OF EDP

Survey results suggest that after companies acquired EDP, their office staff continued to grow but at a slower pace. Office employment continued to expand in computerized companies because of the increased volume of business. It grew, however, at a constant rate in companies which had recently installed computers; and at a declining rate in companies with 5 years or more of computer experience. It is reasonable to assume that these experienced computer users had completed their major conversion work and realized labor-saving results. On the other hand, companies with relatively new EDP systems were still in various stages of conversion and adjustment. In the next few years, these companies will be likely to experience the same cutback in the rate of office staff growth as the pioneering computer users, whose office staff may cease growing entirely.

Survey responses identified three occupational groups in which EDP caused declines in employment: Punch-card tabulating equipment operators, calculating machine operators, and routine recordkeeping clerks. In the future, it appears that keypunch openings may be reduced somewhat if expectations concerning automatic reading equipment are fulfilled. Remaining tabulating equipment operator jobs are expected to decline considerably. Clerical jobs in field offices may decline as a result of data transmission to and from the home office computer.

There were about 19,000 people working in electronic data processing units at the time of the survey (1963). They accounted for about 4 percent of total office staff in computerized companies. About one-fifth were in the planning group, systems analysis and programing; about one-seventh were computer and peripheral equipment

[2] *Impact of Office Automation in the Insurance Industry* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1965), Bulletin 1468.

operators; and slightly over a fifth were clerical workers (scheduling clerks, tape librarians, coding clerks, secretaries). The largest single group was keypunch operators, who comprise 37 percent of the EDP unit's staff. Those companies which installed EDP before 1957, and which have a full complement of EDP workers now, have drawn over 70 percent of this staff from inside the company. More than half the companies in the survey expected that EDP planning staff would be expanded during the period 1963–66, citing further computer applications and developmental work on total systems as their reasons.

JOB OUTLOOK IN INSURANCE

The study points out that insurance office employment will probably continue to grow over the next decade, but at a much slower rate than in the past. On the other hand, employment of insurance salesmen, who are not significantly affected by EDP, will grow faster. Factors which are contributing to growth in insurance services and employment are rising population (especially in the young, family-forming age groups); increased automobile and home ownership; and the growing complexity of legal and economic relationships between individuals and businesses. Markets for both personal and property insurance are expanding.

Rapid growth of office jobs in insurance, in the past, has provided many new openings each year for young girls graduating from high school. In the future, these entry clerical jobs will be less numerous, although the number of young women entering the labor force is increasing. In some cities, where insurance office employment accounts for a significant proportion of the clerical work force (Des Moines; Hartford; Omaha; Jacksonville, Fla.; Portland, Me.; and Springfield, Ill.), this early warning may be useful in counseling high school students.

Since the recruitment of young high school graduates is expected to taper off, high labor turnover—which provided the basis for attrition policies in adjusting the office work force to automation—may no longer be as useful in reducing excess office staff as it has been in the past. As EDP is extended to additional areas, problems of adjustment are likely to become more complex.

Numerical Control of Machine Tools

This study deals with a key technical innovation, still in a relatively early stage of development and commercial use, in the important metalworking industries of the economy.[3] The study was based on information obtained through a review of trade and technical publications and through discussions with producers and users of numerical control, and union officials.

Numerical control constitutes an advanced technique of operating machine tools automatically by means of coded instructions recorded in advance on punched cards or on magnetic or paper tape. Fed into a system of interpreting-control devices, the information from tape or card can, with little human assistance, control the sequence of machining operations, selection of the proper tool, speed and feed, flow of coolant, and machine positions. Once developed, the coded information—which is sometimes prepared with the help of a computer—can be stored for future use or used on another machine elsewhere to produce an identical part. Numerical control represents a challenging alternative to conventional machining techniques.

OUTLOOK FOR GROWTH

The report indicates that industry has been ordering numerically controlled machine tools in increasing numbers since the mid-1950's when N/C became commercially available. A total of 3,365 N/C machine tools were shipped by producers to domestic users between the beginning of 1954 and the end of 1963, with about 64 percent of these shipped in 1962 and 1963. About 55 percent of all the N/C machine tools were shipped to six major industries engaged in small batch metalworking production: aircraft, metalworking machinery, special industrial machinery, general industrial machinery, machine shops, and construction equipment. Every major metalworking industry, however, has at least one numerically controlled machine tool. Some experts foresee 12,000 installations of N/C by 1967. However, even when this optimistic estimate is reached, N/C machine tools

[3] *Outlook for Numerical Control of Machine Tools* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1965), Bulletin 1437.

will still represent but a small fraction—about 1 percent—of all machine tools presently installed.

Numerical control makes possible substantial reductions in unit labor requirements, depending on the complexity of the design of a part, number of parts produced, number and type of operations involved, type of machine tool formerly used, etc. Some examples cited in the report disclose unit labor savings of 25 to 80 percent over conventional methods, resulting from various factors. One numerically controlled tool can replace several conventional tools and their operators, while tooling and setup time is reduced because tape controls virtually replace the use of jigs and fixtures. Machining time is shortened since the operator no longer has to interrupt the work cycle to adjust the machine or to recheck the blueprint for information, and time to repair rejects and inspect parts is greatly reduced because of the greater accuracy in reproduction of parts. Although maintenance, planning, and programing increase man-hours, they are usually more than offset by labor savings in the other operations.

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK

The study points out that reduced labor requirements per unit of output made possible by numerical control imply the possibility of a slackening in the longrun growth of employment in the metalworking sector, but the full extent of the manpower impact is difficult to measure. It depends on such factors as the future levels of metalworking output, the speed with which numerical control is introduced, and the changing unit labor requirements made possible by continuing improvements in this new technology. Such factors will also determine the extent of the impact on the growth in employment of each machining occupation, but some occupations are likely to be affected more than others. On balance, the outlook is for continued growth.

Occupations required for conventional machining—part designers, method planners, tooling men, and machine tool operators—are still needed for numerical control, but their functions, relative level of skill requirements, and decision making responsibilities change. A new occupation of "part programer" has been created to work out the instructions which are punched onto the control tape or cards in code. Since much of the work required of an operator of a conventional machine tool is carried out automatically by coded tape instructions, the duties of an operator of a N/C machine tool tend to become monitoring and watching, but with added responsibility because of the much higher cost of equipment. Maintenance becomes more important in terms of skill requirements and responsibility, requiring the servicing of the electronic circuitry as well as the tool's mechanical structure.

Thus the tasks and skills associated with numerical control require the development of new training or retraining programs. Currently, training is provided primarily by producers and users of equipment and usually involves retraining conventional machining workers. Although the next few years will not bring a universal changeover, the move to N/C is gaining momentum. Between the end of 1963 and of 1967, the study estimated, more than 50,000 persons will have had to be trained in programing, machine operation, and maintenance. The study underscores the advisability for vocational schools, apprenticeship programs, technical institutes, and other training institutions to consider incorporating instruction in numerical control into their curriculums.

As the diffusion of numerical control affects wider areas of employment, unions and management may find it necessary to give greater attention to measures for advance notice and preparation; for avoiding layoffs, for easing the burden of displacement, and for facilitating new employment for displaced workers. Moreover, changes in manufacturing practices stemming from widening introduction of numerically controlled machine tools may pose a variety of questions for collective bargaining, notably determination of wage levels and wage criteria for new jobs, necessary revisions in incentive plans, jurisdictional problems, and means and standards of selection of personnel for new jobs.

TECHNOLOGICAL FORECASTING

As technology progresses, some occupations are eliminated, others decline in importance; new occupations come into existence, job content changes, and new skills are required. Educators and others

concerned with planning training programs need information about present and future job opportunities and requirements in our rapidly changing society. Such information would be valuable to industry and unions, for school system program and curriculum planning, and for program and policy development within the Department of Labor.

In January 1965, an experimental and demonstration project was launched by the Department of Labor as part of its continuing efforts to refine and improve its methods of determining the impact of technology on manpower needs. Two industries and an industrial function common to many industries were studied in depth. They were the health services industry and the telephone industry, and design and drafting.

The objectives of the industry studies were:

1. To test and evaluate the effectiveness of an interview-oriented approach to forecasting and measuring the impact of technological change on manpower needs; and

2. To identify the likely impact of technological change on manpower in selected industries during the next 10 years.

Specifically, the study was designed to test the use of extensive industry interviews to determine whether this technique could provide manpower forecasts accurate enough to serve as an early warning of impending change.

The information and insights gained through interviews with employers, union representatives, equipment manufacturers, and others qualified to estimate technological change were combined with statistical and other data obtained from secondary sources. Informed estimates and value judgments were used to supplement the statistical information where necessary. Significant technical developments were identified, the rates at which these are expected to be introduced were projected, and the manpower implications were assessed. Finally, projections relating to employment, occupations, skills, and job content during the 1965–75 period were made.

Among the important questions that were considered relating to technological change as a factor in manpower forecasts were: (1) How does technology affect manpower needs—in terms of overall industry employment, occupational shifts, and skill and job content requirements; (2) what methods can be used to forecast the manpower impact of technology—to relate technological change to future manpower needs; and (3) what type of information about this impact is available and how useful is it? The results of this special demonstration program provide substantial clues for use in the further exploration of methods of analyzing and presenting information about the likely impact of technology on manpower needs during the next 10 years. Some of the technological changes studied and the kinds of questions about manpower impact raised during this program are discussed below.

According to the study, changes in future manpower requirements in the *health service industry*[4] are most likely to come from technological developments that reflect innovations in methods of caring for patients. The developments that will affect the industry's manpower needs during the next 10 years are clearly evident and many, in fact, are already being introduced in health service establishments. They fall into the following categories: (1) Equipment and techniques used in diagnosis and patient care; (2) developments affecting hospital supply and services; (3) improvements in hospital information handling; and (4) improvements in the organization and design of health facilities.

The study revealed that the development of automatic laboratory equipment is especially significant. Many new items of equipment, including computers and other advanced electronic equipment, are now being introduced. It is estimated that 25 to 50 percent of the laboratory workload in most medium-sized and large hospitals has now been turned over to automatic instruments, and that in 10 years this figure will climb to 75 percent. These devices will not substantially affect the skill requirements of laboratory personnel although the ratio of medical technologists to laboratory assistants is expected to increase. The productivity of laboratory personnel will be substantially increased, permitting a smaller projected addition in personnel to handle the very large expected increase in the numbers, kinds, and complexity of tests. While this laborsaving effect of automated

4 "Technology and Manpower in the Health Services Industry, 1965–75" (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

equipment will only partially offset the continuing shortage of medical technologists, it will free highly trained persons from the drudgery involved in manual procedures and release them for new and important tests and more difficult patient problems.

The study identified many new occupations and specialties emerging in the health service industry. These include electronic data processing specialists of various kinds, inhalation therapists, prosthetic technicians, medical electronic engineers and technicians, and ward supply technicians. Training programs for several of these occupations have already been initiated and more will be needed to meet the demand during the next decade.

According to the study, technological change in the *telephone industry* is expected to continue to result in productivity increases and occupational shifts.[5] In spite of a nearly 75 percent increase anticipated in the number of telephone calls between 1964 and 1975, the number of telephone operators will rise only slightly—and although the operator's job content will continue to change as a result of the new innovations, the skill level required will remain essentially the same. However, because of the need to replace women who leave the occupation, the number of job opportunities is expected to be relatively large. On the other hand, the new electronic switching systems which will be introduced over the next decade operate on principles quite different from those used in existing switching systems, and the skill and training requirements for some central office maintenance and repair men will change significantly. In spite of some rise in productivity, the need for these persons will increase by more than 10 percent by 1975 A much higher level of skill and extensive electronics training will be required to handle nonroutine equipment repairs, but at the same time the self-diagnostic features of the new equipment will require a lower skill level of many other central office repair personnel.

In the *design and drafting area*,[6] the researchers found that a number of important innovations are being introduced. These include the electronic computer, manually and automatically controlled drafting machines, cathode ray tube scanners and recorders, microfilm devices, and graphic man-machine consoles. Although the utilization of each of these developments will have some impact on manpower requirements, the major effects upon draftsmen and engineers will result from the use of time-shared computer systems which can both accept and produce graphical information. Systems of this kind will still be in limited operational use by 1975. Thus, the need for draftsmen will continue to rise over the next decade with little change in job content as a direct result of the introduction of these technological changes; after 1975, however, when the full impact of time-shared, graphics computer systems is felt, the need for draftsmen is likely to be reduced substantially. The specific effects of these systems upon engineers are less clear at this time, but many believe these developments will introduce a new era in engineering design.

CONCLUSIONS

The studies discussed in this chapter describe the manpower implications of some important economic and technological trends in the American economy. These changes are opening up new employment opportunities and creating new types of jobs. At the same time, technical advances are displacing some workers and have rendered some occupations obsolete.

The current expansion of the not-for-profit sectors of the economy stems largely from the growing need for more and better education and health services and a more tolerable environment within which an expanding population can work and live. Moreover, the not-for-profit sectors play a strategic role in stimulating technical advances in the profit sector through their training of professional and technical manpower.

Manpower changes brought about by technological developments can be foreseen with a fair degree of accuracy for a period of at least 5 and in most cases 10 years ahead. And it appears that much valuable information needed to establish programs for facilitating manpower adjustment can be gained by studying and evaluating current manpower changes.

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[5] "Technology and Manpower in the Telephone Industry, 1965–75" (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

[6] "Technology and Manpower in Design and Drafting, 1965–75" (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, in process).

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IV
MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Estimates of Future Manpower Requirements

A major element of continuing manpower research activity has been to provide projections of future manpower requirements. Such projections are necessary as a useful framework for many types of programs, including the planning of education, vocational guidance, and training for young workers and the development of other Government programs to meet changing occupational requirements.

In the Department of Labor, work on manpower projections has been centered largely in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Several parts of the Bureau's program contribute to the development of these projections.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' current projections of employment by industry and occupation have been based primarily on the occupational outlook research program. Under this program, the Bureau produces the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* and related publications and conducts studies of employment trends in the various industries, factors affecting the demand for each industry's product, and the outlook for employment. Extensive interviews are conducted with industry leaders to evaluate developments in market demand and changing occupational requirements within the industry. Data on the occupational composition of all industries are systematically compiled in an occupation-industry matrix for the United States, and this is used to estimate current and projected employment in each industry by occupation.

The Bureau's research on technological change is designed to provide information on a number of key topics: The nature of the impending changes in equipment, products, processes, and materials; the current status of these innovations; economic advantages and disadvantages of the change; possible trends in usage over the next 2, 5, or 10 years; implications for labor productivity, collective bargaining, and manpower planning.

More recently, the Department has participated in the Interagency Growth Study Project, currently exploring the implications of alternative rates and patterns of economic growth on a number of problem areas, particularly problems of manpower utilization. Guidance for the Growth Project is provided by an interagency coordinating committee, chaired by a representative of the Council of Economic Advisers. Central staff for the project is located in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. A major emphasis of the current program

is the development of projections of the economy to 1970 under alternative assumptions regarding rates and patterns of growth.

The projections use the latest input-output tables prepared by the Office of Business Economics, U.S. Department of Commerce, as the framework for the estimates. These tables show the sales and purchases among all industries in the economy and can be used to trace the direct and indirect impact of an initial change in demand on all sectors of the economy.[1]

An essential characteristic of the projections is that employment is directly and explicitly linked to detailed projections of demand by product, service, and industry of origin. Thus, the projected structure of demand—the demands for consumption, investment, government expenditures for goods and services, and the net exports—is converted by use of input-output relationships into projections of direct and indirect industry output requirements. The industry output estimates provide the basis, along with projections of hours of work and industry productivity, for estimating industry employment requirements.

Some of the preliminary results of the industry and occupation projections are included in the Manpower Outlook section of the *1966 Manpower Report of the President.*[2] These findings, however, show only one of many possible patterns which are consistent with high employment in 1970—others resulting from different unemployment assumptions and patterns of final demand and implying somewhat different distribution of employment are being developed. A report covering the various projections will be released later in 1966.

One of the significant findings of the preliminary projections is that in the crucial area of manufacturing—the major source of blue-collar employment—the prospects are for moderate increases in employment which, although not as large as the substantial gains of 1965, reflect a reversal of the 1957–1963 period when there was no increase at all.

During the past year, in addition to the information included in the *1966 Manpower Report of the President*, two major publications based on the research program described above have been issued. The first was prepared for the National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress and will be published as an appendix volume to the Commission's report in the spring of 1966.[3] The report represents a single comprehensive evaluation of the effect of economic change on manpower requirements by industry and occupation for the United States. By looking ahead for 10 years, it provides an "early warning" of the impact of economic forces upon the various types of occupational skills.

Another recent Departmental study appraises many major changes in technology and evaluates their effects on patterns of employment and issues requiring labor-management adjustment.[4] Forty major industries with close to 60 percent of the nonfarm employment are covered. The emphasis is on identifying and analyzing major new processes, machines, products, or materials that will probably have an impact over the next 5 to 10 years in an early stage of application.

1975 MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS

Among the significant findings in the report prepared for the Automation Commission were the following:

1. Given the projected growth of the labor force, the assumptions made imply that 88.7 million persons would be gainfully employed in 1975, about 18.3 million more than in 1964—an average increase of nearly 1.7 million annually. (This compared with an average annual employment increase of 1.1 million between 1960 and 1965, and 1.8 million between 1964 and 1965.)

2. While it is possible to assume a variety of patterns of economic growth, depending on shifts in investment and consumer expenditure patterns and changes of emphasis in Government programs, the type of economy projected in this report is one characterized by an extension of the basic patterns which developed in the postwar period. Farm employment is expected to decline by about 1 million and all other employment is expected to

[1] See Jack Alterman, "Interindustry Employment Requirements," *Monthly Labor Review,* July 1965, pp. 841–850; and "Studies of Long-Term Economic Growth," *Monthly Labor Review,* August 1965, pp. 938–987.

[2] See the *1966 Manpower Report* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor), pp. 39–45.

[3] "America's Industrial and Occupational Manpower Requirements, 1964–75," being prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics as a supplement to *Technology and the American Economy* (Washington: National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress, January 1966).

[4] "Technological Trends in Major American Industries," (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics), Bulletin 1474, in process.

increase by more than 19 million, for a net employment gain of 18.3 million. For nonfarm goods-producing industries—manufacturing, mining, and construction—a moderate increase in manpower requirements [5] of 17 percent is projected, a rate of increase somewhat faster than during the 17-year period, 1947 to 1964. Requirements in the service-producing sector as a whole—trade, finance, government, services, and transportation and public utilities—are expected to increase more rapidly (by 38 percent), and also somewhat faster than over the past 17-year period.

3. The effect of these industry employment trends will be to continue recent trends in the industrial composition of the economy. Government and services will increase sharply as a percent of the total; contract construction and trade will also increase their share. On the other hand, the relative importance of manufacturing and transportation and public utilities will decline slightly, and the relative size of agriculture and mining will continue to decline sharply. Taking the broad goods and services sectors as a whole (and including agriculture, with its self-employed as well as its wage and salary workers, in the former sector), the goods sector will decline from about 41 percent of all jobs in 1964 to 36 percent in 1975; the service sector will increase its share of manpower requirements from 59 to 64 percent. (If self-employed persons in nonagricultural industries were added to the above comparison, the services sector would have a slightly larger share in both years.)

4. The occupational requirements of the economy will change substantially as a result of both the differential growth rates of industries and the technological developments and other factors affecting the occupational requirements of each industry. Concern has been expressed that the impact of technological and industrial change will drastically curtail employment opportunities for less skilled workers. The principal conclusion of this study, which takes into account the major technological changes in American industry that can be identified and makes a careful appraisal of their potential effects on employment, is that the *overall demand for less skilled workers will not decrease over this 11-year period, although it will decline somewhat as a percentage of the total.* Needs for laborers (except farm and mine) in 1975 will be roughly the same as in 1964, although they will decrease from 5.2 to 4.2 percent of total manpower requirements. About 3.2 million additional service workers will be required, and their share of total jobs will rise from 13.2 percent to 14.1 percent. Nearly 2 million more operatives will be needed; their share will, however, decline from 18.4 percent to 16.7 percent. An overall decline of more than 900,000 in the employment of farmworkers is expected and the share of farm jobs in the total is expected to decline from 6.3 percent to 3.9 percent.

The greatest increase will be for professional and technical workers; more than 4½ million additional personnel will be required. The white-collar group as a whole is expected to expand by nearly two-fifths and to constitute 48 percent of all manpower requirements in 1975. The blue-collar occupations are expected to expand at less than half this rate, and will make up about 34 percent of all requirements. A rapid expansion in requirements for service workers is anticipated—a 35 percent increase in employment.

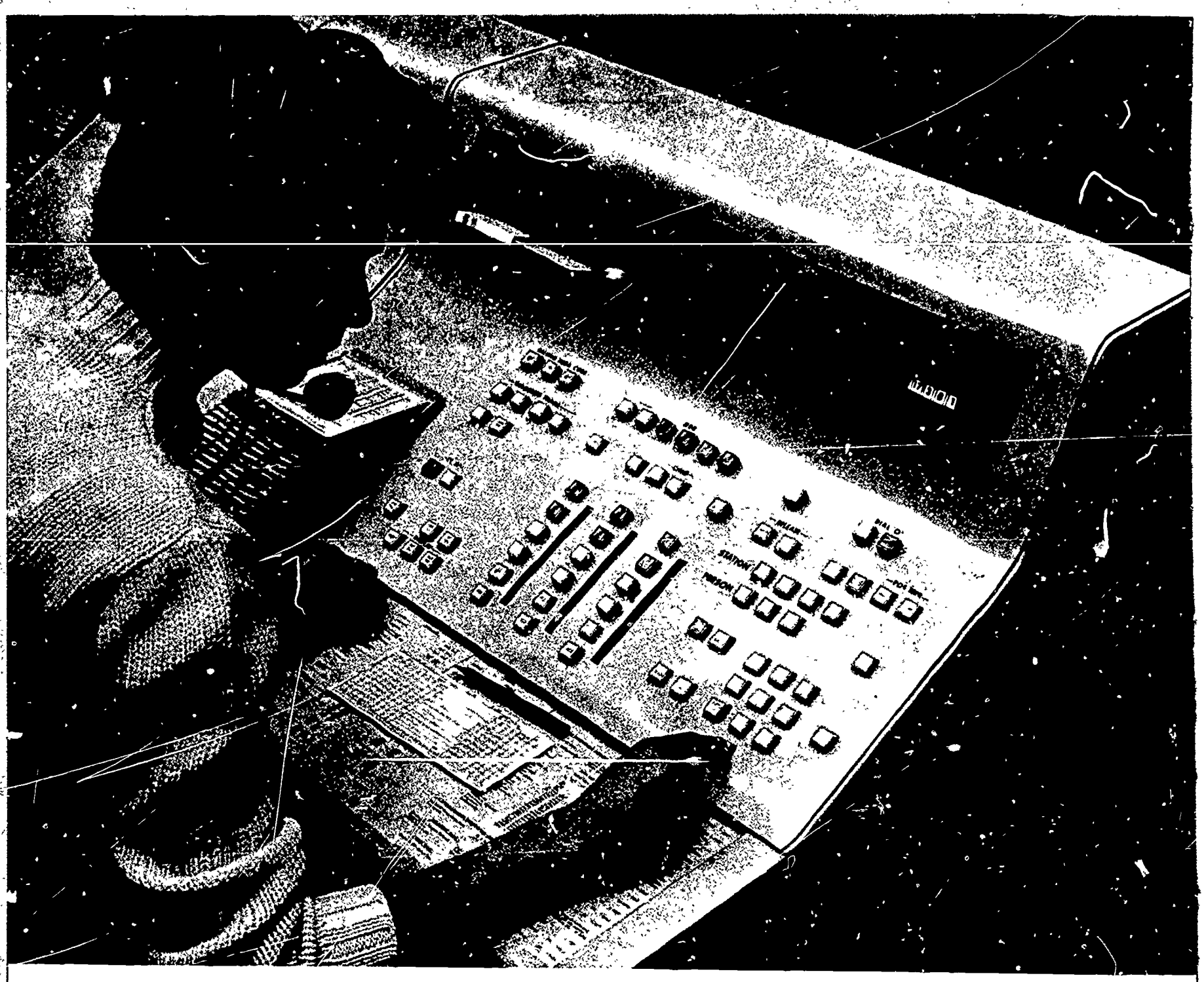
5. These changes in occupational requirements have significant implications for certain groups in the labor force.

Nonwhite workers are disproportionately concentrated in less skilled occupations that now have higher-than-average unemployment rates and that are not expected to grow as rapidly as the more skilled occupations. If nonwhites do not gain access to white-collar jobs and skilled jobs at a faster rate than they have in recent years, they will continue to have more serious unemployment problems than white workers.

Young workers, another group with high unemployment rates, are also concentrated in the slower growing less skilled occupations. The supply of young workers will grow faster in the next decade than the labor force as a whole. If we are to avoid continued high unemployment rates for youth, industry may have to take such steps as using younger workers as aides or assistants to the relatively more scarce, mature and experienced workers, or promoting them faster to more skilled jobs.

Women workers, on the other hand, although they too are increasing faster than the labor force

[5] It should be noted that the following discussion of industry employment trends is geared to estimates of wage and salary employment, whereas the overall figures on farm and nonfarm employment cited above relate to total employment, including wage and salary workers, private household workers, the self-employed, and unpaid family workers.



Modern technology requires new jobs and new skills.

as a whole, are already concentrated in the more rapidly growing white-collar occupations. If no changes take place in their proportionate share of jobs in the various occupations, they will have no more serious employment problems than they now have. It should be noted, however, that men are increasingly competing for some of the jobs women have traditionally held in such occupations as teaching, social work, and library work.

TRENDS IN TECHNOLOGY

Among the significant findings in the study of technological trends in major American industries were the following:

1. Computerization of data processing will continue to be introduced in many industries. First used commercially in 1951, digital computer systems numbered about 25,000 by mid-1965. In the future, major advances in auxiliary equipment, such as data communication systems and optical character recognition machines, will make it possible to utilize more fully the tremendous potential of high-speed computers. Six industrial sectors currently have the bulk of the installations: Federal Government, insurance, banks, aerospace, electrical machinery, and motor vehicle industries. Among office workers, electronic data processing (EDP) will reduce requirements per unit of output for employees engaged in repetitive routine work. At the same time, EDP requires new higher skilled jobs, such as programers, systems analysts, and console operators.

2. Another rapidly developing area of technology is the use of instrumentation of increasing

complexity for measurement, sensing, data acquisition, and control. The study found new and increasing applications of instrumentation in such diverse industries as foundries, flour mills, motor freight depots, and cigarette factories. In processing plants the trend is toward greater centralization of instrument readings and use of remote controls and computers. About 400 computers were installed by early 1965 for process control in oil refineries, paper mills, textile finishing, steel, cement, and electric power plants, and oil pipelines.

One effect of increasing instrumentation and process control is to transform the plant operator into a skilled watchman of control panels, with duties demanding patience, alertness to malfunctioning, and a sense of responsibility for costly equipment.

3. Some remarkable advances in communications are creating new products for the consumer and improved methods of business operation. Rapid copying machines, color television, video tape recorders, teaching machines, and inplant communication systems are some of the new products from research and development activities in electronics. High-quality international communications via communication satellites may have far-reaching impacts on the scale of business operations. Progress in communications technology is opening up areas for employment growth, especially for engineers and other highly trained personnel involved in design, manufacture and utilization of electronic equipment.

4. In the important metalworking sector, a number of improvements hold promise of greater productivity. Speed, power, and precision of metal cutting and metal forming tools are being constantly improved. New concepts, such as numerical control and electrochemical and electrical discharge machining, which have been developed largely as a result of research by the aerospace and electronics industries, will require extensive retraining for both supervisors and workers.

5. Increased mechanization along traditional lines will continue to be an important factor in raising productivity in many industries. Faster machine operation, larger size equipment, and automatic loading, unloading, and lubrication will reduce significantly the amount of labor required per unit of output. Textile, meatpacking, coal, construction, lumber, printing, and other industries will be increasingly mechanized. As fabricating operations become highly mechanized, new ways are sought to achieve labor savings in materials handling. Increasingly, the function of the factory worker becomes the patrolling of a battery of automatic machines, requiring him to be able to respond quickly to any breakdown in the flow of production.

Extensive mechanical changes are also being introduced in transportation industries. Railroads are striving to win back traffic losses through use of expanded piggyback services faster trains, and specially designed freight cars. Practically all aircraft of scheduled airlines will be medium- and large-size jets by 1970. In water transportation, automated ships, container vessels, and more powerful engines are part of an extensive modernization program. These changes will probably result in continued rapid gains in output per man-hour in all modes of transportation.

In energy and power production, substantial reductions in labor and capital requirements per unit of output could result from interchange of electric power on a regional basis. New energy sources and greater efficiency will continue to be developed to meet the ever-increasing demands of a highly urbanized economy.

6. The development of new products, processes, and materials continues to be an important aspect of technological change. From chemical research laboratories come a wide range of manmade materials that compete with wood, steel, glass, paper, cotton, and leather. New processes, such as continuous casting and the basic oxygen process in steel, are improved to yield lower costs. While such product innovation undoubtedly contributes to employment growth, it may also cause industrial shifts, displacement, or readjustment difficulties for many workers.

The two studies underscore the fact that virtually all industries and occupations will be affected directly or indirectly by technological and other economic changes. The pace of change will be more rapid in some than in others, depending on the structure of the industry, nature of the occupation, and many other factors. Automation will become increasingly important in many industries but improved operations along more traditional lines of development will continue to affect the industrial and occupational composition of the work force.

Studies of this type can prove a valuable tool in planning education and training programs, in vocational guidance, and in the development of manpower policies by management, labor, and government—all directed to facilitating the adaptation of the skills of the work force to the future needs of American industry. To the extent that these studies can successfully project future trends, they can become an important factor in pointing the way to maintaining a high employment economy without the damaging effects of either shortages of critical skills or surpluses of idle manpower.

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part IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

International Manpower Research

In 1965, the Labor Department supported a number of studies of manpower developments and programs in foreign countries. These studies focused on the active manpower programs of the countries of Western Europe where the stage of industrial development generally is comparable with that of the United States.

Most countries of Western Europe have experienced spectacularly rapid rates of economic growth and extremely low unemployment rates in the last decade. However, pockets of unemployment exist in almost every country and there are numerous manpower situations from which the United States may draw valuable lessons. The highly industrialized countries of Western Europe have faced a variety of manpower problems in recent years: Redundancy (a surplus of workers arising from the elimination of jobs) stemming from rapid industrial change; the need for adaptations in vocational training programs; the retraining of those whose skills are inadequate for current jobs; the upgrading of skilled workers to meet new demands of industry; the resettlement of workers from depressed areas; and the bringing of jobs to workers in those areas.

There has been little uniformity in the strategy with which these problems were attacked, and therefore a variety of programs and policies dealing with manpower problems similar to our own are available for study and appraisal.

Three comparative studies of manpower policy administration are discussed in this chapter. The first is a Department of Labor staff study of manpower policies and programs in five European countries, published early in 1966. The second is a Department-financed study of apprenticeship practices and trends in nine countries by the International Vocational Training Information and Research Center, published by the International Labour Organisation in 1966. The third study, *Retraining and Labor Market Adjustment in Western Europe*, is a review of the experience of seven European countries by Dr. Margaret Gordon of the University of California, published by the Department of Labor in 1965.

EUROPEAN MANPOWER POLICIES

To give greater focus and direction to our own active manpower policy development, the analysis of manpower policies and programs in France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Sweden, and West

Germany examined points of difference among the countries and the United States.[1] A minimum of attention was given to the political, economic, and social history of the countries, since the purpose was not to explain the reasons for differences. The relationship of manpower policy to economic, monetary, and training policies was examined. The organization of the manpower agencies and their relationships with other governmental agencies, as well as their functions in the development of manpower policy, were also considered. Primary attention was given to the functions performed by these agencies in implementing policies for developing manpower, creating jobs, and bringing the two together.

The study revealed that manpower is frequently the key element in national economic and social policy. Since the end of World War II, western industrial countries have faced dilemmas arising from the relationship of the goal of full employment to other national objectives. Measures to achieve full and freely chosen employment often conflicted with, as well as complemented, efforts to reach other objectives. The effectiveness with which manpower was utilized and the adjustment made to technological, economic, and social change was a major determinant of the rate of economic growth, and, consequently, the level of employment. On the other hand, rapid economic growth frequently changed the industrial and occupational composition of employment and unbalanced the demand and supply of manpower, particularly for specialized skills. Thus, when manpower is scarce, the maintenance of stable prices and favorable trade balances may require rationalization of production and technological changes to obtain desired output of goods and services.

Conflicts between manpower policy and other economic and social policies have led to accomodation in most countries, although the method of arriving at that accommodation varies from country to country. Monetary and fiscal policies have been shaped partly by employment considerations and have been used to promote full employment. Conversely, manpower policy has been built on flexible and positive programs to both accelerate economic growth and overcome concomitant manpower dislocations.

[1] "Manpower Policy and Programs in Five Western European Countries: France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Sweden, and West Germany," (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research), Manpower Research Bulletin No. 11, in process.

The welding of manpower policy with other economic and social policies in most of the countries studied made possible an integrated approach to broad national objectives. With the stress on full employment as a national goal, manpower agencies were given a powerful voice in the formulation of economic and social policy. The methods of coordination vary among the countries. Public works are used in several of the countries to combat cyclical and seasonal declines in employment. Fiscal and monetary policy are applied in several countries at an early stage of economic downturns to stimulate job creation.

Attention is given to the future demand for manpower and the availability of workers in attempting to reach a balance between supply and demand. The employment service in most countries plays a key role in matching workers and jobs. The manpower policies appear to reflect a belief that programs for upgrading manpower or creating jobs can be most efficient when supported by a well-informed professional employment service. The training of adults for employment has become a permanent part of the manpower program in each of the five countries, although the type and organization of the training varies among the countries.

Manpower Administration

The scope of authority given to manpower administrations varies among the European countries, depending upon the nature of the manpower program and the governmental structure.

A few brief observations on manpower policies in the several nations will highlight the varying nature of these programs. In Sweden, for example, maintaining a high level of employment is assigned top priority by a consensus of the Government, the major political parties, the trade unions, and the employers' federations. Thus, although Sweden is concerned with preserving its competitive position in world markets and with improving its high standard of living, it has tolerated mild inflation for the sake of full employment. In the Netherlands, where international trade plays a vital role in the economy, the annual economic review gives careful attention to full utilization of manpower resources as a prerequisite of successful international competition.

Similarly, France has incorporated manpower objectives into each of the four national economic plans adopted since 1947. In West Germany, problems of manpower adjustment incident to economic reconstruction and the absorption of refugees focused attention on manpower utilization as an element of economic and social policy. Great Britain has recently undertaken long-range economic programing in which a commitment to full employment plays a major part.

Full employment ranks with rapid economic growth, stable prices, and a favorable balance of payments as a prime objective of economic policy in each of the European countries studied, and measures to achieve these goals appear to be somewhat better coordinated in Europe than in the United States. The improvement of productivity and the better utilization of manpower through training and relocation, for example, are usually regarded as essential tools of economic policy.

Information developed from operating programs and the results of research on manpower and labor force problems are used frequently by policymakers at all levels in developing and administering manpower programs. Forecasts of available manpower and future requirements used in determining policy in some countries rest not only on demographic and employment trends, but on systematic accumulation of information on job vacancies and impending layoffs. Various systems for reporting job vacancies have been developed, and exchange of employment and vacancy data between local offices is frequent. The manpower administrations of each of the countries make extensive use of local and national data on current and prospective employment. In Sweden, such information provides the signal required by the Labor Market Board before recommending selective monetary and fiscal measures to counter increases in unemployment.

Concerned with the problem of redundancy, the European countries studied have developed various techniques for alerting the public employment services to impending labor displacements. Advance notice of layoffs is usually required, and publicly supported training programs provide the retraining when workers lose their jobs through the introduction of new technology and plant conversion. Increasing recognition of the need to retrain redundant workers by public means is evident in all Western European countries.

Creating Jobs

When the need arises, standby public works are used in three of the countries to offset cyclical or seasonal decreases in employment. In the Netherlands, a special arm of the employment service prepares and initiates projects which will provide additional employment to combat seasonal unemployment. Many of the public works also are initiated when considered necessary by the employment service to overcome cyclical unemployment. Similarly, in West Germany, unemployment insurance funds may be used to provide jobs on public works projects in lieu of making unemployment insurance payments. The Swedish Labor Market Board controls the use of standby appropriations for public works, and may initiate projects ahead of schedule in either a seasonal or a cyclical downturn in employment. It may also delay the beginning of a scheduled project if there is a shortage of manpower for the work.

There has been considerable experience in the use of incentives for economic development to encourage the location of jobs in underdeveloped areas and discourage further growth in crowded urban areas. In Great Britain, the Board of Trade must approve the location of large, new, or expanded industrial establishments and can provide some financial aid in certain locations.

France uses a system of loans, interest, subsidies, and tax incentives to guide industrial locations. In Great Britain, West Germany, and the Netherlands, there are programs to encourage investment and industrial growth in areas where manpower is available. In Sweden, the Labor Market Board can influence the location of industrial enterprise through its authority to approve loans, provide grants, and train labor.

Matching Workers and Jobs

In addition to the program for attracting industry to areas where unemployment is relatively high, all of the European countries studied utilize measures to induce workers in depressed areas to relocate where manpower is in demand. Both the Netherlands and Sweden provide special travel and subsistence allowances as inducements for temporarily unemployed persons to meet needs for seasonal labor in other areas. The Dutch are encouraging the concept of full-time employment for

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agricultural workers and are using their adult training program to give these workers skills which they can use both on and off the farm. Compensation from unemployment insurance funds helps to keep German construction workers on the employers' payrolls during bad weather in the winter, rather than letting them become seasonally unemployed.

In all of the countries studied, provisions are made for financial aid to unemployed workers who are willing to move to another area to take a job. There are allowances for travel expenses for the worker and his family, payments to cover the cost of moving household goods, and in some cases a resettlement allowance to help defray the expenses of selling one home and buying another. The Swedish Government even purchases the homes of workers who move. In addition, several countries provide an allowance for both the worker and his family to cover the added expense of maintaining two households if he cannot move his family promptly. Similar allowances are available in several of the countries for trainees who enroll in a training center away from their home area. The European Coal and Steel Community and the European Economic Community have also provided financial aid to improve workers' geographical mobility.

The key role in matching workers and jobs, however, falls to the employment service in all of the countries except France. Each country provides vocational counseling to older workers through the employment service. Referring workers to training programs is as common a function as job placement.

EUROPEAN APPRENTICESHIP

The investigation of *European Apprenticeship* was prepared under contract with the Department of Labor by a research team from the International Vocational Training Information and Research Center (CIRF) and other sections of the Human Resources Development Department of the International Labour Organisation (ILO), Geneva.[2]

2 *European Apprenticeship* (Geneva: International Labour Organization, International Vocational Training Information and Research Center (CIRF), 1966), CIRF Monograph, Vol. 1, No. 2, for the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training.

An active manpower policy focuses major attention on the improvement of human resources, including the careful planning of the training of young entrants to the labor force. This study of contemporary apprenticeship practices and trends in eight European countries (Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom) is concerned with training in companies regulated by contracts of apprenticeship and supplemented by related instruction at school. The study sought information on the rules and conditions of training of 2½ million boys and girls in these countries and how the programs are being influenced and adapted to rapid technological changes. It is in these countries that most of the developments in apprenticeship schemes in Europe are taking place. For information the members of the study team contacted government authorities, employers' and workers' organizations, and public and private bodies concerned with vocational education and the apprenticeship programs in the several countries.

The employment of youth is becoming more of a problem in Europe as greater numbers of young people enter the labor force each year. All of the countries recently have increased their emphasis on basic education; some have added 1 year of compulsory schooling. The traditional age for labor force entrance is affected by the rise in the legal school-leaving age and by the increase from 8 to 9 years in the amount of required schooling. But most European young people still leave school before completing their secondary education.

The CIRF–ILO research team investigating practices and trends in European apprenticeship found that the prime aims of the apprenticeship programs are: The protection of youths against substandard training and the disruption of established wage standards through the use of lower-paid apprentices; the extension of general and technical education of youth to assure continued advancement; and the provision of vocational training. The newer concepts of apprenticeship call for a training period for a minimum of 3 years to give the youth time to grow from adolescence to adulthood and to bridge the transition from school to working life.

The essential nature of European apprenticeship programs is not new and the basic principles have gained overall acceptance. Apprenticeship

practices are internationally more standardized than they were 30 years ago.

All apprenticeship training, both theoretical and practical, is now given in almost all countries within the hours of a normal workweek. The details of the apprenticeship, such as trade regulations, trade descriptions, standards of training, and programs of examinations and methods of control, are spelled out in the written contract. The apprenticeship contracts are regulated by public authorities and employers' and workers' association representatives, as they have been for many years. In many occupations the training programs and their administration have changed little over the years in spite of rapid technical, social, educational, and economic changes.

Forces outside the apprenticeship systems are bringing about changes which influence apprenticeships. Because there has been a shortage of young people in all countries until recently, employers have been willing to train apprentices in spite of the high costs. The population explosion has found the middle and secondary schools lacking space for a large proportion of European young people who wish to enter. Thus, a majority of all school-leavers in Europe who can qualify go into apprenticeship; only a relatively small proportion are willing to go straight from school into employment without undergoing some form of recognized training. In Germany, over 89 percent of all school-leavers under 18 years old go into apprenticeships of 1 to 3½ years; in Switzerland, it is 68 percent of the boys and nearly one-third of the girls. The dropout rate for apprentices is insignificant in all countries.

Within the rigid, traditional framework of the apprenticeship, dynamic and rapid changes in training are taking place to meet technological and other changes in the companies. Small artisan and retail shops are decreasing. Middle-sized and large-scale organizations are growing in numbers. Many industrial and commercial establishments with little interest in apprentices before World War II now train the majority of them. Apprenticeships are becoming concentrated in a small number of trades and the training received no longer necessarily determines the future occupation of the apprentice.

Because of technological changes, many trades are becoming dead end. Industrial and commercial apprentices have lost their close connection with the trade. Only a small proportion of those who complete apprenticeships remain as skilled craftsmen: Some just fill in time until they can secure adult jobs; others become unskilled workers in industry; a few go on for higher technical training or take advanced training to become supervisors. Changing career structures are making it no longer possible to retain a career monopoly for journeymen. One of the major problems is whether enough apprentices can be recruited who will go on to become master craftsmen or to do supervisory work.

The tradition of apprenticeship as the principal means of providing technical and vocational education remains unbroken. It is nearly impossible to move into technicians' jobs and supervisory levels without first completing an apprenticeship. However, the rapidly increasing demand for technicians has forced educational authorities in many countries to modify the requirement of full craftsmen training for entry to technician-training institutions.

Another problem faced by those administering European apprenticeship programs is the lower average intelligence of trainees coming into apprenticeships in almost all countries. Youths with more intellectual ability now have opportunities for remaining in school longer. As noted earlier, the traditional age pattern for apprentices is also changing. Instead of entering at 12 or 13, most apprentices begin their training at age 14, and few, later than 16; usually they have completed the apprenticeship and taken their examinations by age 18 or 19.

Since the workweek has been shortened, and all training and related education is given in most countries within the workweek, there is less time to train the older, less-qualified apprentices. Yet, the results on the recent examinations are superior to those of a few years ago.

In each country, the authorities are re-examining the content of the required related instruction, the methodology used, and the timing of this instruction in relation to the actual skill training. Recently, the vocational schools have taken on a new role here. Fifteen years ago they gave only related instruction, generally in the evening. Now the schools teach theory plus basic training in important aspects of the work and in skills which are too difficult to teach on the job. Concentrated

courses in large, centrally located, well-equipped schools are being developed. As a result of these changes, finding and training teachers for the apprentices are major problems in each country.

One of the most important trends is the increasing interest being taken by industrial and commercial employers, as well as by employers' and workers' organizations, in promoting and improving methods of training apprentices. The associations are cooperating with public authorities in establishing vocational schools. Many employers' associations have their own training officers to guide and administer training for members. The associations have set up central institutes for preparing and modernizing training syllabi, teaching aids, and programed instruction.

Employers pay the apprentice his full allowance during the hours spent in the vocational school as well as in on-the-job training. They emphasize that what is paid is not a wage but a stipend or allowance for training and study, well below the average wage for an adult worker in the trade.

Interplant training centers, away from the dangers and pressures of the general activities of the company, have been set up in a number of countries. These programs make it easier for apprentices to transfer from school to working life. The basic skills can be better and more systematically taught under the close supervision of an experienced instructor using the most efficient teaching methods and aids. It is also easier for the apprentice to acquire good working habits in these training workshops.

The trend in Europe is toward greater concentration of the supervision of apprenticeship programs in the hands of national, regional, state, or local authorities. It is becoming less a matter of policing and more of consulting and persuasion. With the increasing costs of apprenticeship, employers are tending to train only those in a few highly skilled trades where shortages exist. In many countries, it is feared that the Government may have to take on all training of apprentices.

The Europeans interviewed by the CIRF–ILO research team believe that only a well-balanced apprenticeship program can provide the skilled workers needed by industry and that the apprenticeship programs will retain their dominant position in all countries. Inefficiences once existed in the apprenticeship systems in Europe and it was possible to improve them without much change in their structures. Now these possibilities seem to have been largely exhausted, and it is felt by many of those interviewed by the CIRF–ILO research team that basic changes in the apprenticeship structure may be needed if healthy, dynamic development in training workers is to continue.

The European Economic Community is working on means of coordinating and improving training throughout the Community. The new Industry Training Boards in Great Britain are developing improvements in training within each individual industry. Research groups in each of the European countries are seeking solutions to pressing organizational and pedagogical problems relating to the apprenticeship programs.

RETRAINING IN WESTERN EUROPE

To implement a fully productive, high-employment program, an active manpower policy also embraces the retraining of workers to meet changing demands for skills. To provide information for our own policy planning, arrangements were made for a survey of European practices.

The study of European experience in retraining, made by Dr. Margaret S. Gordon of the University of California under contract with the Labor Department, is a comprehensive review of Western European government-sponsored retraining programs for the unemployed and of the relationship of such programs to other manpower adjustment policies.[3] The investigation concentrates on seven industrialized countries with active retraining programs and manpower problems resembling those of the United States: Belgium, France, West Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. Unlike the United States, most Western European countries experienced low levels of unemployment and manpower shortages in the early 1960's. Therefore, this study examines their manpower supply-demand situations in the late 1940's and early 1950's, a period more comparable to the current one in this country. The institutions operating in Western Europe in the 1960's are also examined for answers to United

[3] Margaret S. Gordon, *Retraining and Labor Market Adjustment in Western Europe* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, August 1965), Manpower/Automation Research Monograph No. 4.

States policy and program problems. Numerous European government officials were interviewed, as well as employers' and workers' representatives, and published materials were used to round out the findings of this study.

In summarizing her work, the author concludes that the most important lesson to be drawn from an examination of the postwar development of retraining programs in Western Europe lies in the fact that European countries have come to accept government retraining programs as a permanent instrument of manpower policy, as valuable in a period of manpower shortage as in a period of unemployment.

Another lesson for the United States according to Dr. Gordon is that the early warning systems and subsidies for retraining of persons threatened with unemployment have been important in handling displacement in Western Europe. She urges that these policies and techniques receive more careful study and consideration in the United States. In her findings Dr. Gordon noted:

> In recent years, a number of countries of Western Europe have adopted legislation or developed policies aimed at anticipating problems of labor displacement, through early warning systems and subsidies designed to encourage the retraining of workers threatened with labor displacement before actual dismissal occurs. Close relations between the public employment service and the management and labor community have also played an important role in encouraging concerted and effective attacks on problems of labor displacement in local communities in such countries as West Germany and Sweden.

Although the European retraining programs were originally related to civilian employment of veterans, war workers, and other groups displaced by the war, another important purpose was to increase the employability of the unemployed and to relieve the shortage anticipated in certain occupations. Retraining was regarded as a permanent instrument of manpower policy rather than a means of transition to a peacetime economy. Training of adults for new or changing vocations has become a permanent part of the manpower administration of each of the countries. In some of them, the manpower authorities are also either wholly or partly responsible for the vocational counseling of youths still in school and for placing them in jobs where they can receive training when they are ready to leave school.

Retraining programs are generally a function of the labor ministry, but the administration of the programs differs from country to country. In Belgium, France, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, the training is done largely in government training centers. In West Germany and Italy, agreements with other agencies for carrying out training courses are used.

In France there are more than 100 adult job training centers, most of which are operated by a tripartite organization under the aegis of the Ministry of Labor. Training is open to employed workers who wish to improve their skills as well as to the unemployed. The criteria for admission, however, screen out most prospective trainees who are over 35 years old. Instruction is concentrated in the more skilled, technical and semiprofessional occupations, and accelerated training methods permit the completion of most courses within a year.

Sweden recently stepped up the pace of training, and over 1 percent of the Swedish labor force is now being retrained annually. Instruction is being given in a wide variety of occupations, many of them in trade and services. The Labor Market Board chooses the occupations in which training is to be given and cooperates with the educational authorities in developing the program of instruction, but the Ministry of Education either gives the instruction or arranges with a private training institution to do so. Training is open to adults who have been displaced or who are threatened with the loss of their jobs. The length of training varies with the occupation, and most trainees can enter a course at any time.

Great Britain is now developing a new scheme of industrial training under the Industrial Training Act of 1964, which makes each industry responsible for developing and financing a training program to meet its specific manpower needs. Forecasts of manpower and training needs for each industry are essential to the new British scheme. As a part of this developmental work, the Ministry of Labor, in consultation with the industry and the trade unions, is reviewing the duration of apprenticeship in various trades and the use being made of new training techniques.

The Netherlands has been one of the pioneers in the use of programed instruction material. Trainees are permitted to enter the course at any time and to work at their own pace. The Netherlands also has the highest upper age limit for trainees of any of the countries studied. The de-

mand for graduates of the Dutch training centers is determined from forecasts based on past employment trends.

Dr. Gordon emphasizes the need to keep in mind the economic and demographic differences between the United States and the European countries—in industrial structure, area, density of population, labor force participation, and economic growth rates—as influences on the shaping and administration of manpower policy. For example, geographic mobility of workers probably is a less vexing problem in Sweden, which is about the size of California, than in the United States, which is spread over 23 times as much land. However, other factors such as availability of housing may influence worker mobility in the United States as it does in Europe. Differences in the relative number of farmworkers can account for different training and placement policies. Indeed, as Dr. Gordon points out, manpower policy based on the experience of extraordinarily low unemployment for prolonged periods might be expected to differ appreciably from a policy directed toward reducing high unemployment.

The author also reminds the reader that there are cultural and social differences, as well as differences in the structure of government, which influence manpower policies and programs. Some of the Western European countries studied have encountered manpower problems associated with ethnic, racial, or religious minorities, but these problems have rarely approached the magnitude of the Negro employment problem in the United States. Despite temporary difficulties, each country has successfully employed and assimilated migrants from other countries—a task greatly facilitated by prevailing manpower shortages which demanded the use of foreign workers. Also, the geography of Western Europe is so compact that the use of foreign workers to overcome manpower shortages is often a ready tool.

Furthermore, policy is subjected to a different type of public review under a parliamentary type of government than it is in the United States, and the ruling party or coalition controls—albeit sometimes by exceedingly slim margins—both the executive and the legislative branches of government. In addition, the structure of government in the Western European countries lends itself to some types of manpower programs that are difficult to accommodate in our Federal-State system. Although Sweden, for example, gives authority over its employment service to County Labor Market Boards, standards and procedures are uniform throughout the system and special services deemed to be in the national interest are provided as easily as those oriented toward local problems. Lastly, the sharing of administrative responsibility with the interested economic groups (e.g., management, unions, educators, and local authorities) in several of the European countries tends to spread understanding and support of manpower programs, as well as to keep lines of communication open.

There are marked contrasts between those retraining programs in which efficiency—the selection of trainees having the highest training potential—is the predominant objective and those in which emphasis is placed on providing opportunities for the disadvantaged. Increasing the employability of the disadvantaged results in higher costs per trainee and lower placement rates. The choice of programs which each country must make depends on relative values placed on conflicting social and economic goals. There are some limits to how much of a solution retraining can be to the problems of the individual with poor preparation for work.

Dr. Gordon warns that the existence of international differences manifestly precludes any uncritical borrowing of manpower institutions. Rather, the author's aim was to recognize, although not analyze, these differences as a background for whatever lessons we may learn from a study of manpower policy and administration in certain countries of Western Europe. As Dr. Gordon observes in this connection:

> . . . structural changes in the occupational and industrial distribution of employment in Western Europe have been somewhat similar to those in the United States . . . Thus Western European countries are being impelled toward adaptations in both their vocational training and retraining programs which are relevant to the American scene. Finally, it is becoming increasingly clear that the speed of technological change is creating an environment in which retraining and other labor market adjustment policies are likely to be accepted as permanent needs in industrial countries, irrespective of the state of the labor market at any particular time. It would appear that the United States must look forward to continuing concern with retraining programs even though it succeeds in reducing its unemployment rate substantially below recent levels. Many of the considerations entering into the framing of retraining policies in Western Europe today may be highly relevant to American problems in the future.

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Part IV

MANPOWER RESEARCH PROGRAMS

Applications of Manpower Research

Sound knowledge about manpower problems and public understanding of manpower issues are prerequisites to the intelligent utilization of our human resources. Through research, the Department is using public resources to develop the information needed to attack these problems vigorously and efficiently.

In keeping with the need for a continuing updating and improvement of manpower programs, the basic research efforts authorized under title I of the Manpower Development and Training Act have been meshed with the Department's experimental, demonstration, and pilot projects to provide action-oriented information and guidance to the Department's operational activities.

One of the most rewarding aspects of the Department's research efforts is their impact in shaping new programs and improving operational activities of the Department. Beyond the direct and more visible results stemming from the research program are the secondary or multiplier effects gained through the stimulation of efforts to develop our human resources on the part of public and private organizations throughout the Nation. Some of these direct and indirect impacts of the Department's research are discussed in this chapter.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO ACTION PROGRAMS

Translating the results of research into action programs requires a constant feedback of information between the research staff and operating personnel. One recent example of the successful linking of research and action is the Department's efforts to utilize job training in the rehabilitation of prison inmates. The Department's research program and experimental and demonstration projects have led to a direct action program which will provide occupational training and skills for prison inmates so that they can reenter the labor force as productive workers. Prison inmates will receive training in job skills under a new national program initiated recently by the Secretary of Labor.

When the Department issued its research findings on *Training Needs in Correctional Institutions* and preliminary results from experimental

and demonstration training programs for prisoners, the Secretary announced:

> I am asking the Manpower Administrator to determine the feasibility of developing, under the provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act, a comprehensive program of vocational guidance, remedial education, skill training, and job referral for prison inmates who can benefit from such training. Such a program would be properly developed through cooperation with the Department of Justice and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Early in 1966, a Conference of Correctional Personnel and MDTA training officials met to plan how to launch this program at local, State, and Federal levels.

In addition to activating this major national program for skill training, Departmental projects in the correctional field have stimulated action by State and local authorities to improve their own skill training and job development programs for inmates. The Rikers Island Restoration of Youth Through Training (RYT) experiment, the Lorton Reformatory and the Draper projects have become models for correctional and training officials seeking to institute similar programs in other correctional institutions.

In New York City, where RYT is based on Rikers Island, a new and enlarged vocational education and skill training program—Social Restoration of Youth Through Training—is underway with support from the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The research contractor of the original RYT project has also been asked to suggest, on a citywide basis, new approaches to prisoner rehabilitation based upon the RYT experience. A citizen's committee of representatives from labor, management, and the public, originally set up to help RYT, is now more broadly involved in advising city authorities on the types of education and training courses that should be established in city correctional institutions. This committee also seeks to enlist public support and to develop jobs for released prisoners.

One of the less visible but vastly important effects of the Department's innovative projects for prisoners has been the focusing of public attention on the inability of releasees to get jobs because of their difficulties in obtaining bonds which indemnify prospective employers. As a result, the Manpower Development and Training Act was amended in 1965 (sec. 105), authorizing the Secretary of Labor for the first time to develop experimental and demonstration projects for the bonding of persons to whom employment is denied for reasons other than ability to perform, including difficulty in securing bonds.

The Department's research program on manpower needs is also being used in a very direct and operational activity related to the new Vocational Education Act. Under this legislation, the Department has responsibility for supplying occupational and labor force information to local vocational educators to be used in developing and planning educational programs. In order to meet this responsibility the Department is depending upon current and past research on manpower needs.

The Department is working with local educators and local Employment Service representatives in improving the occupational information to be supplied to vocational education. A small number of conferences are being called so that research analysts, educators, and job market specialists can exchange information and discuss the special problems they face in implementing the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

The conferences have pointed up the need for specialists in the Employment Service offices in order to improve manpower forecasting in cooperation with employer, union, university, and other community resources. In addition to the continuing work in this area by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Department expects to utilize the results of contractual research studies on manpower projections and also to encourage universities to establish courses in manpower projection research, especially at the graduate level.

In this connection, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Employment Security are cooperating in preparing a special guidebook as an aid to educators and manpower specialists with responsibility for making forecasts at State and local levels.

The Department has examined the manpower policies and measures of other countries for insights and experience that can be instructive for our programs. The study of European apprenticeship, prepared for the Department by the International Labour Organisation has helped to stimulate a reexamination and appraisal of the apprenticeship system in this country. See the chapter on International Manpower Research.) Policymakers in the United States can profitably examine the implications of the European experience, which shows that a majority of all school leavers

who can qualify go into apprenticeship. While the Department has undertaken a few research studies concerning apprenticeship, more support is expected to be given to improving this very important training channel.

DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

If the "proper study of mankind is man," the major preoccupation of the Department's research must be the individual worker. Many of the studies described in this part of the report reflect the growing emphasis on the individual as the focus of research in the Department's programs.

The Department's current intensive efforts to "reach out" and help the economically and socially disadvantaged to become productive workers stem in part from the research findings of the Norfolk project completed in 1963. This research study, carried out in conjunction with one of the Department's first demonstration projects, uncovered some of the communication and motivational problems that must be overcome in reaching and helping the most disadvantaged to acquire skills and find suitable jobs.

The study found that contact efforts and information programs on retraining need to be tailored to the target group. Potential trainees who were isolated from normal channels of communication by lack of education and extreme poverty were especially difficult to reach and enroll in the training program. Results of this study and similar demonstration projects have led to the human resources development program, which is being established by the Department in cooperation with civic, industry, labor, and government agencies in cities throughout the country. The approach is to develop a plan of action centered on the special needs and capabilities of each individual. The program seeks to bridge the gap between the disadvantaged individual and a suitable job by providing him with comprehensive manpower services from initial contact through counseling, testing, remedial education, training, job development, and postemployment services.

The Department's studies of work attitudes and motivations have sought to untangle the many complicated processes underlying motivation that form an important basis for shaping a person's approach to earning a livelihood. The motivational studies cited in the chapter on Man's Motives for Work suggest that training programs can best attract the disadvantaged young adult by finding means of overcoming skepticism about traditional social goals and their applicability to him. In short, some persons must be shown that it is possible for them to progress from education and training to a stable productive job.

This finding is reflected in the Rikers Island study of training for youthful offenders in correctional institutions. This study underscored the importance of supplementing job training with intensive followup services to parolees *and their families* after their release. Many of the experimental and demonstration projects have incorporated followup services for further testing of the feasibility of a broad variety of posttraining assistance to trainees from culturally disadvantaged backgrounds.

Assessing an individual's aptitudes, work interests, and skills by testing devices is essential to proper placement in job training and employment. The Department's test research program is presently devising instruments and test standards for persons with educational deficiencies, including the nonreader. The aim of this research is to improve placement in jobs and selection for training by eliminating guesswork and inapplicable standards in assessing the potential of the educationally disadvantaged.

The study of jobseeking behavior (discussed in the chapter on the Search for Work) has suggested a new role for the public employment service in helping laid-off jobseekers find jobs more quickly and efficiently. The Department has already taken steps to explore the possibility of providing job applicants with a list of firms who employ workers in jobs or skills similar to the applicants, regardless of whether these firms have registered vacancies with the public employment service.

This study also pointed out the influence of a callback on a laid-off worker's efforts to obtain another job. The findings suggest that it might be useful for the public employment service to verify the accuracy of such callback information with the worker's former employer and to give greater attention to those whose expectations of being called back were not justified.

The public employment service has taken a stronger role in the placement of college teachers through its convention placement facilities at professional society meetings. Dr. David G. Brown's

study of academic job markets (discussed in the same chapter) noted that these convention services are beginning to play an important role in the placing of college teachers, particularly for students seeking their first college teaching jobs.

The third edition of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* brings to educators, counselors, and other specialists in the manpower field a new and greatly improved tool for counseling, guidance, and placement functions. The functional classification of jobs into broad job families with similar requirements and working conditions, together with detailed information on each occupation listed, provides counselors and vocational advisers with a much needed tool for helping young workers make career choices and for matching workers with jobs.

MANPOWER INTELLIGENCE

An "active" manpower policy implies more than an affirmative approach to manpower problems. It also involves a concerted effort to develop the basic information needed to mount and support operational programs.

Several of the research studies discussed in this part illustrate the Department's efforts to improve its methods of gathering and analyzing manpower intelligence needed in the shaping and execution of policy. The study by the Conservation of Human Resources Project of Columbia University (reported on in the chapter on The Changing Economy) is contributing to public understanding of basic changes taking place in our economic systems. *The Pluralistic Economy*, which resulted from this Department-supported project, was published in book form by McGraw-Hill.

Studies of the manpower effects of technological innovations have provided important information about the nature of impending changes in products and processes. These studies have laid the groundwork for an expanded effort in forecasting manpower needs. They have also made an important contribution to the deliberations and findings of the National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress.

The work on manpower projections, summarized in the chapter on Estimates of Future Manpower Requirements, represents a major effort by the Department to improve the understanding of current trends and awareness of future changes affecting the industrial and occupational composition of the work force. This will make a major contribution to basic policy and program decisions on long-term objectives for education, training, vocational guidance, and other critical manpower issues.

The need for exploration of new methods of collecting manpower data and for the development of new concepts to define and analyze emergent problems is being given attention. For example, one methodological study was undertaken to attempt to obtain more information about hard-to-reach persons who may not be included in current estimates of the labor force. Some seemingly fruitful techniques for gathering such information were explored and found inappropriate, but other means of data collection which became apparent as a result of this study need to be explored. Further work along these lines will be aided by the failures and successes experienced in this study.

In 1965 the Department initiated the first major national effort to use a "longitudinal" approach to measure the changing labor force status of workers over an extended period. The survey is utilizing a large nationwide panel comprised of persons who will be reinterviewed over a 5-year period. New techniques of data collection and tabulation are being devised. The study is investigating the changing employment and mobility experiences of two age groups, men and women over 45 as they enter their later working years, and young men beginning their work careers.

The impact of research is not always readily apparent. When the Department of Labor cosponsored a Conference on the Problems of Rural Youth in a Changing Environment in September 1963, there was little evidence in the months that followed that the background technical papers were being put to any significant use. The Federal Extension Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture prepared a series of leaflets summarizing each of the background papers. Recently, the Department of Labor was advised by the Federal Extension Service that its rural manpower leaflets are being widely used throughout the country in an expanding, extension education program on the subject.

A broader public understanding of manpower issues—whether concerned with rural youth, disadvantaged urban youth, technological change, or any other issue affecting our human resources—must precede, in a democratic society, the shaping

of public policy and action to meet such problems. Manpower research can contribute to this understanding. Research can uncover new and changing needs; it can develop and test innovative approaches to meet these needs; and it can provide a more meaningful perspective to appraise the effectiveness of programs dealing with the consequences of economic and social change.

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[1] See page 214 for list of libraries and field offices.

[2] Joint sponsorship by Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, U.S. Department of Labor, and Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

part V

PROGRAM SUPPORT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

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part V

PROGRAM SUPPORT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Program Support and Community Involvement

The scope and variety of information and program support activities under the Manpower Development and Training Act have increased with the growth and broadening of manpower programs under the act. The 1965 amendments, research grants, and labor mobility and job development projects have required new efforts to acquaint the public with them. Similarly, the findings of manpower research studies and the program experience resulting from growth and new emphases in institutional, OJT, and experimental and demonstration training programs have had to be disseminated effectively to the appropriate audiences.

Many channels of information and approaches were used in 1965. They ranged from issuance of press releases to direct personal contact and participation in meetings and conventions. The bureaus of the Department conducted vigorous publications programs. Intensive information campaigns were carried out in conjunction with special programs, such as Project CAUSE. And the Department cooperated with various nongovernmental agencies, such as the National Advertising Council, to publicize significant features of the overall program.

A large part of the Department's information and program support function was carried out at the community level. Local public employment service offices and departmental field representatives, working with community groups and with local radio, television, and press facilities, conducted continuing programs to acquaint their communities with the nature and extent of local manpower problems and to encourage full community support of manpower programs.

The following chapter discusses more fully the information needs of the various target audiences, the techniques and approaches used in meeting these needs during 1965, and the success or failure of these efforts.

AUDIENCES AND APPROACHES

The Department of Labor, in meeting its responsibilities for developing programs of information and communication in support of manpower programs, provided research findings, operating experience, and program results for use by the Congress and by those directing manpower efforts. It made technical material and general information available to labor and management organizations

and to professional and technical groups concerned with manpower problems and programs. It worked with community action organizations to promote and organize support for manpower programs. It reached individual employers and potential trainees to explain how they could benefit from MDTA programs and to enlist their support and participation. And it reported to the public on the nature and accomplishments of the Department's manpower program.

Congress and Policymakers

The MDTA program has been characterized by legislative and administrative changes highly responsive to constantly changing or newly evident developments in the Nation and within the program itself. The Congress and the Federal officials responsible for establishing policies and administrative techniques to improve existing programs require a complete and accurate appraisal of national manpower development and of operating manpower programs.

The major vehicle for meeting this need is the Manpower Report of the President, which is submitted annually to the Congress. Accompanied by the Secretary's Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training, this is the most comprehensive and significant report in the manpower field. It annually informs the Congress—and the Nation—of broad manpower developments and needed actions. Nearly 20,000 copies of the third annual report were distributed in 1965. The fourth annual report was submitted to the Congress in March 1966. It discusses areas of urgent importance to manpower policy, such as the decline in the need for farmworkers and the continuing employment problems of young workers, and presents recommendations for action, with particular reference to the problems of the jobless and disadvantaged members of our society.

A variety of other publications inform Government agencies and officials of the progress and problems of training programs carried out under the MDTA. Manpower Evaluation Reports focus on various aspects or accomplishments of the training program, such as its contribution to occupational mobility. One such report issued in 1965, *Graduates of the Norfolk Project*, discusses the employment experience of graduates of one of the earliest MDTA training programs. Nearly 30,000 Manpower Evaluation Reports were distributed in 1965.

A series of manpower program evaluation papers is published for administrative use within the Government agencies directly involved in MDTA training. These issuances point up needed improvements in training program operations and usually contain results of on-the-spot evaluations and analyses of operating statistics.

In addition to evaluative reports and operating data on existing programs, the Congress and Government policymakers require broader manpower information to keep manpower development programs responsive to the Nation's needs. The Manpower Administration therefore provides factual studies and interpretive reports on manpower trends and problems around the Nation. In 1965, the Manpower Administration issued a number of such reports.

Of particular significance was *Training Needs in Correctional Institutions*, one of a series of Manpower Research Bulletins. This bulletin demonstrates a causal relationship between the vocational preparation of prisoners, their post-release employment success, and most importantly, their rehabilitation in terms of remaining out of prison. The bulletin was a major impetus in the Department's current development of plans to institute youth training projects for prison inmates and has received widespread response from Federal and State prison authorities. Approximately 36,000 Manpower Research Bulletins were distributed in 1965.

The Manpower Administration also distributes results of significant contract research studies on manpower conducted by other Government agencies or outside research organizations. Manpower/Automation Research Memorandums, which are prepared for the information and possible policy or operational use of Federal agencies concerned with manpower, summarize and point up policy implications of completed studies. One such memorandum, issued in 1965 on the Oak Glen, Calif., training camp for unemployed youth, proved of particular value to administrators of training camps established under the War on Poverty.

The Manpower Administration also compiled special manpower reports and analyses. And Departmental officials appeared before certain committees of the Congress to present data to be used

in the process of amending the MDTA and in evolving new legislation.

Apart from this critically important flow of "hard" information, the Department has recognized a need for a forum for the development of manpower ideas. Continuing a program initiated in 1964, the Department in 1965 sponsored the highly provocative Seminars on Manpower Policy and Program designed to stimulate inquiry among senior professional employees of the Department, other Federal agencies, and members of private organizations concerned with manpower.

Conducted once a month, the seminars feature as guest speakers outstanding academicians and practitioners in the social sciences and persons prominent in labor and management and other areas. Invited participants from approximately 30 Federal agencies and 45 private groups have an opportunity to raise questions following the speaker's formal remarks, and proceedings are published. Over 54,000 copies of seminar proceedings were distributed to requesting persons in 1965.

Labor and Management Groups

The person-to-person approach was one of the major techniques employed in reaching representatives of labor and management for the promotion and development of manpower programs.

During the year, representatives of the Manpower Administration attended more than 40 large meetings and conventions to explain the aims of the MDTA program, gain cooperation, and develop interest in launching on-the-job training projects and other manpower training programs.

An estimated 21,000 persons were exposed to the MDTA in this manner, most of them leaders or training-oriented officials in labor or management. Meetings and conventions included the National Apprenticeship Transportation Conference, the National Association of Home Builders Convention, the American Hospital Association Convention, the Independent Cash Register Dealers' Association Convention, the Iowa State Conference of Mason Contractors and Bricklayers' Union, and the AFL–CIO Union Industries Show.

The forums were supported by the distribution of literature and by the publication of information in a variety of trade and commerce house organs of national and regional scope.

Where appropriate, one of three large mechanical exhibits was displayed at conventions to call attention to and visually portray various aspects of the manpower programs. At other meetings, Manpower Administration representatives used portable exhibits and other visual aids.

A number of publications developed during 1965 were directed specifically to labor and management organizations. For example, *Trade Unions and the Manpower Development and Training Act* pointed out the contributions trade unions could make to manpower programs and cited examples of union cooperation in institutional, on-the-job training, and experimental and demonstration projects.

Professional and Technical Groups

Professional and technical groups potentially capable of making contributions to manpower programs were also reached through direct contact. Manpower Administration representatives attended meetings of many such groups, ranging in size from major conferences and conventions—such as the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention, the American Society for Training and Development Conference, and the Allied Social Sciences Convention—to smaller meetings and workshops at the regional and State level. Permanent or portable exhibits were set up, publications and other materials were distributed, and Manpower Administration representatives talked to individual participants, explaining manpower research and training activities. Manpower Administration officials often took part in the conferences or workshops, pointing out the organization's role in meeting national and local manpower problems.

Nineteen hundred and sixty-five marked the beginning of the Manpower Administration's expanded program to familiarize university faculties with the Nation's manpower programs and problems. Three-day conferences were held with the faculties of the University of North Carolina and Louisiana State University. Person-to-person communication paid calculable dividends as the faculties, armed with new insight and perspective, subsequently conducted classroom discussions on national, regional, and local manpower problems and policies. Undergraduate and graduate students were stimulated to expand their studies and probe more deeply into this area of social and economic concern.

In order to make research findings and other information available to technical groups concerned with manpower problems, a wide array of publications was developed in 1965. Significant portions of the President's Manpower Report and of the 1965 Report on Manpower Research and Training under the MDTA by the Secretary of Labor were reprinted and more than 12,000 copies were distributed to such groups.

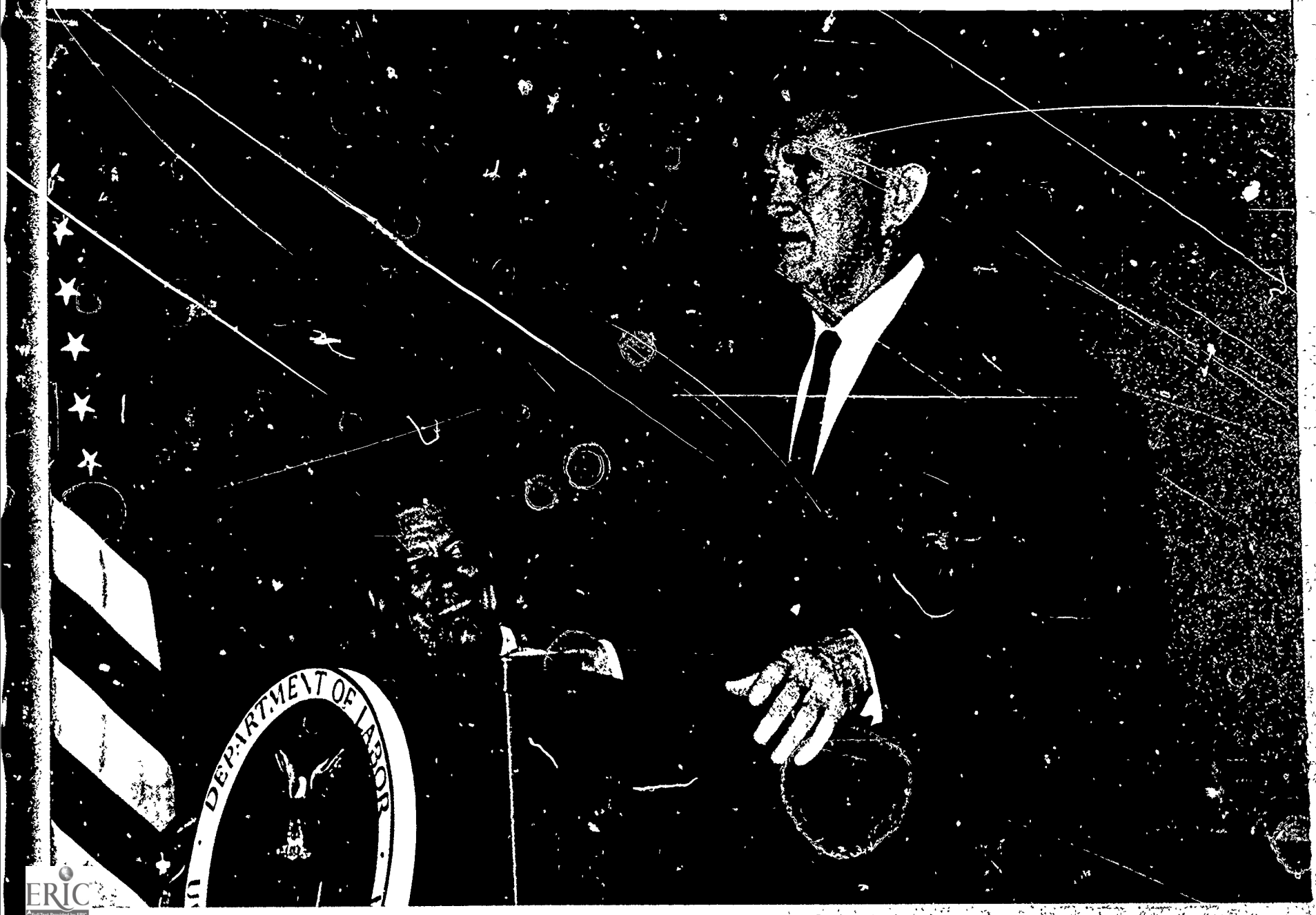
A summary of all contract research studies was issued, along with guidelines for submission of research proposals under the grant and contract program. Results of completed contract studies were made available in the form of Manpower/Automation Research Monographs—including Dr. Margaret S. Gordon's study entitled *Retraining and Labor Market Adjustment in Western Europe*, a comparison of retraining practices in seven industrialized Western European countries. Approximately 2,000 copies of this book went to leaders in the manpower field. Altogether, nearly 28,000 Manpower/Automation Research Monographs were distributed during 1965.

Results of inhouse research conducted by the Manpower Administration and of experimental and demonstration project experience were issued as Manpower Reports and Demonstration Notes. During the year, 32,000 Manpower Reports and 26,000 Demonstration Notes were sent to interested persons.

Another technique used to disseminate manpower research findings to appropriate audiences was the Manpower Administration's Clearinghouse and Utilization Services. Through its bibliographic activities, its extensive correspondence, and its servicing of requests for specific information, the Clearinghouse keeps abreast of research publications by both Government and private organizations and informs the research community of Manpower Administration programs and of those undertaken in the manpower field by other Government agencies.

The Department continued to supply information on occupations and trends in employment and unemployment for use by teachers and counselors. A variety of occupational information for

Franklin D. Roosevelt, Jr., chairman of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, and Ralph E. McGill, publisher of *The Atlanta Constitution*, participate in a seminar on Manpower Policy and Program.



youth and occupational outlook reports was issued in publications and periodicals by the various bureaus of the Department.

The campaign to recruit qualified applicants for counselor training for Project CAUSE II (Counselor-Advisor University Summer Education) was intensified, with massive direct mailings to professional and technical groups. Mailings included letters from the Secretary of Labor to the presidents of 1,200 Negro colleges and their graduates. Also contacted by mail or by announcements in organization bulletins were returning Peace Corps volunteers, personnel of youth projects in major cities, and qualified CAUSE I applicants not previously selected. A similar mailing was made to colleges and universities to announce the new research grants program.

Community Groups and Action Organizations

During 1965, the Department of Labor gave community groups and action organizations more first-hand assistance in the planning of training and retraining programs than ever before.

The vehicle for this enlarged effort was the community roundtable conference. In hundreds of towns and cities across the country, specialists from the Manpower Administration and from the local offices of State Employment Services met with community leaders to discuss their problems of employment and unemployment and explore ways in which the MDTA could help solve them.

This person-to-person contact with local leadership laid the foundation for new action. Training programs were expanded in hundreds of communities. In many others, new programs were initiated. During 1965, for example, several hundred unemployed and underemployed workers in depressed rural areas received training and retraining under new programs initially stimulated through roundtable meetings with local groups in 14 States, ranging from Arkansas to Minnesota.

A "library" of informational materials provided substantive support to these conferences. Materials varied from one-page fliers describing MDTA activities to portable exhibits and slide-film presentations picturing typical training courses. Additional support materials included publications such as *Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment*, *Community Organization for Employment Development*, and *Guide to Local Occupational Information.*

These materials, and scores of other related studies and papers provided by the Department, became the working tools of local action groups who used them to help shape, plan, and organize the new training programs.

Potential Trainees and Individual Employers

In addition to continued efforts by State Employment Service offices to encourage the support and participation of local employers and potential trainees in MDTA training activities, the Manpower Administration has made a significant effort to encourage employers to participate in on-the-job training (OJT) programs.

Over 200 news releases announcing various new OJT programs and projects were issued during the year, 12 of them through the White House. Sixteen magazine articles on OJT were also published in public and private house organs. Four OJT projects which were launched with signing ceremonies by the Secretary of Labor were given wide exposure by the news wire services as well as by network television news programs with related radio broadcasts.

The major method of disseminating OJT information to the employers has been through the use of a publication called *An Employer's Guide to On-the-Job Training.* Nearly 300,000 copies of this small booklet were distributed in 1965.

A new pamphlet aimed at potential trainees is being readied for mass distribution in 1966. Entitled, *Need A Job? OJT May Be For You*, the pamphlet will be available at all local State Employment Service offices as well as Youth Opportunity Centers, Apprenticeship Information Centers, and other community outlets.

Other techniques utilized during the year to bring OJT to the attention of employers and potential trainees have included prepared speeches before the business and industrial groups and associations, and car cards posted in the New York City subway system.

To help focus some of the Federal training assistance offered to the Nation for minority groups, a special booklet on on-the-job training was prepared for the Plans for Progress organization, composed of several hundred of the Nation's

A Labor Department exhibit explains the manpower programs.

largest corporations and companies. This booklet was distributed to about 700 firms associated with Plans for Progress.

Other pamphlets, such as *Learn and Train for a Job Under the MDTA*, revised in 1965, explain to potential trainees the benefits of MDTA training and how to apply for training.

General Public

In addition to directing its attention to special audience groups, the Department of Labor has kept the general public informed of the nature and accomplishments of manpower programs. Booklets, fliers, and reprints of articles explaining the MDTA and its amendments and discussing general manpower problems and programs were developed during 1965. *MDTA: A Summary of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as Amended*, a 28-page booklet explaining the provisions of the amended act and discussing

programs under the act, was issued in December 1965. Requests for nearly 15,000 were received within the first month of its issuance.

Also issued during 1965 was the first of a series of semiannual registers of MDTA training projects. The register lists institutional, OJT, and experimental and demonstration projects by major city or labor area within each State, giving information on occupational goals, status of project, duration of training, and number of persons trained or served.

Press releases were issued almost daily, highlighting new developments in manpower training and research and announcing new training projects in specific States and areas.

The National Advertising Council also cooperated with the Department of Labor in conducting two large public information campaigns—a stay-in-school campaign and a retraining campaign. Stressing the slogan "You won't get tomorrow's jobs with yesterday's skills," the Advertising Council's retraining campaign resulted in over $4 million in free advertising, including billboards, car cards, and magazine space; extensive free coverage on local radio and television stations; and both free space and editorial support in newspapers across the country.

STATE AND LOCAL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE ACTIVITIES

The network of 1,900 affiliated State Employment Service offices plays an important role in program support activities carried out under the MDTA. Well-known in the community, familiar with local manpower problems, and in touch with employers and with potential applicants for MDTA training, the local Employment Service office occupies a key position in the community's manpower structure.

During 1965, Employment Service offices made intensive use of local press, television, and radio facilities to bring stories of MDTA activities to the people. Employment Service offices contributed millions of newspaper lines and thousands of radio-TV hours to the overall coverage of manpower activities. Involved in local training projects from the beginning, these offices were able to supply news media with the kind of information that made local headlines and increased public awareness of MDTA action within the community.

Local offices also provided significant contacts with local labor and management groups, community action organizations, and professional and technical groups, through participation in local meetings and workshops.

And the public responded. Hundreds of local firms in all States asked for on-the-job training programs. Service organizations, churches, and other community agencies referred potential recruits for training. And unemployed and underemployed workers, realizing that programs existed which could help them, applied directly to the Employment Service offices for training and employment assistance.

PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

Raw statistics on the number of publications issued or the number of press releases picked up by the communications media are of little assistance in determining the ultimate use made of information issued. And ideas and data so disseminated may pass through several hands before manifesting themselves in new applications or programs—often in unexpected quarters. However, enough instances of positive feedback on such activities do occur to give some assessment of the success and limitations of the Department's program support and community involvement operations.

With some activities the reaction is fairly direct. Local Employment Service offices received direct, positive feedback from their information activities. The response of such groups as the Iowa Restaurant Owners and Drycleaning Associations, who inquired about MDTA training projects to meet their needs, testifies to the effectiveness of efforts to reach potential sponsors and participants and to promote fuller cooperation in MDTA programs.

Other forms of direct contact often result in measurable audience reactions. The mail-out of the Secretary of Labor's letter publicizing the new research grants program in October 1965 brought immediate response. Within 2 months, the Manpower Administration received more than 200 replies from over 90 colleges and universities, requesting more information on applying for grants. Similarly, a booth to promote the grants program at the Allied Social Sciences Convention in New York produced 150 immediate requests for mailings of further information.

Responses to news releases and publications are usually indirect and often delayed. However, there are indicators, such as receipt of more than 100 letters by a departmental field office as a result of a release on MDTA training of women which appeared in one Michigan newspaper. The demand for various publications often exceeds expectation, requiring second and third printings. Requests for manpower publications are received from many foreign countries, and other publications are reviewed or highlighted in the press and in technical and trade journals. The report on Dr. Margaret S. Gordon's study entitled *Retraining and Labor Market Adjustment in Western Europe*, for example, was discussed in several business and professional journals.

Employers and other groups participating in MDTA programs publicize the program. Chrysler Corp. has issued a great deal of material on its OJT project through its public relations department. The Research and Education Trust of the American Hospital Association, which has a national agreement for training 4,000 subprofessional health-care trainees in 300 hospitals across the country, has established a public relations arm called Manpower for Health. Each time a subcontract is signed, the group issues a local news story.

The best responses, of course, are immediate results in terms of new or expanded manpower programs. The publishing of the Manpower Research Bulletin on *Training Needs in Correctional Institutions* brought widespread response from prison authorities across the country, calling for establishment or strengthening of training programs for prison inmates and offering their assistance in such programs.

Many areas of the program still need improvement. During 1966, greater efforts will be made to coordinate the information activities of the various bureaus of the Manpower Administration to insure effective and complete coverage of important programs. More attention must be paid to disseminating information on special programs, such as the experimental and demonstration training projects. The Department has tended to concentrate on publications and press releases and on large conferences and conventions. More use of films and of materials for use with small groups and meetings is called for.

In 1966, the Department of Labor will work on improving these areas and on sharpening and strengthening its activities in other areas, continuing its efforts to meet the information needs of all groups and audiences, and to promote their support and involvement in manpower programs.

part VI

MANPOWER ADVISORY COMMITTEES

part VI
MANPOWER ADVISORY COMMITTEES

Manpower Advisory Committees

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE

The National Manpower Advisory Committee was appointed by the Secretary of Labor in September 1962 to advise him in carrying out his duties under the Manpower Development and Training Act. The committee consists of 10 members representing labor, management, agriculture, education, training, and the public in general. The committee has appointed subcommittees on research, training, and community relations, and a panel on counseling and selection.

The committee met in Washington, D.C., in April, June, and October 1965, under the chairmanship of Dr. Eli Ginzberg of Columbia University. Three new members were appointed to replace those whose appointments had expired. The new members are: I. W. Abel, president, United Steelworkers of America (AFL–CIO), Pittsburgh, Pa.; Dr. Lena Frances Edwards, clinician, Comprehensive Health Program for the Poor, Washington, D.C.; and Father Louis J. Twomey, S.J., director, Institute of Human Relations, Loyola University, New Orleans, La. The major findings and recommendations to emerge from the 1965 meetings were:

—Experience had demonstrated that delays in congressional appropriations could result in large-scale wastes of time, effort, and money. The committee recommended that the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare accelerate their planning and seek congressional approval for early funding of at least part of the annual program.

—The committee recalled that the Congress had expressed concern that in some States, State and local manpower advisory committees were not properly functioning. It recommended the use of sanctions to bring about needed improvements to State and local advisory committees when such measures were necessary.

—The committee was gratified to learn of the progress that had been made in expanding the on-the-job training program, and of plans for further expansion. To reach the goal of 100,000 trainees in the next fiscal year, however, the committee thought that more on-the-job training would have to be given in the service trades.

—The committee expressed concern that the

requirement of minimum wages in training programs would foreclose the program to many workers, particularly to agricultural workers in the South. After considering several alternatives, the committee recommended that the Department of Labor not approve training for jobs that paid less than $1 an hour, provided that the Manpower Administrator was authorized to make exceptions on a project basis if he felt that the training could lead to the occupational advancement of the trainees.[1]

—The committee commended the Manpower Administration for its plan to strengthen its manpower evaluation program. The committee called attention, however, to the importance of followup in evaluation.

—The committee adopted the view that by definition experimental and demonstration projects were temporary in nature and that the Department of Labor should not continue indefinitely to provide operational support to successful projects. Once the success of a project had been established, the committee believed the Department should attempt to transfer it to another Federal agency, such as the Office of Economic Opportunity, or to a State or local government or perhaps a nongovernmental agency.

—The committee recommended that the lower age limit for disadvantaged youth served by the Neighborhood Youth Corps be reduced to 15 years, and that consideration be given to the development of a work-training program for the hard-to-employ who fell outside the scope of existing programs.

—The committee approved the recommendation by its subcommittee on research that the Department of Labor expand its program of manpower research as rapidly as the supply of qualified research personnel permitted. The committee believed that an expansion of $5 million a year in the research budget for the next several years should be a minimum target.

—The committee reacted favorably to a proposal for a program of direct employment, but with these qualifications: That there is evidence of a substantial number of persons who, in addition to those now counted among the unemployed, had persistent difficulty in finding and holding jobs; that the program have a training facet incorporated in the work experience; and that care be taken to deal with such matters as wages and working conditions in a way that would encourage the movement of persons in the program back into the regular economy.

—The committee heard a report of compliance under section VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. It recommended that the Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare take steps to improve their operating statistics so that more is known about the ways in which MDTA funds are allocated in States resisting rapid integration.

Subcommittee on Research

The subcommittee on research met in January, June, and September 1965 under the chairmanship of Dr. Richard A. Lester of Princeton University. The membership of the subcommittee was expanded and new disciplines were added through the appointment of four new members: Dr. Hylan G. Lewis, professor of sociology, Howard University; Dr. Nevitt Sanford, professor of psychology, Stanford University; Mitchell Sviridoff, executive director, Community Progress, Inc., New Haven, Conn.; and Dr. William F. Whyte, professor of sociology, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University.

The subcommittee reviewed the programs of research and evaluation that were being carried on under title I of the act. It also heard presentations on the emerging research program under the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and on the implications for research in the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. The major findings and recommendations to result from the subcommittee's meetings in 1965 were:

—Feasibility studies should be made before large contracts for research are placed. The project at Rikers Island, N.Y., was cited as an

[1] A Manpower Administration Order was issued Dec. 29, 1965, establishing policy which gives priority to the approval of MDTA training for prospective jobs at or above the minimum wage level ($1.25 per hour) set by the Fair Labor Standards Act. However, training may be approved for prospective jobs below the $1.25 level, provided that the entry rate for the trainee is one-third over the prevailing wage rate for the occupation in the area.

example of a feasibility study that had yielded useful information.

—The Department of Labor should make projections of the scale of the training programs under its auspices and attempt to monitor the multifarious related programs springing up around the country so that there would be one agency with a reasonably clear perception of the total training and retraining effort.

—The training techniques of the military should be explored to determine what experiences could be transferred to the training programs in the civilian sectors.

—Efforts to retrain agricultural workers have not met the needs of the rural underemployed. The Department of Labor should sponsor a conference of agricultural economists with a view to finding solutions to some of the facets of the farm labor problem.

—Outside experts should be engaged to identify criteria for appraising the effectiveness of training programs.

—The Department should establish a grant review panel of outside consultants to advise it with respect to applications for institutional grants under the recent amendments to the act.

—The Department should explore the periodic use of small research conferences, organized and conducted under the auspices of universities, as a means of attracting persons to the program.

—The Department should give some thought to the questions: where do the sociological, anthropological, and psychological disciplines fit into the program; and how can research findings and applications be tied together?

—The Department should engage the services of outside experts to prepare working papers on a plan for the study of technological change, concepts concerning occupational forecasting, and conceptualization of the critical issue surrounding mobility. A member of the Department should prepare a paper on sheltered workshops.

—A proportion of the funds for every experimental and demonstration project (perhaps 10 to 15 percent) should be applied to research and project evaluation.

Subcommittee on Training

The subcommittee on training met in June and November 1965 under the chairmanship of William G. Caples, a representative of management on the National Manpower Advisory Committee and vice president of the Inland Steel Company of Chicago. The membership of the subcommittee was expanded by the appointment of four new members: Dr. Orlo L. Crissey, director, personnel evaluation services, General Motors Institute, Flint, Mich.; John D. Foster, member of the North Central Regional Manpower Advisory Committee, and vice president and personnel director, Montgomery Ward and Company, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. William McGehee, director, personnel research and training, Fieldcrest Mills, Inc., Spray, N.C.; and Joseph V. Tuma, manpower training representative, international union, United Automobile Workers (AFL–CIO), Detroit, Mich.

Dr. Paul H. Norgren of Columbia University discussed the obsolescence of scientific and engineering skills, and members of the Department of Labor spoke on training for professional persons; guidelines for national MDTA–OJT contracting and cost negotiation; program evaluation; human resources development program; and financial incentives for training in industry. The major findings and recommendations to emerge from the subcommittee's meetings in 1965 were:

—Professional societies should be encouraged to take a more active role in helping to resolve the problems arising from the obsolescence of skills of professional persons, including their retraining.

—Prime contracts given by the Federal Government in areas where technical knowledge is changing rapidly should contain a provision that would allow time for professional employees to keep abreast of changes in skill requirements.

—Refresher and reorientation training of professional persons under the act should be limited for the present to the unemployed.

—The draft guidelines for national MDTA–OJT contracting and cost negotiation, issued by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training on September 27, 1965, were found to be generally satisfactory.

—The Human Resources Development Program, announced by the Secretary of Labor on November 3, 1965, was an effective way of reaching the disadvantaged population in large urban centers.

—Industry should be encouraged to play a greater role in training; however, a system of tax credits should not be used as a financial incentive for training because of the difficulties of administering it. Direct subsidization of training is a better method.

Subcommittee on Community Relations

The subcommittee on community relations was expanded in 1965, and now consists of I. W. Abel, Upshur Evans, and Felix E. Larkin of the National Manpower Advisory Committee; Dr. C. Gilbert Wrenn, chairman of the panel on counseling and selection; and the chairmen of the regional manpower advisory committees. Mr. Larkin, who is a representative of management on the National Manpower Advisory Committee and executive vice president of W. R. Grace & Co., New York, is chairman of the subcommittee on community relations. The Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will have liaison officers between the agencies and the subcommittee on community relations.

Panel on Counseling and Selection

The panel on counseling and selection met in February 1965 under the chairmanship of Dr. C. Gilbert Wrenn of Arizona State University, and in November 1965 under the chairmanship of Dr. Willis E. Dugan of the University of Minnesota. New disciplines were added to the panel through the appointment of three new members: Dr. Marvin Adelson, principal scientist, System Development Corporation, Santa Monica, Calif.; Dr. Edward Gross, professor of sociology, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.; and Dr. Herbert E. Striner, director of program development, W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Washington, D.C.

The panel considered the responsibilities and various aspects of counseling and selection relating to the Job Corps, the Office of Education, and the Youth Opportunity Centers. The major findings and recommendations to emerge from the panel's meetings in 1965 were:

—There is inadequate communication between the organizational units in the Department of Labor concerned with interviewing, counseling, and selection, and between these units and their counterparts in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. It recommended that measures be taken to correct this deficiency.

—The recent reorganization of the U.S. Office of Education had tended to diffuse the responsibility for leadership and research in counseling, guidance, and personnel services among several organizational units. An effort should be made to coordinate these functions, and to establish more effective communication with schools and colleges, as well as with counselors in nonschool settings.

—The scale of the programs administered by or for the Office of Economic Opportunity not only increased the demand for counselors but created new roles and expectations for the function of counseling. The panel hoped this could lead staff members in the Office of Economic Opportunity to an attitude of research and experimentation.

—The panel approved the report and recommendations of the Invitational Conference on Government-University Relations, which had been held in Washington, D.C., on June 2 and 3, 1965, and recommended that the report and recommendations be published by the agencies that had funded the conference, that is, the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

—The panel commended the Department of Labor's Manpower Administrator for having established an interagency task force on counseling, whose function it is to explore ways of achieving better communications between agencies concerned with counseling and guidance at various levels.

REGIONAL COMMITTEES

The first regional manpower advisory committee, the Pacific Coast Committee, with head-

quarters in San Francisco, was appointed in 1964. Seven other regional committees were appointed in 1965, having headquarters in Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Dallas, Denver, Kansas City, and New York. Each has 10 members representing labor, management, agriculture, education, training, and the public in general.

The regional committees are associate bodies of the National Manpower Advisory Committee. They identify manpower problems in their respective regions and recommend research and training programs to alleviate those problems. Members of regional committees visit nearby training projects and evaluate their effectiveness. Meetings are held about three times a year. The chairmen of State manpower advisory committees are invited to the meetings of the regional committees, opening channels of communication between regional and State advisory committees that already have proved to be of considerable value.

Chairmen of the regional committees attended the meeting of the National Manpower Advisory Committee in October 1965, and in the future will attend the meetings of the national group twice a year. At the October meeting, the regional chairmen recommended that the Secretary of Labor again communicate with the Governors of the States concerning the importance of having strong and active State advisory committees. They also recommended that the Secretary delay the delegation of authority to approve projects to States that did not have properly functioning advisory committees.

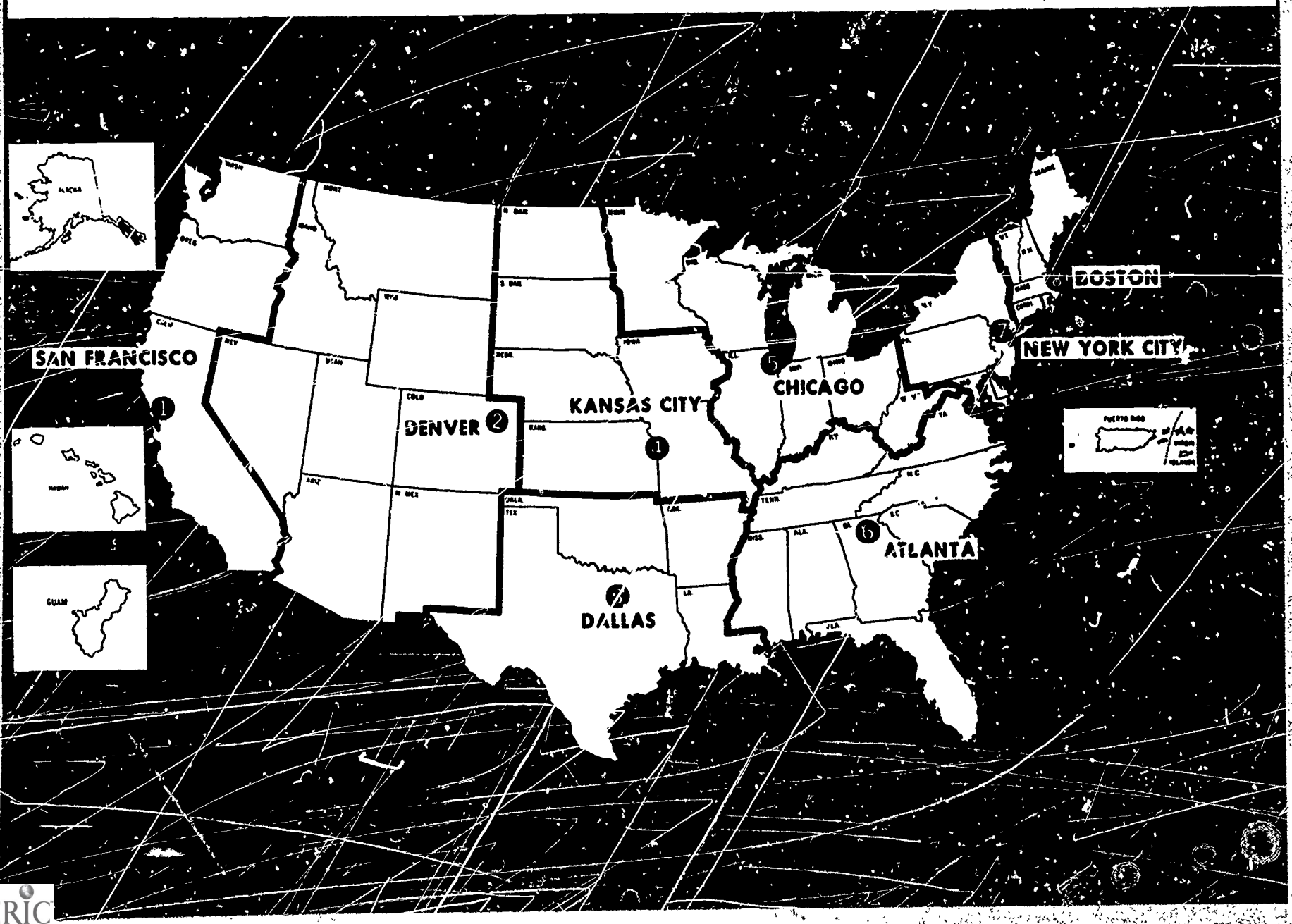
The following is a list of the chairmen of the eight regional committees:

Pacific Coast
RALPH W. TYLER
Director, Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences, Stanford, Calif.

Southwestern
JESSE S. WILLIAMS
Professor of Law, University of Texas Law School, Austin, Tex.

North Central
HAROLD C. TAYLOR
Director, The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Mountain States
STERLING M. MCMURRIN
Provost, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah



Southeastern

FELIX C. ROBB

President, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

New England

JOHN C. DONOVAN

Professor of Government, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine

Great Plains States

AUSTIN E. MILLER, S.J.

Director, Institute of Industrial Relations, Creighton University, Omaha, Nebr.

Middle Atlantic

HENRY H. VILLARD

Professor and Chairman, Department of Economics, City College of New York, New York, N.Y.

STATE AND LOCAL COMMITTEES

The establishment of State and local manpower advisory committees was a major goal in the first years of the Manpower Development and Training Act. There was concern with the qualitative aspects of committee activity, but the principal efforts were directed toward having a committee in each State jurisdiction and a local committee in each major area. During 1965, program emphasis shifted to promoting more effective committee participation in the program. Improvements in representation and clarified concepts of program responsibility have been sought.

Local committees are primarily concerned with individual project administration. The State committees particularly are being given information and guidance against which they may consider the overall program aspects of manpower training in their States.

State manpower advisory committee chairmen are pooling information as a basis for future planning. A basic knowledge about existing problems is gained from the discussion of regional committee members and Federal agency representatives.

EVALUATION OF COMMITTEES

The National Manpower Advisory Committee and the subcommittees and panel have had a worthwhile influence on the shaping of manpower policy and program in the relatively short time since their appointment. A number of their recommendations have been accepted and others are being considered. Examples of these are the National Farm Labor Conference that was held in Washington, D.C., on October 28 and 29, 1965; preparation of guidelines for a manpower research institutional grant program, and the appointment of a grant review panel; preparation of papers by outside experts on criteria for appraising the effectiveness of training programs; formulation of plans for the periodic use of research conferences to attract persons to the program; preparation of a paper on the conceptualization of the critical issues surrounding mobility; formulation of plans for strengthening State and local manpower advisory committees; preparation of a paper on sheltered workshops; decision to request an increase in the manpower research budget for fiscal year 1967; preparation of a paper on interagency coordination of manpower programs, and the appointment of an interagency task force on counseling; and the closer coordination of the Department of Labor's manpower programs in 21 major cities.

In the intervals between meetings, individual members of advisory committees have been available for advice and consultation on special problems, and have given generously of their time when asked for their views on draft manuscripts and working papers. Because the members of the advisory committees are persons of influence in their respective communities, they have been able effectively to interpret the program to their friends and associates, and in this way to bring to the program a base of support that otherwise would not have been possible. The appointment of regional committees as associate bodies of the National Manpower Advisory Committee, and their involvements with State advisory committees, give promise of providing a network of communication that could make a truly significant contribution to the manpower program.

part VII

NEW RESOURCES AND NEW DIRECTIONS

part
VII
NEW RESOURCES AND NEW DIRECTIONS

New Resources

THE AMENDMENTS OF 1965

The horizons of the Manpower Development and Training Act were again extended in 1965 through the legislative process. The amendment process begun in 1963—which responded to immediate needs recognized from early operating experience—continued on a much broader scale, overhauling and converting this originally limited and experimental legislation into an affirmative instrument of national manpower policy.

Spurred by the early success and vitality of the MDTA program, the amendments of 1965 reached out into all aspects of the act's objectives, providing it with increased financial support and a broadened mandate to give it more flexibility to meet the challenges and needs of the Nation's everchanging manpower profile. With these amendments the act has now emerged as a continuing measure to improve and expand our effort toward fuller development of the Nation's manpower potential.

First, the entire act was given permanence and fiscal stability. The former June 30, 1966, termination date of the training program was extended for 3 years, with an expression of the view that it is a necessary and continuing part of a national manpower policy, but that provision of an expiration date serves to assure periodic review and evaluation to provide for further legislative changes as needed. At the same time, the problem of State matching of training funds, which had beclouded the act's future since its original passage, was removed. The States' share of training costs was reduced to only 10 percent—which may be provided in kind or in cash—beginning with fiscal year 1967. Further, amendments provided that the cost of all training programs approved during a fiscal year, including training allowance payments, be paid from appropriations during that year—thus freeing the training program from some of the uncertainties and administrative complications experienced in the past. Procedures for reapportionment of funds among the States were also improved to give more stability to State planning for training programs.

Second, expanded research and demonstration programs were authorized and included within the broadened scope of title I of the act. "Operating research"—experimental, demonstration, and pilot projects—was explicitly provided for under title I, thus encouraging expansion of exploratory efforts needed to guide effective im-

provement in manpower policies and programs. These amendments were as follows:

—Basic research funding was increased and the Secretary of Labor was authorized to make grants (as well as to enter into contracts) for research programs—giving greater scope and flexibility to the research effort.

—The program of experimental and demonstration projects to test new methods for meeting manpower, employment, and training problems, particularly of disadvantaged groups in the labor force, was placed in title I and a clear mandate provided for broadening its scope.

—The labor mobility demonstration program authorized originally under the 1963 amendments was extended until mid-1967 and additional funds were authorized for its implementation.

—A new pilot program was expressly authorized to experiment with the placement of persons having difficulty securing employment for reasons other than ability to perform, and specifically with those having difficulty in securing appropriate bonding due to former police records.

Third, the training program was further strengthened and given greater flexibility, especially in serving the disadvantaged—the core of our manpower problem as the Nation moves toward a period of full employment. This was accomplished principally by modification of the training allowance provisions, which largely determine the capacity of persons to accept and remain in training. The following amendments were enacted to augment and extend income maintenance for trainees and thus relieve or remove financial pressures that discourage or curtail training for those most in need of it:

—Allowance payments were increased to relieve the financial strain of training for those with heavy family responsibilities. The amendments provide for an additional $5 per week for each dependent over two, up to a maximum of four additional dependents.

—To further relieve financial hardships imposed on trainees, another amendment permitted the payment of expenses for daily commuting between the residence and place of training.

—Eligibility for training allowances was extended to single persons not living as members of a family or household group—filling a gap which heretofore precluded training for many needy unemployed persons.

—Eligibility for training allowances was also broadened to permit more than one unemployed member of a family or household to receive a regular training allowance, provided that the head of the household is unemployed. This serves to relieve economic pressures and opens further training opportunities, particularly for unemployed workers in large families.

—Income maintenance for trainees enrolled in on-the-job training was ameliorated by liberalization of the paid part-time work permitted outside of the training program, similar to a provision enacted for institutional trainees in 1963.

—And, most important, the period during which training allowances can be paid was extended to 104 weeks. This provision made possible the lengthening of training courses, particularly those combining basic education and occupational training. Experience with the previous 72-week provision had shown that training courses were too short to achieve desired results, even to the extent of causing dropouts from training. The provision also opened the doors to training in more advanced skills in growing demand that require more extensive preparation.

Finally, new provisions and innovations were introduced into the act, making it more comprehensive and providing new dimensions for strengthening the Nation's effort to meet its manpower needs. These included:

—A new provision directing the Secretary of Labor to stimulate and assist Job Development Programs to expand employment opportunities by meeting needs in service and related occupations, giving emphasis and direction to active job development as part of a comprehensive manpower program.

—A merging of the training provisions of the Area Redevelopment Act (ARA) and the MDTA. The training provisions of sections 16 and 17 of the ARA were repealed and in-

corporated in the MDTA under a separate new provision, consolidating these two training programs. This new provision also authorized full Federal financing without apportionment among the States, and separate funds were authorized to be appropriated for its implementation.

—Delegation to the States of approval authority for small training projects whose cost does not exceed $75,000, pursuant to contracts or agreements with the Secretaries of the Departments of Labor, and Health, Education, and Welfare.

In addition to the foregoing, certain technical amendments served to facilitate administration of the act. Provision for the use of private training institutions, with stress on their usefulness for individual referrals, was encouraged and liberalized. And the act's mandate was broadened to encompass refresher educational training for unemployed professional workers where such training would further the act's purposes.

It is readily apparent that these amendments, building in breadth and depth on the earlier amendments, have, in fact, served to provide the act with the flexibility needed to adapt to changing manpower conditions. Originally promulgated to focus primarily on the training and retraining needs of the adult labor force in an economic climate of high levels of unemployment, the act is now far better equipped to render employable the still sizable number of the hard-core unemployed—the many disadvantaged groups who are still not sharing in an economy now approaching full employment. The 1965 record of the training and research programs and their ability to adjust to a changing economic climate attest to the stimulus given by many of these amendments.

OTHER LEGISLATIVE TOOLS

The amendment process has not alone broadened the parameters of the MDTA training program. Other new legislation is related to the purposes and objectives of the MDTA, and provides additional resources and avenues for manpower development activity.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (EOA) is perhaps the most prominent of these newer legislative measures. Its declaration of war on poverty dovetails with the direction which already had been taken under the MDTA training program to serve the needs of disadvantaged groups in the labor force. Certain of its programs which contain manpower development components mesh with the program and objectives of the MDTA and lend themselves to effective integration and coordination of respective program activities.

A number of the Economic Opportunity Act programs provide for training experiences to prepare severely disadvantaged persons for specific, job-oriented occupational training under the MDTA. With respect to the compelling unemployment problem of youth, for example, the MDTA can provide the final training step for young people who have received basic education and work orientation, and have developed vocational interests through the Job Corps and Neighborhood Youth Corps. Adult groups too can be absorbed into MDTA training to restore them to self-sufficiency. Welfare clients, for example, who have received literacy training under EOA programs can continue with their rehabilitation in MDTA occupational training courses.

MDTA and EOA programs also provide components for each other's operations. MDTA training programs are important elements in Community Action Programs (CAP's) under the EOA which include an array of remedies to deal with poverty on a comprehensive community-wide basis. Similarly, MDTA experimental and demonstration projects can develop new types of manpower service links with antipoverty program activities.

During the past year program operations under these two acts have been coordinated and integrated in this way. In a very real sense, then, these two acts are interrelated, blending their programs and objectives wherever each can serve the other and where both can provide the breakthrough from poverty to a realization of a trainee's work potentials.

Another important legislative measure directly serving the purposes of the MDTA was the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This act provides important tools for the MDTA training program through its provisions for construction of new vocational education facilities, training of teachers,

and other features that will increase the resources and improve the quality of vocational training. The act also calls for cooperation between Employment Service agencies and State boards of vocational education to shape modernized vocational education to meet realistic training needs. Vocational education facilities are now made available to persons of all ages, all backgrounds, and all levels of ability, including those with socioeconomic handicaps.

Since the act did not become operative until 1965, it is too early to feel its full impact. Nevertheless it is significant as an evolving tool to serve MDTA training needs which place continuing reliance upon vocational education facilities.

NEW DIMENSIONS OF THE MDTA

The Job Development Program

One of the more significant of the 1965 amendments to the MDTA was addressed to job development as an important aspect of manpower training. A new provision (section 103 of the MDTA as amended) called for stimulation by the Secretary of Labor, in cooperation with both public and private agencies, of Job Development Programs "that will serve to expand employment by the filling of those service and related needs which are not now being met because of lack of trained workers or other reasons affecting employment or opportunities for employment."

This provision gave further support to the Job Development Program in the service industries announced 2 months earlier by President Johnson. This announcement launched a nationwide program of job development for the unemployed and underemployed, stressing the vast job potential existing in a myriad of service activities and the opportunity for training people to fill this unmet need.

Under this mandate, the Federal Government has acted as a catalyst for the development of jobs in the private economy to fill the growing but as yet not fully tapped service-type needs on both the demand and supply sides of the job market. The cooperation of 10 Federal agencies,[1] all of them involved in programs which could give support to this new effort, was also enlisted to further these goals, under the coordination of the Manpower Administration in the Department of Labor. The vast network of public employment service offices, too, was enlisted in the job development effort.

Business and industry, labor, community organizations, and similar groups have been involved in this governmental promotional effort to explore and develop needed jobs and services as well as to develop a stable and skilled labor force in a work area of emerging and expanding need. The thrust of this program, although aimed at the economy as a whole, has been uniquely suited to match the hard-to-place unemployed with hard-to-fill jobs. In identifying job vacancies going begging in an economy whose prime focus is on advancing technology, it has brought new opportunity to many who do not possess the skills required in jobs at the upper end of the occupational ladder.

The resources of the MDTA have been brought into full play in implementing this mandate. The Department of Labor has given special emphasis to service and related occupations in its approvals of MDTA projects and has exerted a vigorous promotional effort, particularly in accelerating its on-the-job training program, to explore new opportunities in a little-tried area.

Job sources for which the unemployed and underemployed have been trained under this accelerated program encompass a broad and diversified range. They include large scale industries, such as the Chrysler Corporation, which undertook to train 1,000 automobile mechanics and repairmen; small local employers in need of a repairman or gasoline service station attendant; understaffed hospitals with labor shortages in the medical and health services; and even agricultural enterprises having difficulty in filling their needs in our highly urbanized society. In the personal service area numerous and diverse job opportunities have been found in occupations such as upholsterers, television and refrigeration repairmen, barbers, building maintenance workers, and chefs and other food preparation workers.

Institutional training has accounted for the greater proportion, about two-thirds, of the training opportunities developed in the service and related industries because it is the largest of the

[1] The Departments of Labor; Commerce; Interior; Agriculture; Health, Education, and Welfare; the Bureau of the Budget; the Council of Economic Advisers; the Housing and Home Finance Agency; the Office of Economic Opportunity; and the Small Business Administration.

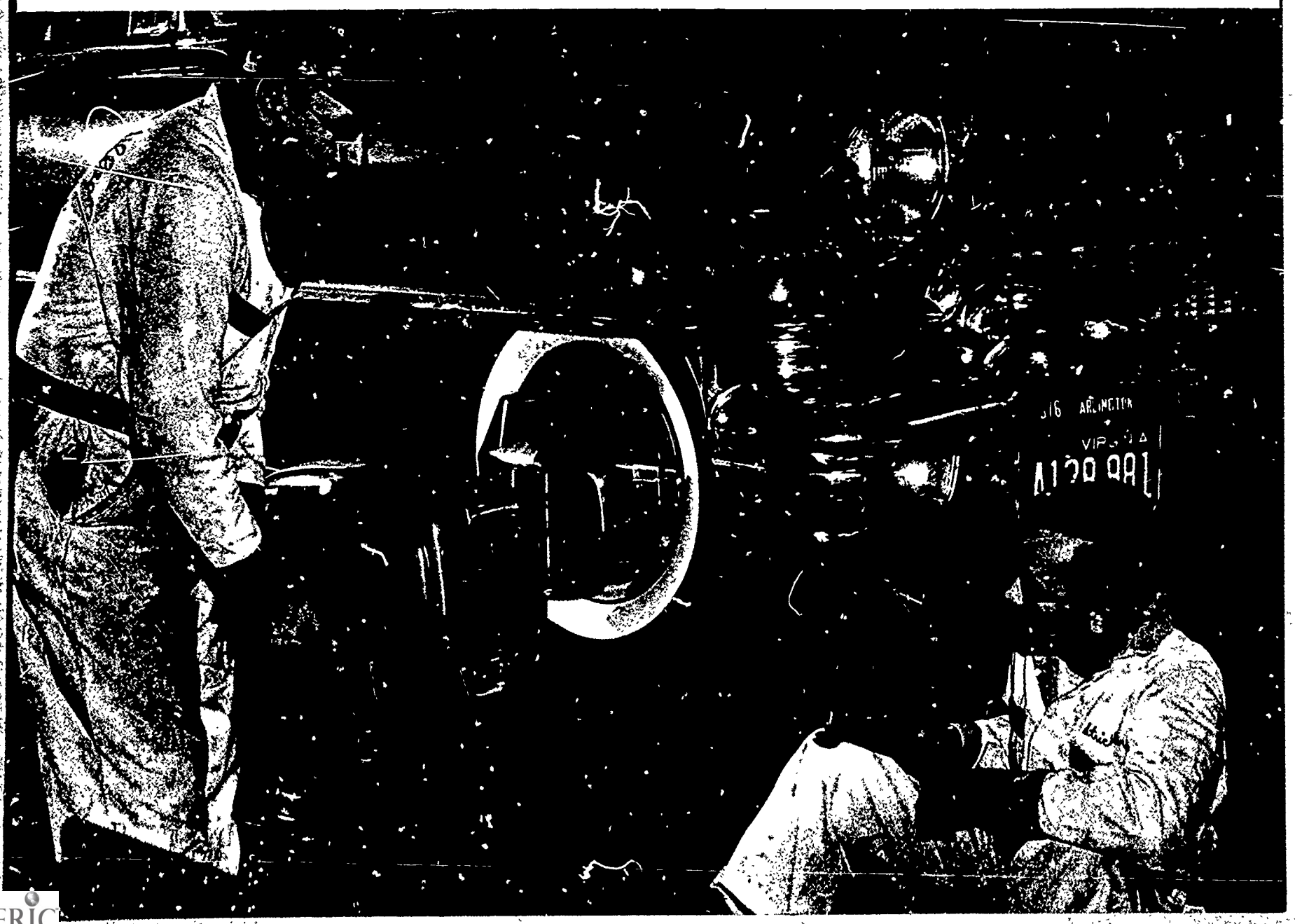
MDTA training programs. But under the impetus of the job development program the on-the-job training program has accelerated markedly.

The on-the-job training program has not only ferreted out service-type job opportunities at the local level, but also has achieved singular success by enlisting the cooperation of large business organizations, trade associations, unions, community organizations, and similar groups. Such organizations have actively assisted in developing extensive training programs of community or broader scope to bring job vacancies or unmet labor needs and jobless workers together. The national contract—contracts with national organizations or companies providing large-scale training to meet an overall industry need of regional or national scope—has been very effectively promoted, accounting for a substantial part of the newly developed on-the-job training opportunities. These national contracts are usually master training plans, implemented by subcontractors responsible for actual on-site training in geographically dispersed locations, where jobs may also be waiting upon completion of training. These contracts are so extensive that they provide for hundreds and even thousands of training opportunities in a single occupation or industry.

Both the institutional and on-the-job training programs have made continuous strides in training workers for a broad range of these existing and potential job opportunities in the Nation's economy, and in so doing have reached disadvantaged groups on whom public concern is presently focused. The multioccupational project, which is so well suited for these purposes, has been used extensively in both types of training programs, as have projects designed to meet the special needs of disadvantaged youth. The development of some of the large-scale training projects in the OJT program also are specifically designed to prepare the hard-core and potentially hard-core unemployed for constructive work in the service sector of the economy.

The Job Development Program has had a very successful beginning. The initial goal set was for development of 10,000 service and related jobs per

Job development efforts under the MDTA have uncovered opportunities for trainees in many service and service-related occupations.



month. This target was met. By the year's end a total of over 112,000 persons had been approved for MDTA training in a galaxy of established and new service and related occupations for which demand is on the increase.

In opening doors for many job opportunities in service and related occupations another forward step was taken in fulfilling the mandate of the MDTA by matching unemployed workers with potential jobs through training.

Training in Redevelopment Areas

The merging of the training provisions of the ARA and the MDTA, effective in July 1965, was another of the major steps in shaping a more comprehensive national manpower policy. In consolidating and rationalizing these two training programs under section 241 of the MDTA as newly amended, the purposes of the pioneering ARA training provisions were kept intact and they will continue to serve as an important adjunct to economic redevelopment. But the broadening of the specific terms and conditions of training to match those of the MDTA at the same time enabled this program to meet these objectives more effectively. The more liberal MDTA training provisions have made possible a training program of enlarged scope and depth, most often reaching disadvantaged groups and serving as a valuable supplement to the expanded assistance measures contained in the new Public Works and Economic Development Act.

To implement this broadened legislative mandate a number of regulations and guidelines have been adopted. For the most part these measures adopt or modify guidelines promulgated under the ARA to accord with the provisions of section 241. These concern eligibility of applicants for training, training allowances, and other benefits, and the establishment of on-the-job training programs. For the most part, the procedures governing the review and approval of ARA training projects have been made applicable to projects submitted under section 241. As a consequence, the transition from ARA training to MDTA training has been a smooth one.

In approving training projects under section 241, priority is given to those projects that have the closest tie-in with other economic development measures. This supplemental program generally will not be used for training projects intended to fill general, recurring area employment needs which can be considered under the regular MDTA occupational training program, but will serve as another tool for improving employment and production by helping to meet the special needs of the residents of redevelopment areas.

Pilot Programs

Part of the expanded research and experimental program resulting from the 1965 amendments was an extension of pilot project authorization—another of the methods serving to develop new techniques and find better answers to complicated manpower problems.

The 1963 amendments, recognizing the potential of relocation assistance for meeting geographic imbalance in manpower supply and job opportunities, provided for exploration of the feasibility and desirability of such a tool by authorizing a limited number of pilot mobility assistance projects. These projects focused on unemployed workers without reasonable prospect of employment in their own communities, searched out suitable employment in other geographic areas, and provided financial assistance and social services to aid in the relocation of workers and their families. Delay in funding made it impossible to get the initial projects under way until early in 1965.

At the Administration's request the Congress extended authority for such projects until June 1967 and provided for greater liberality and flexibility in the financial assistance that could be provided because of the initial success of pilot projects. Details about labor mobility demonstration projects are presented in Part II of this report.

Another new experimental pilot program was authorized under the 1965 amendments for a 2-year period. It was directed to the problem of those persons unable to gain employment for reasons other than ability to perform, particularly because of inability to secure appropriate bonding. This amendment was designed to aid persons with police records by exploring ways to eliminate the bonding barrier to employment.

Contractual arrangements with a bonding company to provide general coverage on a special basis to those with police records are being devel-

oped to provide coverage for individuals who have participated in various federally financed training or Employment Service programs. Thus, coverage will not be limited exclusively to MDTA graduates, although most of those to be aided are expected to come from regular MDTA training programs. It is expected that some of the bonding assistance will be provided in special MDTA experimental and demonstration training projects.

Small Institutional Training Projects

In considering amendments to the MDTA the Congress recognized the feasibility of relaxing to some degree the approval process for the institutional training program. A new amendment, section 306(a), accordingly was enacted, giving the Secretaries of Labor and HEW discretionary authority to delegate the approval function for the smaller type of institutional training program. Specifically, this amendment gives the two Secretaries the authority to make contracts or agreements permitting the approval of any institutional training project, the cost of which does not exceed $75,000. This authority is subject to such procedures, policies, rules and regulations as the Secretaries may prescribe. These contracts will generally be made with the State Agencies—Employment Security and Vocational Education—which currently initiate, develop, and implement the MDTA institutional training program through agreements with the Departments of Labor and HEW.

The immediate requirement for implementation of this amendment was the development of appropriate procedures, policies, and standards to effectively coordinate this new provision with the larger ongoing institutional training program and to provide the necessary Federal direction, guidance, and control. Since enactment of the 1965 amendments this required groundwork has been developed by the Manpower Administration and is now awaiting final adoption.

The proposed standards and policies permit sufficient latitude to streamline the approval process while providing appropriate safeguards for proper program operation. They will permit direct approval by State Employment Security and State Vocational Education Agencies of standard institutional training programs of limited size. They also prescribe the fiscal limits for individual projects and total State operations under this statutory provision. At the same time, Federal control is assured through provision for Federal audit and review of projects, including rescinding of authority or termination of authorized expenditures as warranted in cases of nonconformance with established policies and standards or overobligation of a State's spending authori

As operating experience is gained r this amendment, the procedures, policies, a standards governing the delegation of this approval authority will be modified, as necessary, to improve its operation and effectiveness.

ADMINISTRATIVE IMPROVEMENTS

Individual Referrals to Training

The individual referral process was an early administrative measure designed to broaden training opportunities by supplementing class-group training programs through fuller use of existing facilities and to provide training on an individual basis for those for whom training in a class-group is impractical. The measure has been given full support by the Congress in the newly amended mandate of the MDTA directing an expansion in the use of the individual referral process. A relaxation of the provision for use of private training institutions also supports increased use of the individual referral process.

Referrals to on-the-job training have been made on an individual basis since the inception of the MDTA program and are considered especially valuable because they make possible the utilization of small firms as training establishments. A new and shortened procedure will be initiated in '966 to facilitate, and thereby increase, the participation of individuals in on-the-job training. The procedure will provide for simplified negotiation of contracts to provide training for groups of five or fewer individuals. Pilot studies of this procedure indicate that a large number of the referrals will be for single individuals. They also indicate that it makes practical the application of on-the-job training techniques to a wide variety of occupations. The individual referral process is expected to play an important role in bringing the OJT program closer to the principles of person-oriented manpower training.

Within the institutional training program, the individual referral process makes possible the timely referral of trainees even when a class-group project is not immediately available. The process also is used to provide training in areas and in occupations for which job opportunities are not numerous enough to warrant training on a class-group basis, and to provide for the training and retraining of technical and subprofessional workers.

Although some States have used individual referrals extensively, group training was emphasized in many States during the demanding days of MDTA's formative years and individual referrals became submerged in the broader program. By 1965 only slightly more than one-half of all jurisdictions had utilized this process in institutional training. When the individual referral process has been used, however, its value has been amply demonstrated. Local staff have found that it provides a means to train in a variety of occupations beyond those that are available in regular MDTA projects. Moreover, the posttraining placement of individually referred applicants has been facilitated because job openings can be more easily located on an individual basis than for a class group. For these reasons, interest in this program is increasing among the States.

Several factors are now providing impetus for the individual referral program. First, the MDTA program has attained a state of administrative maturity conducive to employment by the States of specialized techniques to improve and diversify their training programs. Further, the means by which the States can be assisted and encouraged to expand their individual referral programs is under study. Receiving special attention are ways in which the unique characteristics of the individual referral program may be applied to a person-oriented manpower training program operating within an economy characterized by rising levels of employment. These efforts to assist and encourage the States in the expansion of the use of individual referrals will lead to an increase in the program, as will the use of the simplified procedure for on-the-job training. Finally, the 1965 amendments emphasizing and encouraging a wider use of private training facilities will have a positive effect upon the expansion of the individual referral process.

Professional Training

MDTA training has been used in a limited yet effective way to alleviate the shortage in some professional occupations, by providing refresher training and reorientation for unemployed persons who need updated skills and knowledge for re-employment in their professions. Support for this policy was given by the Congress in the act's newly revised Statement of Findings and Purpose. Further, the amended act specifically provides that under certain prescribed circumstances MDTA training might be given in private institutions, particularly for technical and semiprofessional occupations. Professional training—that is, training solely to meet academic degree prerequisites or to qualify initially for a professional occupation—is not authorized under the MDTA.

Refresher training has been used most successfully to augment the supply of graduate nurses, by providing intensive 2- to 4-week courses, enabling unemployed nurses who have met initial professional requirements to qualify for re-entry into their profession. The Nurses Training Act of 1964 provides loans and other assistance to nursing students receiving their initial professional training but makes no provision for graduate nurses who may need quick brush-up courses to qualify for employment. By enrolling for this training under MDTA, nurses who have been absent from the job market but are unable to afford the expense of the necessary retraining now may be qualified to return to employment in this shortage occupation at relatively low training cost.

Opportunities for training in semiprofessional occupations have been broadened by extension of the maximum time for payment of training allowances and other benefits of the 1965 amendments. In fields where the supply of professionals cannot keep pace with growing demand, semiprofessionals are being trained under MDTA to perform duties auxiliary to those of professionals, leaving them free to utilize their highest skills to maximum advantage. Increasing numbers of these workers were trained last year in relatively new occupations such as counselor aide, teacher aide, engineering aide, conservation aide, and in the auxiliary health occupations such as psychiatric aide, dental assistant, laboratory assistant, and licensed practical nurse.

The recently launched Human Resources Development Program will seek out disadvantaged youth in urban areas of high unemployment and train them for jobs.

Coupled Projects in OJT

The strong focus on training directed toward promoting the employability of disadvantaged workers in the labor force, combined with the emergence of labor supply stringencies in certain areas, called for adaptation of the on-the-job training program to meet these changing conditions. It was necessary to reinforce and expand training content and curricula so that the less qualified or unqualified unemployed could be trained and could satisfy employer requirements.

The response was a stimulation of the "coupled project," which is designed to remedy deficiencies that would otherwise preclude potential trainees from qualifying for training. Basically, the coupled project provides the supplemental vocational education preparation necessary to enable the trainee to undertake specific occupational training and to meet employer hiring specifications. These projects, therefore, supply the training elements required to prepare untrained and unskilled workers for the demands of semiskilled and skilled occupations.

The coupled project utilizes the total resources provided under the MDTA by combining on-the-job and institutional training. These projects contain two distinct components: A curriculum of related classroom instruction to provide supportive knowledge basic to mastering the training occupation; and actual on-site job training. A third component to be introduced into these projects will provide for basic education training.

The institutional training component of coupled projects is usually conducted away from the job-training site, typically in vocational education institutions. When more effective results can be derived, however, it may also be provided at the training facility as a component separate from the occupational training. Varying training patterns are used in its implementation. Institutional training may precede the on-site job training, or

both may be given concurrently in a division of the training schedule, depending on the circumstances of the individual project.

As might be expected, the development and implementation of coupled projects is a highly coordinated undertaking. Provision for the institutional component is made through arrangements by the Secretary of Labor with the Secretary of HEW and through him with State vocational education agencies. The development of a coupled project on the local level thus involves the coordinated participation of the local ES, the BAT, and public vocational education officials. Existing procedures for OJT project development and implementation have been adequate to serve the early needs of the coupled project program, but revised procedures have now been worked out to improve and facilitate its anticipated acceleration.

Success of the coupled project as an effective training technique and one particularly suited to deal with current manpower development problems stimulated considerable extension of its use, with the result that it accounted for more than one-quarter of all single facility OJT projects during 1965. This proportion is expected to double in the coming year.

SUPPORTIVE SERVICES

Growth of Youth Opportunity Centers

The establishment of Youth Opportunity Centers (YOC's), an outgrowth of less formalized efforts to strengthen youth services within the Employment Service network, was one of the significant steps taken to meet the serious problem of youth unemployment.

These centers, designed to function as a major force in developing youth employability and employment opportunities, serve as a focal point for coordination of the many programs and services to assist youth. As a result of their rapid growth during the past year they now constitute a distinct substructure within the Employment Service, ready to give specialized attention to the needs of youth and to provide them with one clearly designated place to go for personalized services aimed at preparing them for job opportunities.

The establishment of these centers has stimulated the fullest use of all resources to serve youth. YOC facilities have been adapted to provide for a diversity of training opportunities and remedial or rehabilitative services, tailored to meet the needs of individual youth. Serving vast numbers of disadvantaged youth, predominantly school dropouts, the new services have been used extensively. These services include diagnostic and guidance service, depth counseling, and social, medical, and other supportive aid. At the same time, the YOC's channel youth into training and jobs, encourage them to resume or supplement their schooling, and render services to such groups as Selective Service rejectees. Outreach services also are being greatly expanded. Youth needing assistance are being sought out and drawn to the centers by specially trained "community workers" who contact disadvantaged youth in slum areas. YOC staff also maintain active working relationships with the public schools, governmental and community agencies, community action neighborhood centers, and all other organizations involved in youth work to achieve maximum effectiveness in dealing with youth needs.

Acting as a central agency to channel youth into occupational and work training programs, the YOC's are able to offer the training best suited to the needs of the individual youth through coordination of their services with the youth programs under the MDTA and the Office of Economic Opportunity. Few agencies can match YOC facilities in recruiting, screening, testing and counseling applicants for referral to appropriate training programs. YOC's for example, refer youth to MDTA institutional or OJT occupational training projects, to Neighborhood Youth Corps work experience programs, to Job Corps projects sponsored by the OEO and to other programs and services that help youth to take their place in the world of work.

The YOC network achieved sizable dimensions during 1965, its first year of existence. By the end of the year 113 centers were operating in major metropolitan centers in all States throughout the country, with 20 more approved and ready to go into operation. The centers have proved so effective in serving a variety of youth needs that it is planned to extend the network to some 200 centers during the coming years.

In addition to the establishment of Youth Opportunity Centers throughout the country, the Em-

ployment Service also has organized separate Youth Employment Units in local employment offices serving non-metropolitan areas. The principles to be followed in improving the quality of service for youth in areas not served by YOC's are identical to those followed in separate youth offices. Additional staff have been made available to provide counseling and placement services to youth in smaller offices throughout the country. Nearly 2,000 positions had been earmarked for such youth units. It is expected that this staff will serve many rural and small-town youth as well as city youth seeking their first job.

Expansion of Counseling

Expansion and improvement of counseling and guidance services were key imperatives in launching the pioneering MDTA training program in 1962. Satisfying this need imposed a real difficulty in the face of a critical shortage of professionally trained personnel, but through concentrated focus and effort progress has been made by the Employment Service system in augmenting counseling staff and expanding services.

The increased program emphasis on training the educationally and culturally disadvantaged has required continuing and intensified efforts to build up and further improve the counseling program. Each prospective trainee, faced with choices and decisions concerning his participation in training, typically requires counseling assistance. The disadvantaged individual usually requires more complex assistance. He needs motivation—hope, confidence, and often a change of attitudes—as well as guidance, to give him an understanding of his capabilities and potentials and of the opportunities open to him.

The counselor has a major responsibility in filling these needs. Increasingly, counseling continues throughout the training process and the initial period of job adjustment. Coordinated counseling is extended to the trainee as he moves from the employment office setting to the training course and then on to the job. A disadvantaged person, for example, may need instruction in basic educational skills and orientation to the world of work prior to occupational training. Thereafter, during the occupational training program, he may need counseling to help him maintain his motivation and to assist him with any problems that develop.

To assist trainees well and to achieve the purposes of the manpower training program requires further expansion of counseling and auxiliary personnel. All of these personnel must have the qualifications that will enable them to perform their important and demanding duties effectively.

The Manpower Administration has itself taken steps to develop personnel to meet expanding counseling needs. Project CAUSE (Counselor-Adviser University Summer Education) proved successful in 1964 and was repeated in 1965. Sponsored by BES in the summer of 1965, it recruited and trained counselors and auxiliary personnel for the growing network of YOC's. Under this project, arrangements were made with 38 universities and 3 social service agencies to provide 8 weeks of intensive training for nearly 1,800 college graduates, more than 300 of whom were already employed in the ES, and for 165 indigenous community workers. The academic phase of the training was followed by 4 weeks of on-the-job training in YOC's or regular ES offices. About two-thirds of those completing training went to work for the Employment Service, adding more than 1,100 personnel to its counseling staff.

To increase the supply of qualified counseling personnel is a matter of vital concern not only to the Department of Labor but also to other governmental agencies at national, State, and local levels. Exploration of this matter was undertaken in June 1965 at an Invitational Conference on Government-University Relations in the Professional Preparation and Employment of Counselors, administered by the University of Missouri under contract with the Departments of Labor and HEW. Over 100 persons attended, representing government, colleges, universities, and agencies that utilize counselors.

Ways of implementing conference recommendations relative to the training and utilization of counselors and auxiliary personnel have been formulated by an interagency task force established by the Manpower Administrator. It is anticipated that improved resources and support for the development of counselors needed in the Nation's manpower development, education, and antipoverty programs will be forthcoming.

Meanwhile, testing and counseling activities carried on by ES offices continue to gain momentum

to meet the needs of the MDTA training program. About 278,000 counseling interviews, almost one-half of them with youth, were conducted during 1965—an increase of more than 50,000 over the preceding year. Relatively proportionate increases also occurred in the administration of various tests, including the use of new testing procedures specifically designed to evaluate the potentials of persons whose limitations do not lend themselves to standardized testing techniques.

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VII
NEW RESOURCES AND NEW DIRECTIONS

New Directions

THE PLIGHT OF THE CITIES

A significant segment of our population is not sharing in the rewards of an economy characterized by unprecedented prosperity, and high employment. Although not confined to urban areas, every major city has substantial numbers of hard-core unemployed and otherwise disadvantaged workers who are unable to compete for available jobs even in tight labor situations. Such urban poverty pockets or "ghettos" now loom as the Nation's most potential trouble spots, and the imperative need for remedial assistance is widely recognized. The Department of Labor has directed its attention toward the solution of this problem, initiating two program activities that provide new approaches aimed at improving and strengthening manpower services to the disadvantaged and unemployed in major cities.

The Major Cities Program

The Department's Manpower Administration in the latter part of 1965 established a "Selected Cities" Task Force to work in some 25 to 30 major cities across the Nation. Its mission: To plan and expedite, coordinate and integrate manpower activities in designated metropolitan areas in order to increase the impact of Manpower Administration programs in helping to solve their employment and related problems.

Each task force member serves as a "city coordinator" to: (1) Insure that current manpower programs are being utilized effectively; (2) determine additional resources available and means by which they can be effectively used; (3) coordinate on-going programs to assure that they complement and supplement one another; and (4) expedite the development and implementation of new programs designed to accelerate and strengthen manpower services, particularly for the disadvantaged and hard-core unemployed.

The scope of the Task Force function, moreover, is not limited to those programs for which the Department has direct responsibility. It also cooperates with a wide variety of private and public agencies concerned with manpower programs in order to integrate their activities where possible and thereby increase their effectiveness. Continuous working relationships are required on numerous federally assisted programs designed to provide job-oriented services to the hard-core

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unemployed and other disadvantaged groups. These responsibilities include such activities as the planning and implementation of joint manpower development and training projects under the Community Action Programs established by the OEO.

Although scarcely beyond the formative stage, with task force members consisting of top echelon national staff deployed to the designated cities on temporary part-time assignments, program experience thus far has demonstrated the effectiveness of such concerted efforts to meet the manpower problems and needs of the city involved. The stimulus provided has resulted in accelerated and expanded program operations of which the following examples are illustrative.

In Los Angeles, where the scars of the Watts incident are still evident, additional Employment Service staff have been assigned to work in the State Agency Service Center in the Watts area; three new Youth Opportunity Centers have been opened in the South-Central area; new MDTA training programs have been approved for over 1,500 persons; projects to provide several thousand on-the-job training opportunities have been initiated and others are being developed; and joint Department of Labor-OEO projects have been developed and approved to provide intensive counseling and related services for severely disadvantaged youth. In Oakland, Calif., a skill training center has been set up for 1,500 workers.

In Detroit, NYC programs are being coupled with MDTA programs on an experimental basis to explore the best methods of insuring continuity of work experience and occupational training that will equip youth for available jobs. In Cleveland, recognizing that many of the hard-core unemployed do not avail themselves of public services, the Employment Service is using mobile units to search out, interview, and even transport them to receive counseling, training and job placement referral. Similar activities are also taking place in the other designated metropolitan areas.

The "big cities" program has also been exploring and utilizing resources available for job stimulation and development. Representatives of the Department of Labor, together with the OEO and HEW, have worked with "Plans for Progress"—a voluntary organization of business leaders concerned with the elimination of discrimination in employment and the increase of job opportunities for minorities in business firms. The result has been the sponsorship by that organization, with the assistance of government staff resources, of a series of seminars scheduled for early 1966 in each of the Task Force cities. These seminars will explain to local employers the federally assisted and other manpower development programs. A major part of the emphasis will be to motivate employers to provide job opportunities for "graduates" of the several programs being conducted. These seminars are expected to serve as important channels for bringing the message of the "big cities" program to the business community and others who are influential in providing job opportunities, and enlisting their support in its endeavors.

The Human Resources Development Program

The Department is also moving ahead with a second broadly based community program to rehabilitate the concentrations of improverished populations of large metropolitan areas. Suggested by the Secretary of Labor late in 1965 and designated by him as a "Human Resources Development Program," it proposes a case-by-case, person-by-person treatment of the problem of unemployment and unemployability among the hard-core unemployed.

The approach calls for two main efforts: (1) searching out and developing a roster of unemployed and underemployed persons, finding out their abilities, interests, and aspirations, and providing them with training and rehabilitative services and programs; and (2) launching a major community-wide job development program through which private and public employers will provide employment opportunities, either through federally assisted programs or under their own auspices.

This program contemplates broad representation and cooperation among government agencies at all levels, diverse community agencies, labor, industry, and minority group organizations, within a functioning organization established to promote and coordinate the program. Such organizations should be established by mayors or other appropriate city officials.

The functions and objectives of the Human Resources Development Program are interrelated with those of the on-going "Special Cities" task force program. Therefore, this latter program

will have responsibility for coordinating Human Resources Development activities in addition to its other metropolitan manpower development responsibilities.

The first pilot project under this program is now in operation. It was launched by the Mayor of Chicago during the closing days of 1965 through the establishment of a representative organization designated as the Full Employment Board. Similar projects are presently planned for four additional cities—Houston, Rochester, St. Louis, and Los Angeles—and ultimately for a network of metropolitan areas across the Nation.

PROGRAM PLANNING

The first 3 years of operation under the MDTA constituted a period of probing and testing the implications and complexities of building a national manpower development program. Now that the training program has been successfully launched and its permanence assured, more formalized and systematic planning seems indicated to achieve maximum utilization of its resources, to effectively coordinate program operations carried on by the 50 States and territorial jurisdictions, and to integrate its operating objectives with the manpower development components of the broad complex of legislation which has forged the Great Society program.

To this end a National-State Manpower Development Planning System is now on the drawing board. This system, as contemplated, will provide advance systematic planning at both the national and State levels for fulfilling the Nation's manpower development requirements. It will be directed toward assuring optimum use of training resources and facilities, focusing emphasis on appropriate training occupations, and planning appropriate types of training for identified target groups of trainees.

This proposed system provides for annual issuance by the Manpower Administration of guidelines and program directives setting forth basic objectives and providing a frame of reference for development of individual State plans. The national plans will project national economic assumptions and manpower conditions and needs, identify occupations to receive national program emphasis, identify the target population groups to be given training priority, make budgetary estimates, set State allocations of funds, and define the sphere of coordination with other governmental manpower development programs.

Following the issuance of national plans, individual State manpower plans will be developed. They will conform as closely as possible to national objectives but will be fitted also to particular circumstances which may exist or be anticipated in the State. The State manpower plan will be the blueprint of the State's proposed training activities for the ensuing year cast within the budgetary boundaries set forth in the national plan. State plans will contain analyses of the State's economic activity and trends, manpower conditions, and training needs and resources, as well as training projects contemplated and potential coordination with other Federal manpower development programs. They will in general follow the direction and emphasis of the national objectives, but may depart where necessary to accommodate to varying or unique intrastate manpower problems.

This planning system thus will reconcile individual State training operations with overall national manpower development needs and objectives to promote a more rationalized utilization of national manpower training resources.

REDIRECTION OF TRAINING

As an instrument of national manpower policy, the MDTA as amended is now sufficiently flexible to meet evolving manpower challenges as economic conditions change. The early challenge to mitigate high unemployment of the adult labor force has receded as the invigorated economy has absorbed these workers in large numbers. The continuing downtrend in the rate of unemployment now reveals a new profile of manpower development needs and new directions for training programs are thus projected.

Manpower training must now be brought to focus on two major problems in the economy: the emergence of some selective skill shortages which accompany the approach to full employment; and the exposure of residual but large pockets of hard-core unemployment among fairly well defined groups, despite relatively low and declining levels of overall unemployment. The MDTA training program will be shaped to meet these two

needs. The training effort will continue to be directed toward meeting skill shortages in those occupations for which MDTA training is feasible. The recently extended duration of training courses will facilitate training to meet growing shortages in the more skilled crafts and occupations, as will the increased use of private training facilities and the provision for refresher training in technical and professional fields. Emphasis on development of training opportunities to fill unmet needs in service and related occupations also will continue.

But the major thrust of the MDTA program will be toward reclamation of the hard-core, disadvantaged unemployed and underemployed. The problems posed by this considerable segment of the labor force are difficult and many-faceted; improvements must come from selective measures aimed directly at them.

The job-oriented approach to training, which was the original hallmark of the standard MDTA training programs, was an unquestioned success—but largely for the best qualified of the unemployed who were able to meet employer standards. The subsequent development of training patterns to include expanded and strengthened supportive services, including basic education training, provided a new dimension that paved the way toward serving the needs of many disadvantaged persons. But the intractable problems frequently encountered among these groups, combined with the extent and concentration of unemployment among them, call for more direct priority attention.

Adoption of a person-oriented approach to training has emerged as the answer and the necessity if the disadvantaged hard-core unemployed and unemployable are to be reached, as they must. This approach is trainee-oriented. Starting with the individual, it assesses his needs and aspirations, and then tailor-makes MDTA training to maximize his potentials, or searches out and steers him to other more suitable programs. This approach requires active outreach to contact potential trainees, intensive counseling and other related supportive services, basic education, and specially designed occupational training in schools and on-the-job to fit the worker for the job rather than to seek out workers who meet standardized job requirements.

Such a reoriented approach undeniably will be more expensive—it costs more to provide the complex training and services required by the disadvantaged. But it is also undeniable that a large part of the MDTA resources must appropriately be brought to bear on groups such as underprivileged youth, minority workers, the poorly educated, and older workers. Aggregate economic expansion alone will not bring full participation in our economic affluence to the hard-to-reach, high unemployment groups who require exceptional assistance to become employable, reemployed, and self-supporting citizens.

APPENDIXES

Table A–1. MDTA Trainees Authorized, by State, Calendar Years 1964 and 1965

State	Trainees					
	1965 [1]			1964		
	Total	Institutional training	On-the-job training [2]	Total	Institutional training	On-the-job training [3]
Total, all States	221,011	152,014	68,997	193,365	167,205	26,160
Alabama	2,604	2,294	310	4,730	4,670	60
Alaska	509	505	4	1,528	1,483	45
Arizona	2,220	1,710	510	1,766	1,444	322
Arkansas	1,642	1,142	500	989	863	126
California	25,017	16,222	8,795	20,112	17,447	2,665
Colorado	1,783	1,260	523	2,807	2,387	420
Connecticut	6,645	5,127	1,518	3,771	3,189	582
Delaware	733	376	357	452	452	0
District of Columbia	2,747	1,225	1,522	2,565	1,536	1,029
Florida	5,380	3,846	1,534	4,945	4,768	177
Georgia	4,159	1,928	2,231	4,141	3,991	150
Guam	60	60	0	85	85	0
Hawaii	354	269	85	438	438	0
Idaho	364	354	10	325	325	0
Illinois	18,030	11,156	6,874	12,402	10,530	1,872
Indiana	2,485	1,796	689	4,050	3,624	426
Iowa	2,193	1,796	397	1,609	1,438	171
Kansas	1,715	1,284	431	1,598	1,541	57
Kentucky	3,045	2,112	933	3,161	2,921	240
Louisiana	2,860	1,360	1,500	2,224	905	1,319
Maine	2,037	1,539	498	2,805	2,780	25
Maryland	3,234	1,470	1,764	2,430	2,086	344
Massachusetts	8,239	6,397	1,842	8,040	7,601	439
Michigan	10,774	7,041	3,733	8,516	7,947	569
Minnesota	2,664	2,000	664	5,634	5,233	401
Mississippi	1,447	951	496	3,271	2,095	1,176
Missouri	5,276	4,189	1,087	4,286	4,211	75
Montana	844	677	167	632	615	17
Nebraska	1,266	949	317	2,375	2,375	0
Nevada	340	481	159	999	999	0
New Hampshire	1,616	886	730	1,135	1,001	134
New Jersey	9,400	6,767	2,633	3,174	2,240	934
New Mexico	515	478	37	677	657	20
New York	18,779	13,238	5,541	18,075	14,228	3,847
North Carolina	3,539	1,205	2,334	4,265	2,822	1,441
North Dakota	961	699	262	741	607	134
Ohio	10,932	9,070	1,862	8,323	7,605	718
Oklahoma	1,030	712	318	4,133	4,058	75
Oregon	1,953	1,433	520	3,212	3,116	96
Pennsylvania	9,051	6,499	2,552	7,476	6,682	794
Puerto Rico	4,137	1,827	2,310	6,152	3,980	2,172
Rhode Island	924	729	195	611	611	0
South Carolina	2,533	1,821	712	1,132	1,080	52
South Dakota	1,097	467	630	550	346	204
Tennessee	5,641	3,352	2,289	3,148	2,795	353
Texas	8,024	5,963	2,061	4,723	3,483	1,240
Utah	1,209	693	516	616	516	100
Vermont	814	696	118	645	575	70
Virginia	3,269	2,435	834	3,054	2,881	173
Virgin Islands	214	214	0	128	128	0
Washington	6,164	5,574	590	4,362	3,857	505
West Virginia	1,822	1,550	272	547	487	60
Wisconsin	5,957	3,790	2,167	3,607	3,294	313
Wyoming	464	400	64	195	177	18

[1] Excludes 2,193 institutional trainees and 1,532 on-the-job trainees authorized under the supplementary redevelopment areas training program, section 241 of the MDTA.

[2] Includes 3,607 trainees in 41 experimental and demonstration projects and 2,222 trainees in 39 projects under the CAUSE program.

[3] Includes 4,773 trainees in 74 experimental and demonstration projects and 2,060 trainees in 77 projects under the CAUSE program.

Table A–2. Authorized Cost of Training Projects Under the MDTA, by State, Calendar Year 1965[1]

State	Total			Institutional training			On-the-job training[2]		
	Total	Training	Allowance	Total	Training	Allowance	Total	Training	Allowance
Total, all States	$323,593,377	$156,939,399	$166,658,978	$287,912,394	$123,842,537	$164,069,857	$35,685,983	$33,096,862	$2,589,121
Alabama	4,472,225	2,195,488	1,976,737	4,293,865	2,323,384	1,970,481	178,360	172,104	6,256
Alaska	1,749,760	829,112	920,648	1,748,263	827,615	1,920,648	1,497	1,497	0
Arizona	3,747,841	1,305,091	1,942,750	3,479,422	1,575,312	1,904,110	268,419	229,779	39,640
Arkansas	2,483,424	943,340	1,540,084	2,287,485	747,401	1,540,084	195,939	195,939	0
California	31,112,150	13,899,981	17,212,169	26,771,466	10,027,557	16,743,909	4,340,684	3,872,424	468,260
Colorado	3,005,897	1,348,490	1,657,407	2,688,702	1,084,887	1,603,815	317,195	263,603	53,592
Connecticut	5,471,195	3,151,895	2,319,300	4,351,020	2,105,630	2,245,390	1,120,175	1,046,265	73,910
Delaware	533,079	267,967	265,112	473,216	208,104	265,112	59,863	59,863	0
District of Columbia	2,648,249	1,631,879	1,016,370	1,686,828	699,309	987,519	961,421	932,570	28,851
Florida	6,770,336	3,025,219	3,745,117	6,212,351	2,537,999	3,674,352	557,785	487,220	70,765
Georgia	5,673,505	2,694,742	2,978,763	4,572,732	1,689,377	2,883,355	1,100,773	1,005,365	95,408
Guam	98,715	47,055	51,660	98,715	47,055	51,660	0	0	0
Hawaii	344,447	130,330	214,117	319,018	107,911	211,107	25,429	22,419	3,010
Idaho	927,589	313,590	613,999	924,145	310,146	613,999	3,444	3,444	0
Illinois	26,268,625	13,697,045	12,571,580	22,925,230	10,384,164	12,541,066	3,343,395	3,312,881	30,514
Indiana	4,149,264	1,999,363	2,149,901	3,744,909	1,635,043	2,109,866	404,355	364,320	40,035
Iowa	4,036,177	2,316,958	1,719,219	3,851,925	2,135,006	1,716,919	184,252	181,952	2,300
Kansas	4,136,252	1,407,355	2,728,897	3,945,718	1,216,821	2,728,897	190,534	190,534	0
Kentucky	5,829,736	2,121,358	3,708,378	5,300,153	1,727,840	3,572,313	529,583	393,518	136,065
Louisiana	4,318,480	1,736,083	2,582,397	3,921,968	1,345,476	2,576,512	396,492	390,607	5,885
Maine	1,613,917	887,588	726,329	1,466,647	763,321	703,326	147,270	124,267	23,003
Maryland	3,034,351	1,446,162	1,588,189	2,508,437	926,915	1,581,522	525,914	519,247	6,667
Massachusetts	12,191,456	5,171,180	7,020,276	10,883,339	4,155,640	6,727,699	1,308,117	1,015,540	292,577
Michigan	15,394,589	8,071,644	7,322,945	12,565,996	5,278,068	7,288,928	2,827,593	2,793,576	34,017
Minnesota	4,671,871	2,046,198	2,625,673	4,432,092	1,850,345	2,581,747	239,779	195,853	43,926
Mississippi	2,762,571	1,155,847	1,606,724	2,605,986	999,262	1,606,724	156,585	156,585	0
Missouri	9,450,152	3,274,909	6,175,243	8,798,268	2,677,957	6,120,311	651,884	596,952	54,932
Montana	986,415	489,733	496,682	905,186	408,504	496,682	81,229	81,229	0
Nebraska	1,677,743	689,408	988,335	1,551,379	563,044	988,335	126,364	126,364	0
Nevada	881,939	386,024	495,915	831,287	335,442	495,845	50,652	50,582	70
New Hampshire	1,661,744	717,367	944,377	1,513,882	569,505	944,377	147,862	147,862	0
New Jersey	17,799,537	9,427,668	8,371,869	16,593,862	8,250,621	8,343,241	1,205,675	1,177,047	28,628
New Mexico	1,017,220	395,183	622,037	1,003,620	381,583	622,037	13,600	13,600	0
New York	35,482,224	22,142,889	12,339,335	32,043,118	19,849,536	12,193,582	3,439,106	3,293,353	145,753
North Carolina	3,006,549	1,454,112	1,552,437	2,477,682	937,005	1,540,677	528,867	517,107	11,760
North Dakota	1,864,381	659,107	1,205,274	1,741,177	537,806	1,203,371	123,204	121,301	1,903
Ohio	19,236,683	8,796,232	10,440,451	17,731,079	7,518,504	10,212,575	1,505,604	1,277,728	227,876
Oklahoma	1,344,832	647,465	697,367	1,188,306	501,570	686,736	156,526	145,895	10,631
Oregon	2,841,283	1,216,945	1,624,338	2,526,968	918,562	1,608,406	314,315	298,383	15,932
Pennsylvania	17,151,653	7,427,989	9,723,664	15,467,305	5,924,440	9,542,865	1,684,348	1,503,549	180,799
Puerto Rico	2,759,765	1,346,143	1,413,622	2,132,873	728,647	1,404,226	626,892	617,496	9,396
Rhode Island	1,553,273	932,081	621,192	1,506,908	885,908	621,000	46,365	46,173	192
South Carolina	2,824,246	1,072,653	1,751,593	2,711,292	966,400	1,744,892	112,954	105,253	7,701
South Dakota	1,803,484	784,958	1,018,526	1,648,405	631,249	1,017,156	155,079	153,709	1,370
Tennessee	6,789,613	3,357,680	3,431,933	5,671,292	2,285,388	3,385,904	1,118,321	1,072,292	46,029
Texas	10,935,566	4,194,119	6,741,447	9,837,713	3,401,889	6,435,824	1,097,853	792,230	305,623
Utah	1,838,938	979,618	859,320	1,463,827	637,862	828,965	372,111	341,756	30,355
Vermont	1,427,667	637,463	790,204	1,337,351	550,030	787,321	90,316	87,433	2,883
Virginia	4,496,010	1,675,070	2,820,940	4,214,078	1,465,313	2,748,765	281,932	269,757	12,175
Virgin Islands	106,204	59,961	46,243	106,204	59,961	46,243	0	0	0
Washington	5,822,006	2,495,892	3,326,114	5,483,941	2,168,411	3,315,530	338,065	327,481	10,584
West Virginia	3,034,792	1,256,714	1,778,078	2,725,661	971,811	1,753,850	309,131	284,903	24,228
Wisconsin	7,529,560	4,540,630	2,988,930	5,835,328	2,854,018	2,981,310	1,694,232	1,686,612	7,620
Wyoming	829,197	240,426	588,771	800,754	211,983	588,771	28,443	28,443	0

[1] Excludes $3,535,806 for institutional training and $388,376 for on-the-job training authorized under the supplementary redevelopment training program, section 241 of the MDTA.

[2] Includes the following amounts for on-the-job training of persons from (a) experimental and demonstration projects: training costs, $1,515,025, and allowances, $6,829; (b) CAUSE program: training costs, $2,487,025, and allowances, $398,433; and (c) OJT supplemental classroom instruction, $1,728,879.

Table A–3. Authorized Cost of Training Projects Under the MDTA, by State, Calendar Year 1964

State	Total			Institutional training			On-the-job training[1]		
	Total	Training	Allowance	Total	Training	Allowance	Total	Training	Allowance
Total, all States	$254,434,624	$136,097,045	$118,337,579	$238,571,974	$122,550,762	$116,021,212	$15,862,650	$13,546,283	$2,316,367
Alabama	4,504,770	3,090,468	1,414,302	4,435,613	3,022,393	1,413,220	69,157	68,075	1,082
Alaska	2,616,953	1,470,449	1,146,504	2,602,524	1,462,079	1,140,445	14,429	8,370	6,059
Arizona	2,232,249	1,582,706	649,543	1,955,150	1,364,991	590,159	277,099	217,715	59,384
Arkansas	1,037,192	576,893	460,299	971,407	521,903	449,504	65,785	54,990	10,795
California	26,470,838	12,563,375	13,907,463	24,211,377	10,785,213	13,426,164	2,259,461	1,778,162	481,299
Colorado	4,006,138	1,791,576	2,214,562	3,753,446	1,559,919	2,023,527	242,692	231,657	11,035
Connecticut	2,718,106	1,708,456	1,009,650	2,203,712	1,286,381	917,331	514,394	422,075	92,319
Delaware	627,787	371,058	256,729	626,743	371,058	255,685	1,044	0	1,044
District of Columbia	1,467,202	946,875	520,327	1,082,511	564,072	518,439	384,691	382,803	1,888
Florida	4,675,034	2,779,643	1,895,391	4,371,816	2,565,660	1,806,156	303,218	213,983	89,235
Georgia	5,375,457	3,038,229	2,337,228	5,307,938	2,987,233	2,320,705	67,519	50,996	16,523
Guam	222,857	146,457	76,400	222,857	146,457	76,400	0	0	0
Hawaii	622,303	342,115	280,188	613,475	342,115	271,360	8,828	0	8,828
Idaho	439,049	204,518	234,531	429,573	204,518	225,055	9,476	0	9,476
Illinois	19,103,423	11,032,587	8,070,836	18,013,403	9,971,376	8,042,027	1,090,020	1,061,211	28,809
Indiana	7,832,755	4,626,534	3,206,221	7,484,983	4,301,189	3,183,794	347,772	325,345	22,427
Iowa	2,892,039	1,683,610	1,208,429	2,780,553	1,587,106	1,193,447	111,486	96,504	14,982
Kansas	3,330,765	1,487,463	1,843,302	3,290,615	1,471,792	1,818,823	40,150	15,671	24,479
Kentucky	4,996,518	1,906,912	3,089,606	4,893,518	1,828,610	3,064,908	103,000	78,302	24,698
Louisiana	1,837,477	1,074,108	763,369	1,644,085	900,143	743,942	193,392	173,965	19,427
Maine	2,357,645	1,363,470	994,175	2,352,978	1,361,285	991,693	4,667	2,185	2,482
Maryland	2,376,025	1,545,389	830,636	2,268,540	1,441,955	826,585	107,485	103,434	4,051
Massachusetts	11,652,521	5,248,031	6,404,490	11,397,646	5,009,964	6,387,682	254,875	238,067	16,808
Michigan	18,511,172	8,971,032	9,540,140	18,293,031	8,658,686	9,634,345	318,141	312,346	5,795
Minnesota	10,101,946	4,291,910	5,810,036	9,890,671	4,146,628	5,744,043	211,275	145,282	65,993
Mississippi	4,105,780	2,195,705	1,910,075	2,823,959	1,473,250	1,350,709	1,281,821	722,455	559,366
Missouri	5,739,752	2,401,307	3,338,445	5,692,509	2,362,685	3,329,824	47,243	38,622	8,621
Montana	1,188,169	661,638	526,531	1,178,486	654,787	523,699	9,683	6,851	2,832
Nebraska	3,787,589	1,886,557	1,901,032	3,778,011	1,886,557	1,891,454	9,578	0	9,578
Nevada	1,892,071	977,329	914,742	1,889,951	977,329	912,622	2,120	0	2,120
New Hampshire	1,187,863	654,726	533,137	1,139,076	613,686	525,390	48,787	41,040	7,747
New Jersey	2,857,643	1,824,277	1,033,366	2,280,378	1,264,182	1,016,196	577,265	560,095	17,170
New Mexico	695,599	322,753	372,846	677,407	312,130	365,277	18,192	10,623	7,569
New York	23,910,309	16,331,831	7,578,478	21,262,025	13,880,557	7,381,468	2,648,284	2,451,274	197,010
North Carolina	3,895,199	2,364,200	1,530,999	3,434,400	1,915,115	1,519,285	460,799	449,085	11,714
North Dakota	1,364,607	490,332	874,275	1,291,209	418,128	873,081	73,398	72,204	1,194
Ohio	10,841,050	5,509,034	5,332,016	10,244,947	4,937,436	5,307,511	596,103	571,598	24,505
Oklahoma	2,118,655	1,107,964	1,010,691	2,033,504	1,026,005	1,007,499	85,151	81,959	3,192
Oregon	3,602,283	2,275,119	1,327,164	3,532,277	2,209,599	1,322,678	70,006	65,520	4,486
Pennsylvania	12,834,238	6,125,241	6,708,997	12,394,945	5,717,300	6,677,645	439,293	407,941	31,352
Puerto Rico	4,215,413	2,222,802	1,992,611	3,634,515	1,661,317	1,973,198	580,898	561,485	19,413
Rhode Island	829,091	482,090	347,001	823,672	482,090	341,582	5,419	0	5,419
South Carolina	2,226,558	1,270,170	956,388	2,215,404	1,260,680	954,724	11,154	9,490	1,664
South Dakota	857,463	252,371	605,092	816,522	221,346	595,176	40,941	31,025	9,916
Tennessee	3,774,586	1,895,559	1,879,027	3,641,608	1,765,472	1,876,136	132,978	130,087	2,891
Texas	5,277,940	2,576,759	2,701,181	4,552,323	2,047,620	2,504,703	725,617	529,139	196,478
Utah	1,055,562	525,786	529,776	937,001	411,610	525,391	118,561	114,176	4,385
Vermont	981,914	590,603	391,311	893,929	523,230	370,690	87,985	67,364	20,621
Virginia	3,567,219	1,995,686	1,571,533	3,390,798	1,878,249	1,512,549	176,421	117,437	58,984
Virgin Islands	90,675	64,891	25,784	90,675	64,891	25,784	0	0	0
Washington	4,258,201	2,301,399	1,956,802	4,035,304	2,094,931	1,940,373	222,897	206,468	16,429
West Virginia	483,580	276,823	206,757	423,688	217,924	205,764	59,892	58,899	993
Wisconsin	4,262,948	2,514,855	1,748,093	3,943,312	2,266,079	1,677,233	319,636	248,776	70,860
Wyoming	424,446	155,374	269,072	411,974	143,842	268,132	12,472	11,532	940

[1] Includes the following amounts for on-the-job training of persons from (a) experimental and demonstration projects: training costs, $2,695,807, and allowances, $53,826: (b) CAUSE: training costs, $1,968,731, and allowances, $592,633; and OJT supplemental classroom instruction, $361,021.

Table A-4. Estimated Enrollment, Completion, and Posttraining Employment, MDTA Institutional and On-the-Job Trainees, August 1962 through December 31, 1965

State	Enrollments			Completions			Posttraining employment		
	Total	Institutional training	On-the-job training	Total	Institutional training	On-the-job training	Total	Institutional training	On-the-job training
Total, all States	369,400	319,524	49,876	201,118	171,399	29,719	152,564	127,065	25,499
Alabama	7,029	6,900	129	3,718	3,644	74	2,437	2,372	65
Alaska	1,564	1,543	21	991	973	18	697	682	15
Arizona	3,745	3,344	401	1,955	1,749	206	1,530	1,389	141
Arkansas	4,790	3,890	900	2,651	2,190	461	2,300	1,835	465
California	32,724	27,773	4,951	18,951	15,283	3,668	13,441	10,423	3,018
Colorado	3,944	3,209	735	2,143	1,543	600	1,722	1,119	603
Connecticut	8,567	8,287	280	5,884	5,754	130	4,847	4,724	123
Delaware	976	809	167	540	485	55	288	261	27
District of Columbia	3,609	3,066	543	1,906	1,631	275	1,348	1,104	244
Florida	8,411	7,849	562	5,188	4,965	223	3,766	3,565	201
Georgia	6,703	5,166	1,537	2,983	2,279	704	2,163	1,579	584
Guam	106	106	0	13	13	0	0	INA	0
Hawaii	787	714	73	541	512	29	435	416	19
Idaho	836	816	20	430	413	17	343	326	17
Illinois	25,481	23,343	2,138	11,216	9,567	1,648	9,023	7,405	1,618
Indiana	7,469	6,770	699	3,437	3,046	391	2,585	2,312	273
Iowa	2,833	2,701	132	1,512	1,421	91	1,271	1,191	80
Kansas	3,333	3,046	287	1,759	1,559	200	1,413	1,211	202
Kentucky	10,865	10,271	594	6,899	6,605	294	5,116	4,855	261
Louisiana	3,349	1,700	1,649	2,041	665	1,376	1,849	532	1,317
Maine	4,132	3,756	376	2,694	2,517	177	2,077	1,895	182
Maryland	3,146	2,741	405	1,409	1,322	87	1,070	985	85
Massachusetts	14,067	12,570	1,497	6,461	5,833	628	4,977	4,456	521
Michigan	18,769	17,296	1,473	9,206	8,135	1,071	7,688	6,760	928
Minnesota	5,967	4,925	1,042	3,020	2,295	725	2,343	1,836	507
Mississippi	3,810	1,754	2,056	2,027	754	1,273	1,743	447	1,296
Missouri	10,569	10,107	462	5,750	5,508	243	4,197	3,982	215
Montana	1,321	1,211	110	921	853	68	810	740	70
Nebraska	2,873	2,793	80	1,492	1,431	61	1,136	1,082	54
Nevada	1,759	1,708	51	1,077	1,077	0	694	694	0
New Hampshire	2,456	2,003	453	1,464	1,225	239	1,037	834	203
New Jersey	7,843	5,997	1,846	4,728	3,564	1,164	3,782	2,730	1,052
New Mexico	1,664	1,601	63	1,152	1,116	36	760	732	28
New York	29,712	23,468	6,244	15,692	12,886	2,806	11,661	9,639	2,022
North Carolina	5,037	3,388	1,649	2,988	1,677	1,311	2,597	1,347	1,250
North Dakota	1,541	1,178	363	959	656	303	793	529	264
Ohio	15,739	14,526	1,213	8,521	7,886	635	6,167	5,631	536
Oklahoma	4,603	4,553	50	2,448	2,446	2	1,651	1,649	2
Oregon	4,024	3,803	221	2,122	1,939	183	1,373	1,272	101
Pennsylvania	20,594	18,816	1,778	8,939	7,921	1,018	6,986	6,123	863
Puerto Rico	11,373	7,784	3,589	7,934	5,483	2,451	6,771	4,556	2,215
Rhode Island	1,535	1,416	119	825	742	83	684	608	76
South Carolina	7,200	6,822	378	4,103	3,789	314	2,601	2,323	278
South Dakota	1,413	835	578	617	121	496	527	100	427
Tennessee	10,039	7,708	2,331	5,453	4,377	1,076	3,543	3,116	427
Texas	9,999	8,340	4,659	6,140	5,009	1,131	4,780	3,707	1,073
Utah	1,770	1,551	219	1,083	943	140	735	611	124
Vermont	1,209	1,170	39	774	756	18	656	638	18
Virginia	5,850	5,406	444	3,230	3,105	125	2,302	2,201	101
Virgin Islands	275	275	0	148	148	0	0	INA	0
Washington	9,788	9,160	628	6,623	6,093	530	5,158	4,637	521
West Virginia	4,544	4,095	449	2,865	2,654	211	1,798	1,661	137
Wisconsin	6,941	4,884	2,057	3,156	2,521	635	2,657	2,024	633
Wyoming	717	581	136	339	320	19	236	219	17

Table A–5. Major Occupation Groups and Selected Occupations for Which MDTA Institutional Training Was Authorized, Calendar Years 1964 and 1965

Occupation group and selected occupations	Trainees authorized	
	1965[1]	1964
Total: Number	152,014	167,205
Multioccupation projects	41,715	72,837
Individual referrals	4,566	2,681
Single occupation projects	105,733	91,687
Percent distribution of single occupations	[2] 100.0	[3] 100.0
Professional and managerial[4]	13.9	11.0
Nurse, professional (refresher)	1.9	.8
Draftsman	2.6	1.6
Nurse, practical, licensed	4.6	6.1
Laboratory technician and assistant	.9	.8
Clerical and sales	21.0	24.6
Clerk, general office	1.5	3.3
Office machine operator	1.7	2.2
Secretary	.7	.7
Stenographer	6.1	7.8
Typist	.4	1.4
Clerk-typist	4.5	4.8
Salesperson (all types)	2.9	1.8
Service	14.2	13.8
Housekeeper (working)	.6	.2
Cook (all types)	2.0	2.2
Waiter/waitress	1.0	1.0
Nurse aide/orderly	6.3	6.4
Psychiatric aide	.5	.6
Janitor I	.7	.5
Agriculture	4.4	5.7
Farmer, general	.2	1.1
Truck farmer	.2	1.3
Farm hand (all types)	1.7	1.2
Gardener/groundsman	.8	.8
Harvest hand (vegetables)	.5	.0
Skilled	28.4	27.4
Upholsterer (all types)	.6	.6
Machinist (all types)	.9	.8
Machine tool operator and related	.6	.5
Welder	5.3	3.7
Carpenter (all types)	.6	.9
Pipefitter/plumber	.8	.6
Automobile mechanic	4.5	4.6
Automobile-body repairman	2.8	2.4
Electrical appliance serviceman	.6	.7
Electronics mechanic	.7	.9
Maintenance mechanic II	.5	.5
Farm equipment mechanic	.3	.6
Sheet metal worker	.6	.4
Electrician (all types)	.6	.2
Pattern/model maker	.7	.0
Butcher	.5	.4
Semiskilled	17.7	16.9
Machine operator, general	6.7	5.3
Electronics assembler	.6	1.0
Subassembly installer II	1.8	1.5
Automobile-service-station attendant	.7	1.2
Automobile-service-station mechanic	.9	1.3
Construction machinery operator	.5	.0
Preapprentice and other	.4	.0

[1] Excludes 2,193 institutional trainees authorized under the supplementary redevelopment areas training program, section 241 of the MDTA.

[2] Based on available reports for approximately 98,000 trainees in single occupation projects.

[3] Based on available reports for approximately 90,000 trainees in single occupation projects.

[4] Most training in this group is at the semiprofessional or technical level.

NOTE: Detail does not add to totals because only the occupations with the largest number of trainees are shown.

Table A–6. Major Occupation Groups and Selected Occupations for Which MDTA On-the-Job Training Was Authorized, Calendar Years 1964 and 1965

Occupation group and selected occupations	Trainees authorized	
	1965[1]	1964
Total: Number	68,997	26,160
CAUSE program [2]	2,222	2,080
OJT trainees under the experimental and demonstration program [3]	3,607	4,773
Single and multioccupational training projects	63,168	19,307
Percent distribution of single occupations	[4]100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [5]	7.9	2.6
Draftsman	.8	.4
Manager, retail automotive service	3.8	.0
Clerical and sales	2.9	2.9
Bookkeeper and cashier	.8	.7
Service	20.8	11.5
Barber	10.5	.0
Nurse aide/orderly	5.3	5.5
Agriculture	3.8	1.5
Harvest hand, fruit	1.7	.0
Gardener	.1	.7
Skilled	21.3	40.8
Pressman (all types)	1.1	.4
Sewer, hand (moccasin)	1.8	2.7
Stitcher, utility (boot and shoe)	1.3	.1
Skilled—Continued		
Machinist/tool and die maker	0.7	1.0
Other machine shop and related	.9	.5
Carpenter (all types)	1.5	.0
Auto and other vehicle mechanics and repairmen	1.6	1.7
Other mechanics and repairmen	2.3	2.2
Welder (all types)	.7	9.4
Operating engineer	.0	5.2
Bus driver	.0	4.4
Conductor	.0	3.5
Semiskilled	31.9	31.4
Stitcher, machine (boot and shoe)	1.3	3.1
Sewing machine operator	.8	.7
Machine operator, general	2.8	.6
Screw machine operator	.3	1.7
Sheet metal worker, helper	.8	.0
Electronics assembler	1.4	1.3
Installation inspector (radio)	.9	.0
Assembler, communication equipment	.8	.0
Detail-electrical assembler	1.6	.0
Routeman	.9	.9
Aircraft mechanic helper	1.7	.0
Subassembler (aircraft)	.5	2.0
Subassembly installer	.1	2.4
Preapprentice and other	11.4	9.3
Tool and die maker	1.6	1.7
Bricklayer	2.0	.1

[1] Excludes 1,532 on-the-job trainees authorized under the supplementary redevelopment areas training program, section 241 of the MDTA.

[2] Counselor Advisor University Summer Education program.

[3] Includes OJT trainees receiving services under the experimental and demonstration program.

[4] Based on approximately 28,000 reported single occupation training opportunities.

[5] Most training in this group is at the semiprofessional or technical level.

NOTE: Detail does not add to totals because only the occupations with the largest number of trainees are shown.

Table A-7. Occupations for Which Persons Were Trained in MDTA Institutional Projects in 1965, and the Trainees' Primary Occupation Before Training

[Percent distribution]

Occupation trained for	All trainees	Trainees whose primary occupation before training was—							
		Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Service	Agriculture	Skilled	Semiskilled	Unskilled	Entry
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	10.2	53.4	13.0	14.6	1.8	6.8	5.7	5.5	9.0
Clerical and sales	22.8	13.6	55.3	22.3	2.9	5.3	9.5	9.8	30.4
Service	14.6	5.4	8.9	32.8	6.8	4.8	7.7	11.1	17.3
Agriculture	3.8	.5	.5	1.5	44.0	2.4	1.7	2.5	1.3
Skilled	23.5	19.4	12.9	15.9	29.8	60.3	47.0	43.4	21.8
Semiskilled	19.1	7.7	9.4	12.9	14.7	20.4	28.4	27.7	20.2
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	7.4	29.7	16.4	6.2	1.7	6.8	5.0	4.9	10.8
Clerical and sales	4.6	6.4	15.0	5.1	1.2	2.5	2.8	2.7	7.0
Service	6.8	5.6	5.5	18.6	3.5	3.6	4.4	7.2	6.3
Agriculture	3.2	1.2	1.7	4.3	47.1	2.6	2.1	3.0	2.4
Skilled	48.0	42.1	41.6	40.9	31.5	63.5	55.2	51.7	40.7
Semiskilled	27.0	15.0	19.8	24.9	15.0	21.0	30.5	30.5	32.8
Female	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	14.4	73.0	11.5	19.0	2.9	6.4	9.0	8.4	7.2
Clerical and sales	49.8	19.6	72.6	31.3	25.6	49.4	43.9	44.4	55.2
Service	26.3	5.2	10.4	40.1	51.9	23.0	25.3	30.3	28.9
Agriculture	.1	[2]	[2]	[2]	2.9	[2]	[2]	.1	.2
Skilled	2.1	.6	.6	2.9	6.0	10.1	4.3	3.0	1.7
Semiskilled	7.3	1.6	4.9	6.7	10.7	11.1	17.5	13.8	6.8

[1] Most training in this group is at the semiprofessional or technical level.

[2] Less than 0.1 of 1 percent.

Table A–3. Occupations for Which Persons Were Trained in MDTA Institutional Projects in 1964, and the Trainees' Primary Occupation Before Training

[Percent distribution]

Occupation trained for	All trainees	Trainees whose primary occupation before training was—							
		Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Service	Agriculture	Skilled	Semiskilled	Unskilled	Entry
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	11.1	35.0	12.4	18.1	2.5	7.3	6.6	6.5	12.5
Clerical and sales	23.4	22.6	58.6	21.8	1.6	5.2	9.3	9.9	29.6
Service	13.9	7.2	8.8	31.1	5.5	5.6	8.5	11.3	15.8
Agriculture	4.5	1.5	.5	1.2	53.8	1.9	2.2	3.8	.7
Skilled	30.1	24.2	12.1	15.0	23.4	62.1	49.1	44.0	23.3
Semiskilled	17.0	9.5	7.6	12.8	13.2	17.9	24.3	24.5	18.1
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	8.0	27.5	15.6	7.5	2.6	6.9	5.5	5.2	12.5
Clerical and sales	4.2	9.7	14.2	4.3	.9	2.6	2.2	2.5	6.3
Service	7.8	6.3	7.5	22.6	2.5	4.7	5.7	8.1	7.0
Agriculture	7.6	2.3	1.5	3.4	57.2	2.0	2.7	4.6	1.4
Skilled	49.4	40.7	43.2	40.3	24.9	65.8	58.6	53.3	44.1
Semiskilled	23.0	13.5	18.0	21.9	11.9	18.0	25.3	26.3	28.7
Female	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial [1]	15.6	45.5	21.2	23.4	1.4	13.8	11.7	12.3	12.4
Clerical and sales	51.4	40.8	75.0	30.6	12.1	46.9	42.6	42.0	53.9
Service	22.8	8.3	9.3	35.4	48.3	19.4	22.1	25.5	24.9
Agriculture	.1	.4	.1	.1	4.6	(2)	.1	(2)	(2)
Skilled	1.9	1.1	.6	2.2	2.6	4.3	4.2	3.6	1.7
Semiskilled	8.2	3.9	3.8	8.3	31.0	15.6	19.3	16.6	7.1

[1] Most training in this group is at the semiprofessional or technical level.

[2] Less than 0.1 of 1 percent.

Table A–9. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Sex, Color, Age, and Education, Calendar Year 1965

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	All trainees	Sex		Color		Age				Education			
		Male	Female	White	Nonwhite	Under 19 years	19 to 21 years	22 to 44 years	45 years and over	Less than 9th grade	9th to 11th grade	12th grade	Over 12th grade
Sex	100.0	----	----	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Male	60.0	----	----	64.5	51.8	61.0	61.7	59.2	54.1	78.9	63.9	51.3	46.5
Female	40.0	----	----	35.5	48.2	39.0	38.3	40.1	45.9	21.1	36.1	48.7	53.5
Family status	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	51.4	58.3	41.0	51.6	52.6	9.5	31.1	73.2	71.0	63.3	54.6	44.2	50.8
Other	48.6	41.7	59.0	48.4	47.4	90.5	68.9	26.8	29.0	36.7	45.4	55.8	49.2
Age	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	----	----	----	----	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	18.4	18.7	17.9	18.3	15.9	----	----	----	----	20.1	20.1	18.6	1.8
19 to 21 years	23.6	24.3	22.6	22.0	27.2	----	----	----	----	15.1	25.8	25.8	17.8
22 to 44 years	48.0	49.0	48.0	47.7	50.8	----	----	----	----	45.3	46.9	48.1	63.2
45 years and over	10.0	9.0	11.5	12.0	6.1	----	----	----	----	19.5	7.2	7.5	17.2
Education	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	----	----	----	----
Less than 8th grade	7.1	9.7	3.2	6.6	7.1	6.3	3.7	6.8	17.9	----	----	----	----
8th grade	9.9	12.6	5.8	10.8	7.8	12.2	7.2	9.2	15.2	----	----	----	----
9th to 11th grade	33.9	36.1	30.6	30.9	39.2	37.2	37.3	33.0	24.5	----	----	----	----
12th grade	43.2	37.0	52.5	45.4	40.5	43.7	47.3	43.2	32.2	----	----	----	----
Over 12th grade	5.9	4.6	7.9	6.3	5.4	0.6	4.5	7.8	10.2	----	----	----	----
Years of gainful employment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 3 years	42.7	38.3	52.3	40.1	45.9	92.9	74.0	16.3	6.0	34.1	45.2	46.1	30.0
3 to 9 years	34.9	35.6	33.9	35.6	34.7	7.0	25.7	52.6	22.0	27.8	35.3	36.6	40.8
10 years or more	22.4	26.1	13.8	24.3	19.4	0.1	0.3	31.1	72.0	38.1	19.5	17.3	29.2
Labor force status prior to enrollment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unemployed	86.2	87.5	84.2	86.1	87.7	87.3	88.3	85.5	82.0	85.9	88.6	85.2	80.3
Family farm worker	1.8	2.9	0.2	1.8	1.2	0.7	0.9	1.9	5.8	6.6	0.9	0.8	0.3
Reentrant to labor force	3.6	1.1	7.3	3.7	2.3	4.5	2.0	3.6	5.8	2.8	3.3	3.6	7.9
Underemployed	8.4	8.5	8.3	8.4	8.8	7.5	8.8	9.0	6.4	4.7	7.2	10.4	11.5
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	32.8	36.7	26.3	34.5	29.2	34.9	36.1	31.9	23.3	29.4	31.5	35.1	32.2
5 to 14 weeks	22.3	20.0	19.3	24.5	21.9	21.5	25.1	23.9	19.8	22.4	23.6	23.7	22.1
15 to 26 weeks	13.2	13.8	12.3	12.9	13.9	10.5	13.1	14.2	13.7	13.1	13.9	12.5	14.0
27 to 52 weeks	11.0	10.2	12.3	10.6	12.2	10.2	10.2	11.3	15.7	10.8	11.4	10.8	11.5
Over 52 weeks	19.7	13.3	29.8	17.5	22.8	22.9	15.5	18.7	29.5	24.3	19.6	17.9	20.2
Color	100.0	100.0	100.0	----	----	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	66.3	71.1	59.3	----	----	69.5	61.5	65.0	79.4	69.9	60.9	69.0	69.7
Nonwhite	33.7	28.9	40.7	----	----	30.5	38.5	35.0	20.6	30.1	39.1	31.0	30.3

Table A–10. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Projects by Sex, Color, Age, and Education, Calendar Year 1964

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	All trainees	Sex		Color		Age				Education			
		Male	Female	White	Non-white	Under 19 years	19 to 21 years	22 to 44 years	45 years and over	Less than 9th grade	9th to 11th grade	12th grade	Over 12th grade
Sex	100.0			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Male	60.0			63.3	53.6	58.6	62.9	60.0	55.8	80.5	66.3	49.0	48.9
Female	40.0			36.7	46.4	41.4	37.1	40.0	44.2	19.5	33.7	51.0	51.1
Family status	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	52.1	63.4	37.8	54.1	51.7	9.4	30.1	73.2	71.9	67.5	56.3	44.9	55.1
Other	46.9	36.6	62.2	45.9	48.3	90.6	69.9	26.8	28.1	32.5	43.7	55.1	44.9
Age	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0					100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	15.3	14.9	15.8	15.1	14.5					16.1	16.8	15.7	1.4
19 to 21 years	23.8	24.9	22.0	21.9	27.9					14.4	26.4	26.0	19.0
22 to 44 years	50.3	50.3	50.5	50.3	51.9					48.1	49.0	50.5	63.8
45 years and over	10.6	9.9	11.7	12.7	5.7					21.4	7.8	7.8	15.8
Education	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				
Less than 8th grade	7.6	10.4	3.4	7.2	7.4	6.6	3.7	7.2	19.8				
8th grade	9.4	12.4	4.9	10.4	7.0	11.3	6.6	9.0	14.6				
9th to 11th grade	32.9	36.3	27.8	30.4	37.8	36.3	36.6	32.0	24.2				
12th grade	43.9	35.8	55.9	45.7	41.6	45.2	48.1	43.9	32.1				
Over 12th grade	6.2	5.1	8.0	6.3	6.2	.6	5.0	7.9	9.3				
Years of gainful employment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 3 years	38.2	31.7	48.0	35.1	43.4	91.8	71.1	13.5	5.4	27.3	39.7	42.7	27.4
3 to 9 years	36.6	36.8	36.3	37.5	35.7	8.0	28.6	52.4	20.4	30.0	37.2	38.1	41.2
10 years or more	25.2	31.5	15.7	27.4	20.9	.2	.3	34.1	74.2	42.7	23.1	19.2	31.4
Labor force status prior to enrollment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unemployed	89.5	88.8	90.6	89.5	90.3	91.9	91.5	88.6	86.0	85.8	91.4	89.7	89.0
Family farm worker	2.3	3.6	.4	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	2.3	6.8	9.0	1.2	.8	.4
Reentrant to the labor force	.7	.2	1.4	.7	.5	.5	.2	.8	1.1	.4	.6	.7	1.3
Underemployed	7.5	7.4	7.5	7.4	8.0	6.5	7.1	8.3	6.1	4.8	6.8	8.8	9.3
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	31.5	35.5	25.7	33.1	28.0	35.0	34.6	30.3	24.5	30.6	29.8	33.4	30.5
5 to 14 weeks	23.1	26.4	18.3	23.6	22.5	21.6	25.1	23.3	20.0	21.7	23.8	23.1	22.9
15 to 26 weeks	12.8	13.3	11.9	12.9	12.8	10.8	12.4	15.5	13.1	12.0	13.4	12.6	12.8
27 to 52 weeks	11.0	10.6	11.6	10.7	12.9	8.3	10.0	11.7	14.1	11.9	11.2	10.3	11.9
Over 52 weeks	21.6	14.2	32.5	19.7	24.7	24.3	17.9	21.2	28.3	23.8	21.8	20.6	21.9
Color	100.0	100.0	100.0			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	69.6	73.0	64.4			70.5	64.2	68.9	83.4	73.7	64.8	71.6	70.0
Nonwhite	30.4	27.0	35.6			29.5	35.8	31.1	16.6	26.3	35.2	28.4	30.0

Table A–11. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA On-the-Job Training Projects, by Sex, Calendar Years 1964 and 1965

Characteristic	Percent distribution					
	1965			1964		
	All trainees	Male	Female	All trainees	Male	Female
Family status	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head of family or household	48.5	57.0	22.2	54.1	64.0	26.7
Other	51.5	43.0	77.8	45.9	36.0	73.3
Age	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 19 years	14.8	15.5	12.7	9.8	9.6	10.1
19 to 21 years	24.4	26.9	16.7	23.0	23.5	21.4
22 to 34 years	38.8	39.9	35.2	44.3	47.2	36.5
35 to 44 years	12.1	9.8	19.2	13.9	12.4	18.2
45 years and over	9.9	7.9	16.2	9.0	7.3	13.8
Education	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 8th grade	4.2	4.0	4.9	6.1	6.2	6.0
8th grade	7.9	7.1	10.3	7.9	7.5	8.9
9th to 11th grade	26.2	23.6	34.0	26.1	25.4	28.0
12th grade	52.1	55.2	42.6	47.4	47.6	46.9
Over 12th grade	9.6	10.1	8.2	12.5	13.3	10.2
Years of gainful employment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 3 years	40.0	38.1	45.8	33.4	28.6	47.1
3 to 9 years	37.0	38.0	33.8	39.7	41.4	34.9
10 years or more	23.0	23.9	20.4	26.9	30.0	18.0
Labor force status prior to enrollment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unemployed	63.2	64.3	60.1	66.2	63.7	72.9
Family farm worker	.9	1.1	.1	.4	.5	.1
Reentrant to labor force	2.3	1.2	5.7	.8	.2	2.4
Underemployed	33.6	33.4	34.1	32.6	35.6	24.6
Duration of unemployment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 5 weeks	40.6	43.9	29.7	45.2	51.5	30.1
5 to 14 weeks	26.1	28.9	17.1	21.3	23.4	16.4
15 to 26 weeks	12.4	12.5	12.0	10.7	10.7	10.7
27 to 52 weeks	8.9	7.8	12.4	8.5	7.2	11.4
Over 52 weeks	12.0	6.9	28.8	14.3	7.2	31.4
Color	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	79.3	80.8	74.6	78.6	79.0	77.3
Nonwhite	20.7	19.2	25.4	21.4	21.0	22.7

Table A-12. Selected MDTA Training Program Activities Conducted by State Employment Security Agencies, Calendar Years 1964 and 1965

Year and month	Screening interviews		Counseling interviews		Specific aptitude tests		General aptitude test batteries		Proficiency tests		Referrals to training	
	Total	Youth	Total	Youth	Total	Youth	Total	Youth	Total	Youth	Total	Youth
1965	822, 365	308, 752	277, 634	132, 719	120, 145	37, 780	104, 833	42, 584	15, 038	4, 594	186, 220	71, 978
January	93, 373	34, 945	31, 497	16, 022	10, 131	3, 364	11, 499	5, 174	1, 355	393	21, 262	9, 380
February	74, 093	27, 317	27, 487	15, 006	8, 452	3, 269	10, 100	4, 441	1, 257	378	15, 362	6, 024
March	74, 556	25, 869	24, 889	12, 453	8, 293	2, 646	9, 572	4, 435	1, 496	378	14, 911	5, 368
April	63, 099	20, 844	18, 908	9, 305	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	2, 215	996	281	11, 944	4, 132
May	58, 779	20, 357	17, 210	8, 039	7, 812	2, 223	6, 978	2, 814	809	272	10, 266	3, 726
June	76, 616	30, 564	20, 567	8, 649	11, 073	4, 243	7, 666	3, 289	1, 383	545	14, 396	6, 404
July	76, 046	27, 085	20, 971	9, 800	12, 013	3, 743	8, 814	3, 255	1, 598	593	14, 345	5, 484
August	86, 289	29, 518	26, 352	11, 989	12, 280	3, 927	9, 714	3, 584	1, 568	439	19, 481	7, 983
September	78, 062	26, 177	24, 756	11, 127	11, 801	3, 642	9, 013	3, 266	1, 162	294	19, 534	7, 229
October	68, 539	22, 925	21, 249	10, 367	10, 964	3, 232	8, 232	3, 170	1, 181	326	16, 530	5, 952
November	69, 821	22, 148	21, 259	9, 352	9, 452	2, 410	7, 623	2, 898	1, 083	352	14, 287	5, 001
December	67, 392	21, 003	22, 689	9, 610	10, 141	2, 668	8, 165	3, 043	1, 150	343	13, 902	4, 789
1964	715, 392	236, 730	226, 015	99, 616	90, 043	25, 497	93, 848	35, 235	12, 761	3, 947	122, 923	43, 584
January	58, 165	17, 288	15, 447	5, 280	7, 812	1, 603	8, 442	2, 487	1, 160	334	9, 847	2, 805
February	53, 293	16, 320	15, 093	4, 837	8, 326	1, 835	8, 165	2, 498	1, 355	321	6, 991	2, 306
March	46, 581	13, 987	14, 981	5, 423	6, 884	1, 772	6, 778	2, 036	1, 133	263	6, 152	1, 756
April	40, 386	12, 000	12, 601	4, 681	5, 279	1, 329	5, 976	1, 735	982	440	5, 539	1, 502
May	40, 485	14, 616	13, 435	5, 941	4, 591	1, 305	5, 305	1, 868	605	159	5, 772	1, 935
June	56, 497	20, 530	17, 016	8, 217	6, 886	2, 456	6, 635	2, 797	999	332	7, 644	2, 974
July	72, 142	24, 702	21, 014	10, 618	9, 110	2, 629	8, 342	3, 874	1, 218	413	13, 611	5, 190
August	70, 963	23, 866	23, 355	10, 774	9, 216	2, 738	8, 947	3, 401	1, 170	437	12, 483	5, 277
September	70, 783	22, 757	23, 810	10, 872	8, 883	2, 647	9, 633	4, 060	1, 393	502	14, 027	5, 016
October	70, 050	23, 092	21, 822	9, 915	8, 396	2, 615	8, 421	3, 240	1, 059	250	14, 441	5, 091
November	63, 852	21, 624	21, 122	10, 518	7, 077	2, 444	7, 489	3, 247	788	251	13, 132	4, 712
December	72, 189	25, 249	26, 319	12, 540	7, 583	2, 119	9, 714	3, 992	899	245	13, 284	5, 020

APPENDIX II

MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962, AS AMENDED[1] (42 U.S.C. 2571-2620)

An Act

Relating to manpower requirements, resources, development, and utilization, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act may be cited as the "Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962".

TITLE I—MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, DEVELOPMENT, AND UTILIZATION

STATEMENT OF FINDINGS AND PURPOSE

SEC. 101. The Congress finds that there is critical need for more and better trained personnel in many vital occupational categories, including professional, scientific, technical, and apprenticeable categories; that even in periods of high unemployment, many employment opportunities remain unfilled because of the shortages of qualified personnel; and that it is in the national interest that current and prospective manpower shortages be identified and that persons who can be qualified for these positions through education and training be sought out and trained as quickly as is reasonably possible, in order that the Nation may meet the staffing requirements of the struggle for freedom. The Congress further finds that the skills of many persons have been rendered obsolete by dislocations in the economy arising from automation or other technological developments, foreign competition, relocation of industry, shifts in market demands, and other changes in the structure of the economy; that Government leadership is necessary to insure that the benefits of automation do not become burdens of widespread unemployment; that the problem of assuring sufficient employment opportunities will be compounded by the extraordinarily rapid growth of the labor force in the next decade, particularly by the entrance of young people into the labor force, that improved planning and expanded efforts will be required to assure that men, women, and young people will be trained and available to meet shifting employment needs; that many persons now unemployed or underemployed, in order to become qualified for reemployment or full employment must be assisted in providing themselves with skills which are or will be

[1] P.L. 87-415, Mar. 15, 1962, 76 Stat. 24-33, as amended by P.L. 87-729, Oct. 1, 1962, 76 Stat. 679; as amended by P.L. 88-214, Dec. 19, 1963, 77 Stat. 422; as amended by P.L. 89-15, Apr. 26, 1965, 79 Stat. 75 .

in demand in the labor market; that the skills of many persons now employed are inadequate to enable them to make their maximum contribution to the Nation's economy; and that it is in the national interest that the opportunity to acquire new skills be afforded to these people with the least delay in order to alleviate the hardships of unemployment, reduce the costs of unemployment compensation and public assistance, and to increase the Nation's productivity and its capacity to meet the requirements of the space age. The Congress further finds that many professional employees who have become unemployed because of the specialized nature of their previous employment are in need of brief refresher or reorientation educational courses in order to become qualified for other employment in their professions, where such training would further the purposes of this Act. It is therefore the purpose of this Act to require the Federal Government to appraise the manpower requirements and resources of the Nation, and to develop and apply the information and methods needed to deal with the problems of unemployment resulting from automation and technological changes and other types of persistent unemployment.

EVALUATION, INFORMATION, AND RESEARCH

SEC. 102. To assist the Nation in accomplishing the objectives of technological progress while avoiding or minimizing individual hardship and widespread unemployment, the Secretary of Labor shall—

(1) evaluate the impact of, and benefits and problems created by automation, technological progress, and other changes in the structure of production and demand on the use of the Nation's human resources; establish techniques and methods for detecting in advance the potential impact of such developments; develop solutions to these problems, and publish findings pertaining thereto;

(2) establish a program of factual studies of practices of employers and unions which tend to impede the mobility of workers or which facilitate mobility, including but not limited to early retirement and vesting provisions and practices under private compensation plans; the extension of health, welfare, and insurance benefits to laid-off workers; the operation of severance pay plans; and the use of extended leave plans for education and training purposes. A report on these studies shall be included as part of the Secretary's report required under section 107;

(3) appraise the adequacy of the Nation's manpower development efforts to meet foreseeable manpower needs and recommend needed adjustment, including methods for promoting the most effective occupational utilization of and providing useful work experience and training opportunities for untrained and inexperienced youth;

(4) promote, encourage, or directly engage in programs of information and communication concerning manpower requirements, development, and utilization, including prevention and amelioration of undesirable manpower effects from automation and other technological developments and improvement of the mobility of workers;

(5) arrange, through grants or contracts, for the conduct of such research and investigations as give promise of furthering the objectives of this Act; and

(6) establish a program of experimental, developmental, demonstration, and pilot projects, through grants to or contracts with public or private nonprofit organizations, or through contracts with other private organizations, for the purpose of improving techniques and demonstrating the effectiveness of specialized methods in meeting the manpower, employment, and training problems of worker groups such as the long-term unemployed, disadvantaged youth, displaced older workers, the handicapped, members of minority groups, and other similar groups. In carrying out this subsection the Secretary of Labor shall, where appropriate, consult with the Secretaries of Health, Education, and Welfare, and Commerce, and the Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity. Where programs under this paragraph require institutional training, appropriate arrangements for such training shall be agreed to by the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. He shall also seek the advice of consultants with respect to the standards governing the adequacy and design of proposals, the ability of applicants, and the priority of projects in meeting the objectives of this Act.

JOB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

SEC. 103. The Secretary of Labor shall stimulate and assist, in cooperation with interested agencies both public and private, job development programs, through on-the-job training and other suitable methods, that will serve to expand employment by the filling of those service and related needs which are not now being met because of lack of trained workers or other reasons affecting employment or opportunities for employment.

LABOR MOBILITY DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS

SEC. 104. (a) During the period ending June 30, 1967, the Secretary of Labor shall develop and carry out, in a limited number of geographical areas, pilot projects designed to assess or demonstrate the effectiveness in reducing unemployment of programs to increase the mobility of unemployed workers by providing assistance to meet their relocation expenses. In carrying out such projects the Secretary may provide such assistance, in the form of grants or loans, or both, only to involuntarily unemployed individuals who cannot reasonably be expected to secure full-time employment in the community in which they reside, have bona fide offers of employment (other than temporary or seasonal employment), and are deemed qualified to perform the work for which they are being employed.

(b) Loans or grants provided under this section shall be subject to such terms and conditions as the Secretary shall prescribe, with loans subject to the following limitations:

(1) there is reasonable assurance of repayment of the loan;

(2) the credit is not otherwise available on reasonable terms from private sources or other Federal, State, or local programs;

(3) the amount of the loan, together with other funds available, is adequate to assure achievement of the purposes for which the loan is made;

(4) the loan bears interest at a rate not less than (A) a rate determined by the Secretary of the Treasury, taking into consideration the average market yield on outstanding Treasury obligations of comparable maturity, plus (B) such additional charge, if any, toward covering other costs of the program as the Secretary may determine to be consistent with its purposes; and

(5) the loan is repayable within not more than ten years.

(c) Of the funds appropriated for a fiscal year to carry out this Act, not more than $5,000,000 may be used for the purposes of this section.

TRAINEE PLACEMENT ASSISTANCE DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS

SEC. 105. During the period ending June 30, 1967, the Secretary of Labor shall develop and carry out experimental and demonstration projects to assist in the placement of persons seeking employment through a public employment office who have successfully completed or participated in a federally assisted or financed training, counseling, work training, or work experience program and who, after appropriate counseling, have been found by the Secretary to be qualified and suitable for the employment in question, but to whom employment is or may be denied for reasons other than ability to perform, including difficulty in securing bonds for indemnifying their employers against loss from the infidelity, dishonesty, or default of such persons. In carrying out these projects the Secretary may make payments to or contracts with employers or institutions authorized to indemnify employers against such losses. Of the funds appropriated for fiscal years ending June 30, 1966, and June 30, 1967, not more than $200,000 and $300,000, respectively, may be used for the purpose of carrying out this section.

SKILL AND TRAINING REQUIREMENTS

SEC. 106. The Secretary of Labor shall develop, compile, and make available, in such manner as he deems appropriate, information regarding skill requirements, occupational outlook, job opportunities, labor supply in various skills, and employment trends on a National, State, area, or other appropriate basis which shall be used in the educational, training, counseling, and placement activities performed under this Act.

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MANPOWER REPORT

SEC. 107. The Secretary of Labor shall make such reports and recommendations to the President as he deems appropriate pertaining to manpower requirements, resources, use, and training; and the President shall transmit to the Congress within sixty days after the beginning of each regular session (commencing with the year 1963) a report pertaining to manpower requirements, resources, utilization, and training.

TITLE II—TRAINING AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

PART A—DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

GENERAL RESPONSIBILITY

SEC. 201. In carrying out the purposes of this Act, the Secretary of Labor shall determine the skill requirements of the economy, develop policies for the adequate occupational development and maximum utilization of the skills of the Nation's workers, promote and encourage the development of broad and diversified training programs, including on-the-job training, designed to qualify for employment the many persons who cannot reasonably be expected to secure full-time employment without such training, and to equip the Nation's workers with the new and improved skills that are or will be required.

SELECTION OF TRAINEES

SEC. 202. (a) The Secretary of Labor shall provide a program for testing, counseling, and selecting for occupational training under this Act those unemployed or underemployed persons who cannot reasonably be expected to secure appropriate full-time employment without training. Workers in farm families with less than $1,200 annual net family income shall be considered unemployed for the purpose of this Act.

(b) Whenever appropriate the Secretary shall provide a special program for the testing, counseling, selection, and referral of youths, sixteen years of age or older, for occupational training and further schooling, who because of inadequate educational background and work preparation are unable to qualify for and obtain employment without such training and schooling.

(c) Although priority in referral for training shall be extended to unemployed persons, the Secretary of Labor shall, to the maximum extent possible, also refer other persons qualified for training programs which will enable them to acquire needed skills. Priority in referral for training shall also be extended to persons to be trained for skills needed within, first, the labor market area in which they reside and, second, within the State of their residence.

(d) The Secretary of Labor shall determine the occupational training needs of referred persons, provide for their orderly selection and referral for training under this Act, and provide counseling and placement services to persons who have completed their training, as well as follow-up studies to determine whether the programs provided meet the occupational training needs of the persons referred.

(e) Before selecting a person for training, other than for training under subsection (i), the Secretary shall determine that there is a reasonable expectation of employment in the occupation for which the person is to be trained. If such employment is not available in the area in which the person resides, the Secretary shall obtain reasonable assurance of such person's willingness to accept employment outside his area of residence.

(f) The Secretary shall not refer persons for training in an occupation which requires less than two weeks training, unless there are immediate employment opportunities in such occupation.

(g) The duration of any training program to which a person is referred shall be reasonable and consistent with the occupation for which the person is being trained.

(h) Upon certification by the responsible training agency that a person who has been referred for training does not have a satisfactory attendance record or is not making satisfactory progress in such training absent good cause, the Secretary shall forthwith terminate his training and subsistence allowances, and his transportation allowances

except such as may be necessary to enable him to return to his regular place of residence after termination of training, and withdraw his referral. Such person shall not be eligible for such allowances for one year thereafter.

(i) Whenever appropriate, the Secretary of Labor may also refer for the attainment of basic education skills those eligible persons who indicate their intention to, and will thereby be able to, pursue courses of occupational training of a type for which there appears to be reasonable expectation of employment. Such referrals shall be considered a referral for training within the meaning of this Act.

TRAINING ALLOWANCES

SEC. 203. (a) The Secretary of Labor may, on behalf of the United States, enter into agreements with States under which the Secretary of Labor shall make payments to such States either in advance or by way of reimbursement for the purpose of enabling such States, as agents for the United States, to make payment of weekly training allowances to unemployed persons selected for training pursuant to the provisions of section 202 and undergoing such training in a program operated pursuant to the provisions of the Act. Such payments shall be made for a period not exceeding one hundred and four weeks, and the basic amount of any such payment in any week for persons undergoing training, including uncompensated employer-provided training, shall not exceed $10 more than the amount of the average weekly gross unemployment compensation payment (including allowances for dependents) for a week of total unemployment in the State making such payments during the most recent four-calendar-quarter period for which such data are available: *Provided*, That the basic amount of such payments may be increased by $5 a week for each dependent over two up to a maximum of four additional dependents: *Provided further*, That in any week an individual who, but for his training, would be entitled to unemployment compensation in excess of his total allowance, including payments for dependents, shall receive an allowance increased by the amount of such excess. With respect to Guam and the Virgin Islands the Secretary shall by regulation determine the amount of the training allowance to be paid any eligible person training under this Act.

With respect to any week for which a person receives unemployment compensation under title XV of the Social Security Act or any other Federal or State unemployment compensation law which is less than the total training allowance, including payments for dependents, provided for by the preceding paragraph, a supplemental training allowance may be paid to a person eligible for a training allowance under this Act. The supplemental training allowance shall not exceed the difference between his unemployment compensation and the training allowance provided by the preceding paragraph.

For persons undergoing on-the-job training, the amount of any payment which would otherwise be made by the Secretary of Labor under this section shall be reduced by an amount which bears the same ratio to that payment as the number of compensated hours per week under the training program bears to forty hours.

The training allowance of a person engaged in training under section 204 or 231 shall not be reduced on account of employment (other than employment under an on-the-job training program under section 204) which does not exceed twenty hours per week, but shall be reduced in an amount equal to his full earnings for hours worked (other than in employment under such an on-the-job training program) in excess of twenty hours per week.

(b) The Secretary of Labor is authorized to pay to any person engaged in training under this title, including compensated fulltime on-the-job training, such sums as he may determine to be necessary to defray transportation expenses, and when such training is provided in facilities which are not within commuting distance of the trainee's regular place of residence, subsistence expenses for separate maintenance of the trainee: *Provided*, That the Secretary in defraying such subsistence expenses shall not afford any individual an allowance exceeding $35 per week, at the rate of $5 per day; nor shall the Secretary authorize any transportation expenditure exceeding the rate of 10 cents per mile, except in the case of local transportation where he may authorize reimbursement for the trainee's travel by the most economical mode of public transportation, and except that in noncontiguous States and in areas outside the continental United States where the per diem allowance prescribed under section 836 of title 5, United States Code, exceeds the maximum per diem allowance prescribed under that section for contiguous States, the Secretary may provide for a reasonable increase in the transportation and

subsistence expenses in such amounts as he may deem necessary to carry out the purposes of this Act, and subject to such limitations as he may prescribe.

(c) The Secretary of Labor shall pay training allowances only to unemployed persons who have had at least two years of experience in gainful employment: *Provided*, That he shall not pay training allowances to members of a family or a household in which the head of the family or the head of the household as defined in the Internal Revenue Code of 1954 is employed, unless the Secretary determines that such payments are necessary in order for the trainees to undertake or to continue training: *Provided further*, That no allowances shall be paid to any member of a family or household if the Secretary of Labor determines that the head of such family or household has terminated his employment for the purpose of qualifying such member for training allowances under this section. Notwithstanding the preceding sentence, the Secretary may pay training allowances at a rate not in excess of $20 a week to youths seventeen years of age or older who require such training allowance in order to undertake training, who are referred for training in accordance with section 202(b), and who are not entitled to allowances under the preceding sentence, except that no such training allowance shall be paid to any such youth who has not graduated from high school, unless the Secretary has satisfied himself that such youth has continuously failed to attend school for a period of not less than one year and that the local authorities after pursuing all appropriate procedures, including guidance and counseling, have concluded, after considering any assistance available under section 13 of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, that further school attendance by such youth in any regular academic or vocational program is no longer practicable under the circumstances. The number of youths under the age of twenty-two who are receiving training allowances (or who would be entitled thereto but for the receipt of unemployment compensation) shall, except for such adjustments as may be necessary for effective management of programs under this section, not exceed 25 per centum of all persons receiving such allowances (or who would be entitled thereto but for the receipt of unemployment compensation). The Secretary of Labor may authorize continued payments of allowances to any youth who becomes twenty-two years of age during the course of his training, if he has completed a substantial part of such training.

(d) No training allowance shall be made to any person otherwise eligible who, with respect to the week for which such payment would be made, has received or is seeking unemployment compensation under title XV of the Social Security Act or any other Federal or State unemployment compensation law, but if the appropriate State or Federal agency finally determines that a person denied training allowances for any week because of this subsection was not entitled to unemployment compensation under title XV of the Social Security Act or such Federal or State law with respect to such week, this subsection shall not apply with respect to such week.

(e) A person who refuses, without good cause, to accept training under this Act shall not, for one year thereafter, be entitled to training allowances.

(f) Any agreement under this section may contain such provisions (including, as far as may be appropriate, provisions authorized or made applicable with respect to agreements concluded by the Secretary of Labor pursuant to title XV of the Social Security Act) as will promote effective administration, protect the United States against loss and insure the proper application of payments made to the State under such agreement. Except as may be provided in such agreements, or in regulations hereinafter authorized, determinations by any duly designated officer or agency as to the eligibility of persons for weekly training allowances under this section shall be final and conclusive for any purposes and not subject to review by any court or any other officer.

(g) (1) If State unemployment compensation payments are paid to a person taking training under this Act and eligible for a training allowance, the State making such payments shall be reimbursed from funds herein appropriated. The amount of such reimbursement shall be determined by the Secretary of Labor on the basis of reports furnished to him by the States and such amount shall then be placed in the State's unemployment trust fund account.

(2) If employment benefits under the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act are paid to a person taking training under this Act and eligible for a training allowance, the railroad unemployment insurance account in the unemployment trust fund shall be reimbursed, from funds herein appropriated, for all of such benefits paid. The amount of such reimbursement shall be determined by the Secretary of Labor on the basis of reports furnished to him by the Railroad

Retirement Board and such amount shall then be placed in the railroad unemployment insurance account.

(h) A person who, in connection with an occupational training program, has received a training allowance or whose unemployment compensation payments were reimbursed under the provisions of this Act or any other Federal Act shall not be entitled to training allowances under this Act for one year after the completion or other termination (for other than good cause) of the training with respect to which such allowance or payment was made.

(i) No training allowance shall be paid to any person who is receiving training for an occupation which requires a training period of less than six days.

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

SEC. 204. (a) The Secretary of Labor shall encourage, develop, and secure the adoption of programs for on-the-job training needed to equip persons selected for training with the appropriate skills. The Secretary shall, to the maximum extent possible, secure the adoption by the States and by private and public agencies, employers, trade associations, labor organizations and other industrial and community groups which he determines are qualified to conduct effective training programs under this title of such programs as he approves, and for this purpose he is authorized to enter into appropriate agreements with them.

(b) In adopting or approving any training program under this part, and as a condition to the expenditure of funds for any such program, the Secretary shall make such arrangements as he deems necessary to insure adherence to appropriate training standards, including assurances—

(1) that the training content of the program is adequate, involves reasonable progression, and will result in the qualification of trainees for suitable employment;

(2) that the training period is reasonable and consistent with periods customarily required for comparable training;

(3) that adequate and safe facilities, and adequate personnel and records of attendance and progress are provided; and

(4) that the trainees are compensated by the employer at such rates, including periodic increases, as may be deemed reasonable under regulations hereinafter authorized, considering such factors as industry, geographical region, and trainee proficiency.

(c) Where on-the-job training programs under this part require supplementary classroom instruction, appropriate arrangements for such instruction shall be agreed to by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Secretary of Labor.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES

SEC. 205. (a) The Secretary shall appoint a National Advisory Committee which shall consist of ten members and shall be composed of representatives of labor, management, agriculture, education, and training, and the public in general. From the members appointed to such Committee the Secretary shall designate a Chairman. Such Committee, or any duly established subcommittee thereof, shall from time to time make recommendations to the Secretary relative to the carrying out of his duties under this Act. Such Committee shall hold not less than two meetings during each calendar year.

(b) For the purpose of making expert assistance available to persons formulating and carrying on programs under this title, the Secretary shall, where appropriate, require the organization on a community, State, and/or regional basis of labor-management-public advisory committees.

(c) The National Advisory Committee may accept gifts or bequests, either for carrying out specific programs or for its general activities or for its responsibilities under subsection (b) of this section.

(d) Appointed members of the National Advisory Committee shall be paid compensation at the rate of $50 per diem when engaged in the work of the National Advisory Committee, including travel time, and shall be allowed travel expenses and per diem in lieu of subsistence as authorized by law (5 U.S.C. 73b–2) for persons in the Govern-

ment service employed intermittently and receiving compensation on a per diem, when actually employed, basis.

(e) (1) Any member of the National Advisory Committee is hereby exempted, with respect to such appointment, from the operation of sections 281, 283, and 1914 of title 18 of the United States Code, and section 190 of the Revised Statutes (5 U.S.C. 99), except as otherwise specified in paragraph (2) of this subsection.

(2) The exemption granted by paragraph (1) of this subsection shall not extend—

(A) to the receipt or payment of salary in connection with the appointee's Government service from any source other than the private employer of the appointee at the time of his appointment, or

(B) during the period of such appointment, to the prosecution or participation in the prosecution, by any person so appointed, of any claim against the Government involving any matter with which such person, during such period, is or was directly connected by reason of such appointment.

STATE AGREEMENTS

SEC. 206. (a) The Secretary of Labor is authorized to enter into an agreement with each State, or with the appropriate agency of each State, pursuant to which the Secretary of Labor may, for the purpose of carrying out his functions and duties under this title, utilize the services of the appropriate State agency and, notwithstanding any other provision of law, may make payments to such State or appropriate agency for expenses incurred for such purposes.

(b) Any agreement under this section may contain such provisions as will promote effective administration, protect the United States against loss and insure that the functions and duties to be carried out by the appropriate State agency are performed in a manner satisfactory to the Secretary.

RULES AND REGULATIONS

SEC. 207. The Secretary of Labor shall prescribe such rules and regulations as he may deem necessary and appropriate to carry out the provisions of this part.

PART B—DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

GENERAL RESPONSIBILITIES

SEC. 231. The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare shall, pursuant to the provisions of this title enter into agreements with States under which the appropriate State vocational education agencies will undertake to provide training needed to equip persons referred to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare by the Secretary of Labor pursuant to section 202, for the occupations specified in the referrals, except that with respect to education to be provided pursuant to referrals under subsection (b) or (i) of section 202, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare may make arrangements for the provision of the education to be provided under such subsection through other appropriate education agencies. Such State agencies shall provide for such training through public educational agencies or institutions or through arrangements with private educational or training institutions where such private institutions can provide equipment or services not available in public institutions, particularly for training in technical and subprofessional occupations, or where such institutions can, at comparable cost, (1) provide substantially equivalent training, or (2) make possible an expanded use of the individual referral method, or (3) aid in reducing more quickly unemployment or current and prospective manpower shortages. The State agency shall be paid not more than 90 per centum of the cost to the State of carrying out the agreement, unless the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare determines that payments in excess of 90 per centum are necessary because such payments with respect to private institutions are required to give full effect to the purposes of the Act: *Provided*, That for the period ending June 30, 1966, the State agency shall be paid 100 per centum of the cost to the State of carrying out the agreement. Non-Federal

contributions may be in cash or kind, fairly evaluated, including but not limited to plant, equipment, and services. Such agreements shall contain such other provisions as will promote effective administration (including provision (1) for reports on the attendance and performance of trainees, (2) for immediate certification to the Secretary of Labor by the responsible training agency with respect to each person referred for training who does not have a satisfactory attendance record or is not making satisfactory progress in such training absent good cause, and (3) for continuous supervision of the training programs conducted under the agreement to insure the quality and adequacy of the training provided), protect the United States against loss, and assure that the functions and duties to be carried out by such State agency are performed in such fashion as will carry out the purposes of this title. In the case of any State which does not enter into an agreement under this section, and in the case of any training which the State agency does not provide under such an agreement, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare may provide the needed training by agreement or contract with public or private educational or training institutions.

RULES AND REGULATIONS

SEC. 232. The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare may prescribe such rules and regulations as he may deem necessary and appropriate to carry out the provisions of this part.

PART C—REDEVELOPMENT AREAS

*SEC. 241. The Secretaries of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare, in accordance with their respective responsibilities under parts A and B of this title, are authorized to provide a supplementary program of training and training allowances, in consultation with the Secretary of Commerce, for unemployed and underemployed persons residing in areas designated as redevelopment areas by the Secretary of Commerce under the Area Redevelopment Act or any subsequent Act authorizing such designation. Such program shall be carried out by the Secretaries of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare in accordance with the provisions otherwise applicable to programs under this Act and with their respective functions under those provisions, except that—

(1) the Secretary of Labor, in consultation with the Secretary of Commerce, shall determine the occupational training or retraining needs of unemployed or underemployed individuals residing in redevelopment areas;

(2) all unemployed or underemployed individuals residing in redevelopment areas who can reasonably be expected to obtain employment as a result of such training may be referred and selected for training and shall be eligible for training allowances under this section: *Provided*, That the amount and duration of training allowances under this secton shall in no event exceed the amount and duration of training allowances provided under section 203(a) of this Act;

(3) the Secretaries of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare shall, each with respect to his functions under this section, prescribe jointly with the Secretary of Commerce such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry out the purposes of this section; and

(4) no funds available under this section shall be apportioned to any State pursuant to section 301 of this Act, nor shall any matching funds be required.

TITLE III—MISCELLANEOUS

APPORTIONMENT OF BENEFITS

SEC. 301. For the purpose of effecting an equitable apportionment of Federal expenditures among the States in carrying out the programs authorized under title II of this

*This section and the amendments made by it shall take effect on July 1, 1965; sections 16 and 17 of the Area Redevelopment Act (42 U.S.C. 2513 and 2514) are repealed as of July 1, 1965.

Act, the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare shall make such apportionment in accordance with uniform standards and in arriving at such standards shall consider only the following factors: (1) the proportion which the labor force of a State bears to the total labor force of the United States, (2) the proportion which the unemployed in a State during the preceding calendar year bears to the total number of unemployed in the United States in the preceding calendar year, (3) the lack of appropriate full-time employment in the State, (4) the proportion which the insured unemployed within a State bears to the total number of insured employed within such State, and (5) the average weekly unemployment compensation benefits paid by the State. The Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare are authorized to make reapportionments from time to time where the total amounts apportioned under this section have not been fully obligated in a particular State, or where the State or appropriate agencies in the State have not entered into the necessary agreements, and the Secretaries find that any other State is in need of additional funds to carry out the programs authorized by this Act: *Provided*, That no funds apportioned with respect to a State in any fiscal year shall be reapportioned before the expiration of the sixth month of such fiscal year and only upon 30 days' prior notice to such State of the proposed reapportionment, except that the requirement for prior notice shall not apply with respect to any reapportionment made during the last quarter of the fiscal year.

MAINTENANCE OF STATE EFFORT

SEC. 302. No training program which is financed in whole or in part by the Federal Government under this Act shall be approved unless the Secretary of Labor, if the program is authorized under part A of title II, or the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, if the program is authorized under part B of title II, satisfies himself that neither the State nor the locality in which the training is carried out has reduced or is reducing its own level of expenditures for vocational education and training, including program operation under provisions of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act, titles I, II, and III of the Vocational Education Act of 1946, and the Vocational Education Act of 1963, except for reductions unrelated to the provisions or purposes of this Act.

OTHER AGENCIES AND DEPARTMENTS

SEC. 303. (a) In the performance of their function under this Act, the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, in order to avoid unnecessary expense and duplication of functions among Government agencies, shall use the available services or facilities of other agencies and instrumentalities of the Federal Government, under conditions specified in section 306(a). Each department, agency, or establishment of the United States is authorized and directed to cooperate with the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and, to the extent permitted by law, to provide such services and facilities as either may request for his assistance in the performance of his functions under this Act.

(b) The Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare shall carry out their responsibilities under this Act through the maximum utilization of all possible resources for skill development available in industry, labor, public and private educational and training institutions, State, Federal, and local agencies, and other appropriate public and private organizations and facilities.

APPROPRIATIONS AUTHORIZED

SEC. 304. (a) For the purposes of carrying out title I, there are hereby authorized to be appropriated not in excess of $46,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, and for each fiscal year thereafter such amounts as may be necessary.

(b) For the purpose of carrying out parts A and B of title II, there are hereby authorized to be appropriated not in excess of $385,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, and for each fiscal year thereafter such amounts as may be necessary.

(c) For the purpose of carrying out part C of title II, there are hereby authorized to be appropriated not in excess of $22,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, and for each year thereafter such amounts as may be necessary

(d) For the purpose of carrying out title III, there are hereby authorized to be appropriated not in excess of $1,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, and for each year thereafter such amounts as may be necessary.

LIMITATIONS ON USE OF APPROPRIATED FUNDS

SEC. 305. (a) Funds appropriated under the authorization of this Act may be transferred, with the approval of the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, between departments and agencies of the Government, if such funds are used for the purposes for which they are specifically authorized and appropriated.

(b) Any equipment and teaching aids purchased by a State or local education agency with funds appropriated to carry out the provisions of part B shall become the property of the State.

(c) No portion of the funds to be used under part B of this Act shall be appropriated directly or indirectly to the purchase, erection, or repair of any building except for minor remodeling of a public building necessary to make it suitable for use in training under part B.

(d) Funds appropriated under this Act shall remain available for one fiscal year beyond that in which appropriated.

(e) The costs of all training programs approved in any fiscal year, including the total cost of training allowances for such programs, may be paid from funds appropriated for such purposes for that fiscal year; and the amount of the Federal payment shall be computed on the basis of the per centum requirement in effect at the time such programs are approved: *Provided*, That funds appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, may be expended for training programs approved under this Act prior to July 1, 1965.

AUTHORITY TO CONTRACT

SEC. 306. (a) The Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare may make such contracts or agreements, establish such procedures, including (subject to such policies, rules, and regulations as they may prescribe) the approval of any program under section 202, the cost of which does not exceed $75,000, and make such payments, either in advance or by way of reimbursement, or otherwise allocate or expend funds made available under this Act, as they deem necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act.

(b) The Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare shall not use any authority conferred by this Act to assist in relocating establishments from one area to another. Such limitation shall not prohibit assistance to a business entity in the establishment of a new branch, affiliate, or subsidiary of such entity if the Secretary of Labor finds that assistance will not result in an increase in unemployment in the area of original location or in any other area where such entity conducts business operations, unless he has reason to believe that such branch, affiliate, or subsidiary is being established with the intention of closing down the operations of the existing business entity in the area of its original location or in any other area where it conducts such operations.

SELECTION AND REFERRAL

SEC. 307. The selection of persons for training under this Act and for placement of such persons shall not be contingent upon such person's membership or nonmembership in a labor organization.

DEFINITION

SEC. 308. For the purposes of this Act, the term "State" includes the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and Guam.

SECRETARIES' REPORTS

SEC. 309. (a) Prior to April 1 in each year the Secretary of Labor shall make a report to Congress. Such report shall contain an evaluation of the programs under

title I and part A of title II, including the number of persons trained and the number and types of training activities under this Act, the number of unemployed or underemployed persons who have secured full-time employment as a result of such training, and the nature of such employment, the need for continuing such programs, and recommendations for improvement.

(b) Prior to April 1 in each year the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare shall also make a report to Congress. Such report shall contain an evaluation of the programs under Part B of title II, the need for continuing such programs, and recommendations for improvement. The first such report shall also contain the results of the vocational training survey which is presently being conducted under the supervision of the Secretary.

TERMINATION OF AUTHORITY

SEC. 310. (a) All authority conferred under title II of this Act shall terminate at the close of June 30, 1969.

(b) Notwithstanding the foregoing, the termination of title II shall not affect the disbursement of funds under, or the carrying out of, any contract, commitment or other obligation entered into prior to the date of such termination: *Provided*, That no disbursement of funds shall be made pursuant to the authority conferred under title II of this Act after December 30, 1969.

APPENDIX III

GUIDELINES FOR RESEARCH GRANTS AND CONTRACTS AND AVAILABILITY OF RESEARCH REPORTS

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended, authorizes the Secretary of Labor to "arrange, through grants or contracts, for the conduct of such research and investigations as give promise of furthering the objectives of this Act." Under this authority, the Department of Labor conducts the following programs of manpower research outside the Department:

1. The Department awards grants (not to exceed $10,000 in direct costs per grant) to public and other nonprofit academic institutions in the name of doctoral candidates to support the research for their dissertations. Guidelines for applications for such grants are provided on page 199.

The Department of Labor cannot sponsor fellowships for graduate study. However, as a means of assisting graduate students interested in teaching in the manpower field, it is suggested that universities select such students for National Defense Education Act Title IV Graduate Fellowships.[1]

2. The Department awards grants (not to exceed $10,000 in direct costs per grant) to public and other nonprofit academic institutions and research organizations and scholars associated with such organizations to support exploratory research which: a. may lead to new fields of inquiry or new methods of approach to areas already under some degree of study, or b. seeks to develop designs for studies which give promise of useful results. Guidelines for applications for such grants are provided on page 202.

3. The Department of Labor is inaugurating a program designed to assist academic institutions in strengthening their activities in the manpower field. Guidelines for applications for manpower research institutional grants are provided on page 206.

4. The Department enters into contracts with qualified research specialists and organizations, who may submit proposals for manpower research projects. It is suggested that initial submissions of research proposals be in the form of preliminary submissions of research ideas containing the following information in brief, nontechnical language:

a. Problem to be investigated.
b. Objectives of study.
c. Procedures.
d. Time and budget requirements (summary only).

Based on a review of preliminary submissions, the Department may request formal contract research proposals in specific areas suggested. Such proposals would be expected to follow the guidelines for submission of contract research proposals which are provided on page 210.

Copies of final reports submitted to the Department of Labor under the contract research program may be consulted at libraries subscribing to the Library of Congress' Documents Expediting Project and at some Department of Labor field offices. A listing of depository libraries and these field offices is provided on page 214.

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[1] For further information on the NDEA Graduate Fellowship program, write to: The Division of Graduate Programs, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., 20202.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY,
EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH

DL-MT-241
Budget Bureau No. 44-R1297

GUIDELINES FOR DOCTORAL DISSERTATION GRANTS UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962, AS AMENDED

Academic institutions offering doctoral degrees in areas of study which relate to the manpower field (such as economics, sociology, psychology, education, and the behavioral sciences generally) may apply for grants to support dissertation research of graduate students who have completed all requirements for the doctoral degree except the doctoral dissertation, or who will have met these requirements before the grant is awarded. A separate application must be submitted for each candidate nominated by the university for a grant. Such a grant will be made to the university in the name of the candidate.

GRANT CONDITIONS

The maximum amount of direct costs (see "The Application," paragraph 5.a below) of any one grant is $10,000 for a period not to exceed 1 year. For projects scheduled to require more than 1 year, support may be given through renewals of grants for a total of not to exceed 3 years, subject to availability of appropriated funds, receipt of progress reports showing reasonable progress, and requests for such renewals to be submitted not later than 1 month before the expiration of previous grants. The initial grant will indicate the period for which the Department intends to support the project.

The grant may cover the following costs:

1. Support for the doctoral candidate. This will be on a stipend basis, determined by the proportion of time spent by the candidate on his dissertation times the following full-time annual stipend rates:

Single individual	$4,000
Married, no children	4,500
Married, one or more children	5,000

Thus, for example, a married man with children who teaches half time and works on his dissertation half time for 9 months of the year, and devotes full time to his dissertation the other 3 months could receive a stipend of $3,125 (three-fourths year at half time, $1,875 plus one-fourth year at full time, $1,250).

However, a candidate who has been regularly employed in teaching or research activities by the sponsoring university or a related research organization, and for whom the dissertation research requires relief from part or all of his employment, may be supported at his established rate of pay, prorated for the proportion of his time devoted to the dissertation.

2. Direct project costs, such as clerical assistance, necessary travel and supplies.

3. Indirect costs at a fixed rate not to exceed the established audited rate of the institution.

4. The grantee institution must share in the total cost of the project.

For applications which are approved, five copies of the final report resulting from the research will be required. For projects extending beyond 1 year, each renewal will

be considered as a separate grant, and a progress report will be required with the request for renewal.

Any survey plans, surveys, or questionnaires arising from the research under an approved grant will be identified solely as the responsibility of the university or the doctoral candidate, and will in no way be attributed to the Department of Labor.

Publications based on the research conducted under the grant will acknowledge that the research was supported by a grant from the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Manpower Administration, of the U.S. Department of Labor under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended.

SUBMISSION OF APPLICATIONS

Fifteen copies of each application should be sent by the university to:

Director
Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research
Manpower Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

Application will be accepted through February 1 of each year for work to be conducted or initiated during the ensuing 1-year period. Announcement of awards will be made on or about March 1. Grants approved for candidates who have not completed all the requirements other than the dissertation for the doctoral degree at the date of the application, will be effective on receipt from the university of notice that all the requirements have been met.

CRITERIA FOR APPROVAL

A primary consideration in the approval of any grant request is the relevance of the area of study to the objectives of title I of the Manpower Development and Training Act.

All elements of an application which is acceptable by the above criterion will be considered by a review panel. The standing of the candidate and his proposed project relative to other candidates and to the availability of funds for the program will determine whether or not the project will be approved for a grant. Approval may be conditional on acceptance of changes as recommended by the review panel, including budget revisions.

THE APPLICATION

Applications should contain the information requested below in the order indicated. There is *no* printed form to be used.

1. The first page should show the following:

PROPOSAL SUBMITTED TO THE DIRECTOR, OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY, EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH, MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, FOR A GRANT IN SUPPORT OF A DOCTORAL DISSERTATION UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF TITLE I OF THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT, PL 87-415, AS AMENDED.

Submitted by:	(Name of university and department sponsoring the candidate.)
Address:	(Of university.)
Candidate:	(Name, address and telephone number. Candidate should sign original or master copy.)
Project title:	(Concise, descriptive and as specific as possible.)
Sponsor:	(Name, position and phone number of university advisor or sponsor of candidate. Sponsor should sign original or master copy.)

Transmitted by: (Name, position and phone number of approving official. This should be someone with authority to commit the university, and he should sign the original or master copy.)

Date: (Date transmitted.)

2. The background of the candidate. Include statement of education and employment experience, and a list of published work.

3. A statement by the candidate's sponsor on the interests and potential of the candidate.

4. A brief description, generally not more than three pages in length, of the proposed work, prepared by the candidate, and covering:

a. The problem to be investigated.

b. The objectives of the study.

c. Procedures to be used.

d. A time schedule for the project. This may extend beyond the 1-year limit on the initial grant as a basis for additional grants.

5. A budget statement, in detail for the current year, with tentative totals for additional years, if any. Detailed budgets will be required as part of each renewal application. Items to be shown in detailed budgets are listed below. Dollar amounts are to be listed in two columns: One, amount of funds requested, and two, amounts of the grantee institution's contribution from non-Federal funds.

a. Direct Costs.

(1) Personal services.

(a) Show the portion of the candidate's time to be spent on the project and the rate of pay. If the rate is different from the stipend rate stated earlier in these guidelines, indicate the basis for the recommended rate.

(b) Include clerical or secretarial help attributable to the project.

(c) Include employee benefits to extent customarily provided by university.

(2) Materials and supplies.

(3) Travel, including subsistence in accordance with the university's established policy but not to exceed $16 per diem.

(4) Communications and services not included elsewhere.

(5) Other direct costs. Itemize by category and amount.

b. Indirect Costs. A fixed rate which does not exceed the grantee institution's established audited rate may be used. However, indirect costs in the first column may be only those associated with the requested direct costs, and, similarly, indirect costs in the second column may be only those associated with the direct costs to be contributed.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY,
EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH

DL-MT-242
Budget Bureau No. 44-R1296

GUIDELINES FOR RESEARCH GRANTS UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962, AS AMENDED

Public and other nonprofit academic institutions and research organizations and individual researchers associated with such institutions or organizations may apply for grants to support exploratory research in the manpower field.

GRANT CONDITIONS

The maximum amount of direct cost (see "The Application." paragraph 10.a. below) of any one grant is $10,000 for a period not to exceed 1 year. For projects scheduled for more than 1 year, additional grants, each within the same limitation, may be made for a total of not to exceed 3 years, subject to availability of appropriated funds, receipt of progress reports showing reasonable progress, and requests for such renewals to be submitted not later than 1 month before the expiration of previous grants. The initial grant will indicate the period for which the Department intends to support the project.

Grant funds may be expended only for the purpose of carrying out the research program as approved. All grant awards are subject to the condition that the principal investigator designated in the application continues to be responsible for the conduct of the approved project for its duration. Continuation of grants in the event the principal investigator becomes unavailable will be contingent upon written approval by the Department of the person chosen by the grantee to replace the principal investigator.

For applications which are approved, five reproduced copies of the final report resulting from the research will be required. For projects extending beyond 1 year, each renewal will be considered as a separate grant, and a progress report will be required with the request for renewal.

Any survey plans, surveys, or questionnaires arising from the research under an approved grant will be identified solely as the responsibility of the grantee, and will in no way be attributed to the Department of Labor.

Publications based on the research conducted under the grant will acknowledge that the research was supported by a grant from the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Manpower Administration, of the U.S. Department of Labor under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended. The Department will have a nonexclusive right to publish and distribute the final report of the research, and to use the findings, including any research designs developed by the research, for any purpose whatsoever.

CRITERIA FOR APPROVAL

A primary consideration in the approval of any grant request is the relevance of the area of study to the objectives of title I of the Manpower Development and Training Act. Proposals which are determined to be relevant to the objectives of the Manpower Development and Training Act will be considered by a review panel, and approved or disapproved in relation to criteria such as the following:

1. Manpower Significance
   a. The project is focused primarily on significant manpower problems.

b. The anticipated results or methodology of the project have broad national interest. Projects limited to special areas provide a basis for generalized conclusions, or have application over a wide area.

2. Research Design

a. The problem with which the research proposes to deal is clearly defined.

b. The proposal reflects an adequate knowledge of other research related to the problem.

c. Questions to be answered or hypotheses to be tested are well formulated and clearly stated.

d. The proposal outlines fully the procedures to be followed, and wherever applicable, includes information on such matters as sampling procedures including the size of the population to be studied and the size of sample and control groups, as well as types of data to be gathered, and statistical analysis to be made.

3. Personnel and Facilities

a. The experience and training of the principal investigator appear adequate to carry out the research.

b. The facilities available to the investigator(s) are adequate to carry out the research.

c. The plan provides, wherever feasible, for encouraging and increasing knowledge and skills of professional personnel and of new research workers.

4. Economic Efficiency

a. The suggested approach to the problem is reasonable in terms of overall cost as compared with the cost of other possible approaches.

b. The suggested approach to problems involving the analysis of statistical data utilizes, to the extent feasible, data already available or being collected through Government and other sources.

c. The total proposed expenditure is justifiable in terms of the probable value of the results of the proposed research, and the grantee institution is contributing a reasonable share of the total cost.

Approval may be conditional on acceptance of changes in the project or the budget, or both, as recommended by the review panel.

GRANT REVISIONS

The terms of any approved grant will be revised only if major changes in the areas to be investigated are agreed to be necessary. Changes in the research approach suggested by the development of a project or to expedite the achievement of its objectives, but which do not materially change the scope and purpose of the study, may be made at the discretion of the grantee. Adjustments within the estimated approved budget may be made at the discretion of the grantee if the total amount of the grant is not increased.

Prior written approval of the Department is required for:

1. Substantial changes in the scope or purpose of a study, with or without changes in budget; or

2. Any increase in the total budget for a grant.

SUBMISSION OF APPLICATIONS

Fifteen copies of each application should be sent to:

Director
Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research
Manpower Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

Applications received will be reviewed and awards will be announced twice each year on the following schedule:

Applications received by	March 1	October 1
Awards announced on or about	April 15	December 1

208-488 O—66——15

THE APPLICATION

Applications should contain the information requested below in the order indicated. There is *no* printed form to be used.

1. The first page should show the following:

PROPOSAL SUBMITTED TO THE DIRECTOR, OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY, EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH, MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, FOR A GRANT IN SUPPORT OF A RESEARCH PROJECT UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF TITLE I OF THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT, P.L. 87-415, AS AMENDED.

Project title:	(Be concise, descriptive, and as specific as possible. Include key words under which project may be indexed.)
Submitted by:	(Name of institution or organization hereinafter referred to as "organization.")
Address:	(Of organization.)
Telephone number:	(Of organization. Include area code.)
Principal investigator:	(Full name and position of the principal investigator.)
Transmitted by:	(Full name and position of official who is approving the submission of the proposal. This must be someone with authority to commit the organization to the proposed project. The proposal should be signed by both the principal investigator and the transmitter on the original or master copy.)
Date:	(Date transmitted.)

2. Abstract. On a single, separate page submit a summary of the proposal including (a) Title of project, (b) Name of organization, (c) Name of principal investigator, (d) Objectives, (e) Procedures, (f) Time schedule, i.e., beginning and ending dates (first year total and project total if longer than 1 year).

3. Problem. Give a brief statement of the problem to be investigated, explaining its importance and significance.

4. Objectives. State the objectives of the research project, including hypotheses to be tested and specific questions to which answers will be sought. For research design studies, include the ultimate objectives of the research to be designed.

5. Relationship to other research. Cite or summarize pertinent research related to the proposed study. Present the rationale upon which the proposal is based. Indicate the uniqueness of the proposal.

6. Procedure. Describe the procedure in detail listing the steps to be followed. Include specific information on each of the following, as appropriate:

a. General design of project.
b. Population and sample to be studied.
c. Data to be gathered and methods to be used.
d. Methods of analysis to be used.
e. Time schedule indicating length of time required for each major phase of the study.

7. Personnel. Give name, title, and a brief statement of the research experience of the principal investigator, and of other key personnel.

8. Facilities. Indicate special facilities and similar advantages, including research staff resources, available to the organization.

9. Other information. Indicate other information pertinent to the proposal, including the following:

a. Amount of financial or other support available for this project from other sources.
b. Whether this proposal has been or will be submitted to any other agency or organization for financial support.
c. Whether this proposal is an extension of or an addition to a previous project supported by the Department of Labor or other Government agency.

d. Whether this proposal or a similar one was previously submitted to the Department of Labor or other Government agency.

10. Budget. Include a section on estimated costs of the project to be covered by the grant and by the grantee institution from non-Federal sources. Start this section on a new page.

The cost of the project includes the costs of necessary direct items of expenditure incurred in its performance; it may also include an amount of overhead or indirect costs at a rate which does not exceed the grantee institution's established audited rate for such projects.

Following the categories as shown in the outline below, and rounding all amounts to the nearest dollar, list anticipated requirements for all items of expenditure in two columns: One, amount of funds requested, and two, amounts of the grantee institution's contribution from non-Federal funds. If the project is expected to extend beyond 1 year, indicate amounts required for each year and in total.

a. Direct Costs.

(1) Personal Services. Include:

(a) Salaries and wages of all personnel which are directly attributable to actual performance under this grant, whether on a full- or part-time basis. (List personnel by title, man-months and dollar amounts.)

(b) In connection with the above, but identify separately, allowances for vacation, holiday, and sick-leave pay. Also include employee benefits to extent customarily provided by university.

(c) Consultants as required.

(2) Materials and Supplies. List all materials and supplies which are to be directly expended in performance of the contract.

(3) Travel. Include subsistence during travel, in accordance with the grantee's established policy, but not to exceed $16 per diem.

(4) Communications. Include telephone and telegraph charges, unless these are included in indirect costs.

(5) Services. Include those not specifically covered under personal services

(6) Other. Itemize by category and amount.

b. Indirect Costs or Overhead.

A fixed rate which does not exceed the grantee institution's established audited rate may be used. However, indirect costs in the first column may be only those associated with the requested direct costs, and, similarly, indirect costs in the second column may be only those associated with the direct costs to be contributed.

The proposed budget will be reviewed against applicable Federal regulations, such as Bureau of the Budget Circular No. A-21, as part of the review of the proposal. Where changes are necessary for projects which are otherwise approved, final approval will be conditional on the acceptance of these changes.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY,
EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH

DL-MT-244
Budget Bureau No. 44-R 1304

GUIDELINES FOR MANPOWER RESEARCH INSTITUTIONAL GRANTS UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962 AS AMENDED

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

A major objective of the Manpower Research Institutional Grant Program is to increase the number of institutions engaged in continuing research efforts on manpower problems (such as chronic unemployment, underutilized manpower, and obsolete skills). A corollary objective is to increase the number of research specialists concentrating on manpower problems.

The Manpower Research Institutional Grant Program will enable academic institutions to plan and conduct long-term research programs with unified goals. The projects which are part of the total program may be conducted concurrently or in sequence and may be modified on the basis of knowledge and experience gained as studies proceed. Such a program will also make it feasible for institutions to assemble and support research teams and to concentrate on broad research areas for appreciable periods of time.

Thus, it is hoped that the institutional grants will provide stability and increase efficiency in the conduct of manpower research. Grants will be made to institutions that appear to have the greatest possibility of developing their instruction and research capability in the manpower field so that they can make a major contribution in assisting the Department of Labor in carrying out its research responsibilities under the Manpower Development and Training Act. A primary consideration in the approval of any grant request is the relevance of the total program to the objectives of title I of the MDTA.

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the Manpower Research Institutional Grant Program are:

1. To support systematic, long-term programs of manpower research.

2. To stimulate greater interest in the manpower field by established scholars and to develop additional research talent interested in the manpower area.

3. To encourage a greater cooperative effort among the various behavioral scientists in conducting human resources research.

4. To stimulate the development and exploration of new ideas for solving manpower problems.

5. To undertake continuing programs for the dissemination of manpower research results which may have application to operating programs and contribute to the clarification of manpower issues.

6. To develop within appropriate academic institutions resources and capabilities for providing technical support to local and regional organizations concerned with manpower problems.

7. To assist the Department of Labor in making policy and operating decisions based on the information and experience developed through research.

SCOPE OF THE GRANT PROGRAM

The Department of Labor initially expects to make a number of grants to interested institutions to enable them to establish or strengthen manpower research programs. Grant funds can be used to augment staff, introduce new manpower courses or curriculums, secure needed equipment (in special circumstances), and attract more students to the manpower field.

Each institution is expected to appraise its own strengths and needs and to propose a plan to provide the environment essential for the development of a manpower program. The plan might involve programs for the strengthening of a single activity, or a group of related interdisciplinary or interinstitutional activities.

Neighboring institutions, for example, may wish to pool efforts to develop a program of training researchers open to students of cooperating schools. Some institutions may wish to engage in joint planning of long-term research programs which would not be feasible for any one institution to conduct alone. Other institutions may wish to join together in developing a program about regional or local manpower problems.

This grant program seeks to encourage the development of institutional research capability which requires coordinated planning by the various academic departments and administrative offices capable of contributing to an integrated approach to complex manpower problems.

INSTITUTIONAL ELIGIBILITY

Institutions of higher education in any of the States of the United States, its territories and possessions, may apply if they grant baccalaureate or higher degrees in the social or behavioral sciences or other disciplines relevant to manpower research.

SUBMISSION OF PROPOSALS AND GRANT CONDITIONS

Before preparing a comprehensive formal proposal, institutions are urged to submit brief, preliminary statements about projected plans to the Department of Labor. These preliminary statements will serve as the basis for discussions with Department of Labor staff, and the development of final proposals. If interinstitutional arrangements are contemplated, one institution may transmit the statement, indicating the agreed participation of other institutions.

Although no statutory limit has been established on the amount of an institutional grant, during the initial phase of the program the maximum is $75,000 per year over a 3-year period. Probably no more than six to eight grants will be made during the first year.

Applications received by March 15, will be evaluated and grants will be announced in May. Applications received after March 15, will be considered for grants to be announced during the fiscal year beginning July 1.

Institutional grants are designed to strengthen manpower-related activities of an institution during a 3-year period. Subject to the availability of funds, supplementary grants for not more than 2 additional years will be considered to permit completion of initially supported development plans, provided progress can be demonstrated in achieving the stated goals.

Any grant awarded under this program is subject to title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

INFORMATION TO BE INCLUDED IN FINAL AND FORMAL APPLICATION

Describe the proposed plan, explaining as fully as possible how it may be related to any other developmental plans for the institution.

Describe the specific purposes for which the Department of Labor funds would be used over a 3-year period.

Indicate major changes such as curriculum development if the objectives of the plan are achieved.

Present an estimated budget for the plan, indicating amounts by categories for each of the years, showing the amount requested from Department of Labor and the amount to be contributed from the institution or other sources. Some cost participation is required of the applicant institution.

If personnel requirements, such as faculty development, are part of the proposed budget, explain the requirements for each year in support of the plan. Discuss personnel budget for the past 2 years (faculty, staff, student stipends, etc.) as related to the specific areas included in the present proposal; i.e., compare present conditions with what is requested.

Other major elements of the proposed budget should be explained in a manner similar to the above three items.

Describe how the institution intends to maintain the achieved level of activity if Department of Labor support is terminated.

Provide biographical information concerning the faculty who are expected to participate in the plan. (Schools which do not have manpower programs can indicate the kind and number of faculty they wish to involve in the program.)

Supply appropriate school catalogues and summary information about degrees awarded by discipline and enrollment by area of specialization in undergraduate and graduate schools.

FORMAT FOR PROPOSAL

An institution should use its own procedures in preparing its proposal. The title page, however, should include the following information:

Title of Proposal:

Estimated 3-Year Cost of Plan (Cost of the regular continuing program as previously established is not to be included)------ $_____

Amount Requested from Department of Labor:

1st year------ $_____

2d year------ $_____

3d year------ $_____

Institution Representative:

Name:

Title: Tel. No.:

Signature of President or Chief Executive Officer (On one copy only):

Title:

Date: Tel. No.:

The budget statement in the proposal should indicate:

1. The amount requested for direct expenses, by category of direct expense;

2. The amount requested for indirect expenses related to the requested direct expenses;

3. The total *grant* request;

4. The additional amount which the grantee institution proposes as its contribution from non-Federal sources to the planned research.

Twenty copies of the proposal are required to meet the needs of the review process. One copy should be signed by the principal administrative official of the institution.

Proposals and inquiries should be addressed to:

Director
Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research
Manpower Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

EVALUATION OF PROPOSALS

Proposals for Institutional Grants submitted to the Department of Labor will be reviewed and evaluated by staff members and panels of specialists drawn from colleges, universities and appropriate research organizations.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

When a Manpower Research Institutional Grant is awarded, details concerning administrative requirements, such as reports, accounts, and Federal regulations will be arranged. Following the award, approval must be obtained from the Department of Labor before major changes are made in the use of funds.

PUBLIC RECORD

Any proposal which results in a Department of Labor grant becomes a part of the public record of the transaction and may be made available to the public upon specific request. Proprietary information may be omitted from the proposal and submitted in an accompanying statement which will be considered privileged.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY,
EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH

DL-MT-201
Budget Bureau No. 44-R 1216

GUIDELINES FOR CONTRACT RESEARCH PROPOSALS UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962, AS AMENDED

These instructions are in three parts:

A. General instructions,

B. A specific outline to be used in describing the content and procedure of the research project, including personnel and facilities, and

C. An outline for an estimated budget.

There is *no printed* form to be used.

A. GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

1. Proposal Submission

The first page of the proposal must show the following information in the order indicated.

PROPOSAL SUBMITTED TO THE DIRECTOR, OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY, EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH, MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, FOR THE CONDUCT OF A RESEARCH PROJECT UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF TITLE I OF THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT, P.L. 87–415.

Project title: (Be concise, descriptive, and as specific as possible. Avoid obscure technical terms. Include key words under which project may be indexed.)

Submitted by: (Name of organization, institution, agency, or individual hereinafter referred to as "organization.")

Address: (Of organization.)

Telephone number: (Of organization. Include area code.)

Initiated by: (Full name and position of individual who is initiating project, ordinarily the director or chief investigator.)

Transmitted by: (Full name and position of official who is approving the submission of the proposal. This must be someone with authority to commit the organization to the proposed project. The proposal should be signed by both the initiator and the transmitter on the original or master copy.)

Date: (Date transmitted.)

2. Mailing Address for Proposals

Send all proposals to:

Director
Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research
Manpower Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

3. Scope and Substance of the Proposal

The initial proposal should be complete enough to communicate all the information necessary for a sound evaluation. Excessive length should be avoided. It should encompass the following:

a. Area of Study

(1) The proposed research should seek to develop new knowledge or new applications of existing knowledge which give promise of furthering the objectives of the Manpower Act. The objectives of the Manpower Act as stated in title I of the act may be summarized as follows:

(a) To develop and apply the information and methods needed to deal with the problems of unemployment and other malutilizations of manpower resources.

(b) To accomplish technological progress while avoiding or minimizing individual hardship and widespread unemployment.

(c) To raise the skill levels of the Nation's work force, to increase the Nation's productivity, and to provide the manpower resources needed for the advancing technology.

(2) The project should be focused primarily on significant manpower problems.

(3) The anticipated results of the project should have broad national interest. Projects may be limited to special areas *only* where such studies can be shown to provide a basis for generalized conclusions, or to have application over a wide area.

(4) The project should not duplicate ongoing research; nor should it duplicate completed research the results of which provide currently valid applications.

b. Research Design

(1) The problem with which the research proposes to deal should be clearly defined.

(2) The proposal should reflect an adequate knowledge of other research related to the problem.

(3) Questions to be answered or hypotheses to be tested should be well formulated and clearly stated.

(4) The proposal should outline fully the procedures to be followed and wherever applicable, include information on such matters as sampling procedures, controls, types of data to be gathered, and statistical analyses to be made.

c. Personnel and Facilities

(1) The director or principal investigator must be someone who has previously done successful research in the area involved or who has clearly demonstrated competence for performing or directing work in that area.

(2) The organization or individual submitting the proposal must have facilities and staff available which are adequate for carrying out the research.

(3) Where applicable, as, for example, for a research proposal involving a case-work study of a training program, the proposal should indicate the agreed interest and intended cooperation in the program on the part of all local agencies whose interest and cooperation are necessary for the successful accomplishment of the research project.

d. Economic Efficiency

(1) The suggested approach to the problem must be reasonable in terms of overall cost as compared with the cost of other possible approaches.

(2) The suggested approach to problems involving the analysis of statistical data must utilize, to the extent feasible, data already available or being collected through government and other sources.

(3) The total proposed expenditure must be justifiable in terms of the probable value of the results of the proposed research.

4. Preparation of Proposal Statements and Reports

Generally, initial proposals should run about 8 to 10 pages in length. More detailed and lengthier statements may be required for proposals during negotiation.

a. Number of Copies Required

Proposals should be submitted in 30 copies, typed or otherwise reproduced on white paper of standard size on one side only.

b. Submission and Review Dates.

Proposals may be submitted at any time, and will be reviewed as expeditiously as possible. Acknowledgment of receipt will usually be made within 15 days. Processing, review by research specialists, and evaluations of comments received usually require 60 days from receipt of proposal.

5. Approval

Notice of approval for negotiation (or disapproval) will be given as soon as possible following review and evaluation. Final approval for contracting will depend on negotia-

tions, and will require agreement on content, structure and budget of the project by both the organization and the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Manpower Administration.

NOTE: As required by the Office of Statistical Standards, Bureau of the Budget, any research contract entered into will include the following clause: "The Researcher shall submit to the Secretary or his designated representative copies of all proposed questionnaires and survey plans for clearance in advance of the use in accordance with the Federal Reports Act of 1942."

B. OUTLINE OF PROPOSAL CONTENT AND PROCEDURE

Follow the outline below in describing the proposed project. Identify each section by number and title as indicated in the outline.

1. Abstract

On a single, separate page submit a summary of the proposal under two main heads: (1) Objectives and (2) Procedures.

2. Problem

Give a brief statement of the problem to be investigated explaining its importance and significance in relationship to the objectives of the Manpower Act.

3. Objectives

State the hypotheses to be tested or the specific questions to be answered.

4. Relationship to Other Research

Discuss the proposed study in relation to previous or ongoing research in related areas, and indicate how the proposed study will extend the body of knowledge about the areas. Point out what will be distinctive or different about the proposed research as compared with previous research, and in what ways it may suggest or lend support to programs for action in the manpower area.

5. Procedure

Describe the procedure in detail listing the steps to be followed. Where pertinent, be sure to include specific information on each of the following:

a. Populations, samples, experimental and control groups, if any.
Indicate their origin, composition, purpose, use, numbers involved, types of data to be collected on each, sampling plans, etc.

b. Experimental design and methods to be used.

c. Data.
Describe types to be gathered and methods to be used. Indicate extent to which the data analyzed will be from existing sources, such as Department of Labor or Census Bureau. Describe questionnaires, interview guides, tests, and other research instruments to be used.

d. Analyses.
Indicate methods of statistical and other analyses to be used in testing the hypotheses or achieving the objectives.

e. Phasing.
Indicate approximate time schedule for various aspects or phases of the project.

f. Expected endproduct.
This should include preliminary reports of findings periodically during the course of the project, and a final report.

6. Personnel.

Give name, title, and a brief statement of the research experience of the principal investigator, and of other key personnel if possible.

7. Facilities

Indicate special facilities and similar advantages, including research staff resources, available to the organization.

8. Duration

Estimate total time for project and indicate beginning and ending dates.

9. Other Information

Indicate other information pertinent to the proposal, including the following:

a. Extent of agreed cooperation in project by agencies whose support is necessary for the successful accomplishment of objectives. Include names and titles of officials

of such agencies giving assurance of cooperation. For example, in a training-research project, cooperation of State employment security agency may be vital to the success of the project.

b. Amount of financial or other support available for this project from other sources.

c. Whether this proposal has been or will be submitted to any other agency or organization for financial support.

d. Whether this proposal is an extension of or an addition to a previous project supported by the Department of Labor or other Government agency.

e. Whether this project or a similar one was previously submitted to the Department of Labor or other Government agency.

C. BUDGET

Include a section on estimated costs of the project to be covered by contract with the Department of Labor. Start this section on a new page, identifying it in sequence with previous sections as "10. Budget."

The cost of performance of a contract includes the costs of necessary direct items of expenditure incurred in the performance of the contract; it may also include an amount for overhead or indirect costs to be determined by negotiation.

Following the categories as shown in the outline below, and rounding all amounts to the nearest dollar, list anticipated requirements for all items of expenditure. If the project is expected to extend beyond the end of the fiscal year (June 30), indicate amounts required for each year and in total.

1. Direct Costs

a. Personal Services

(1) Include salaries and wages of all personnel which are directly attributable to actual performance under this contract, whether on a full- or part-time basis. (List personnel by title, man-months and dollar amount.)

(2) Include, in connection with the above, but identify separately, allowances for vacation, holiday, and sick-leave pay. Also include employee benefits if customarily granted.

(3) Include consultants as required.

b. Materials and Supplies

List all materials and supplies which are directly expended by the contractor in performance of the contract.

c. Travel

Include subsistence during travel, in accordance with the contractor's established policy.

d. Communications

Include telephone and telegraph charges.

e. Services

Include those not specifically covered under personal services. When a study involves securing information through Federal agencies (as U.S. Bureau of the Census) or State agencies (as State employment services), the cost of such services should be included.

f. Other

Itemize by category and amount.

2. Indirect Costs or Overhead

Include pro-rata share of administrative costs. Give basis for the determination of the proposed overhead rate and reference to other current Government contracts, if any. Overhead rates may be fixed during the negotiation of a contract, or may be determined provisionally, with final settlement made at the conclusion of the contract.

If the division between direct and indirect costs as outlined above differs from the contractor's established accounting system and procedures for allocating such costs, the contractor's system may be followed and the differences will be considered in negotiating an equitable percentage to be applied in the contract. It is most important that all items of cost be readily identifiable regardless of whether they are shown as direct or indirect.

The proposed budget will be reviewed against applicable Federal regulations as part of the initial review. Where changes are necessary for projects which are otherwise approved for negotiation, these changes, as well as decisions concerning the determination of overhead rate, will be made during the negotiation of the contract.

AVAILABILITY OF RESEARCH REPORTS

The following libraries contain copies of research reports submitted to the U.S. Department of Labor under the contract research program of the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Manpower Administration. The libraries are subscribers to the Library of Congress' Documents Expediting Project.

Alabama

University of Alabama Library
University, Ala.

Alaska

University of Alaska Library
College, Alaska

Arizona

Matthews Library
Arizo[illegible] State University
Temp[illegible], Ariz.

University of Arizona Library
Tucson, Ariz.

California

University of California General Library
Berkeley, Calif.

University of California Library
Los Angeles, Calif.

University of California Library
Riverside, Calif.

University of California Library
Santa Barbara, Calif.

University of Southern California Library
Los Angeles, Calif.

John F. Kennedy Memorial Library
California State College at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, Calif.

California State Library
Sacramento, Calif.

San Diego State College Library
San Diego, Calif.

Colorado

University of Colorado Libraries
Boulder, Colo.

Colorado State University Libraries
Fort Collins, Colo.

District of Columbia

Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

Delaware

University of Delaware Library
Newark, Del.

Florida

Florida State University Library
Tallahassee, Fla.

University of Florida Libraries
Gainesville, Fla.

Georgia

University of Georgia Libraries
Athens, Ga.

Hawaii

University of Hawaii Library
Honolulu, Hawaii

Illinois

Midwest Inter-Library Center
5721 Cottage Grove Avenue
Chicago, Ill.

University of Chicago Library
Chicago, Ill.

Northwestern University Library
Evanston, Ill.

University of Illinois Library
Urbana, Ill.

Southern Illinois University Library
Carbondale, Ill.

Indiana

Indiana University Library
Bloomington, Ind.

Indiana State Library
140 North Senate Avenue
Indianapolis, Ind.

Purdue University Library
Lafayette, Ind.

Ball State Teachers College
Muncie, Ind.

Indiana State Teachers College
Terre Haute, Ind.

Iowa

State College of Iowa Library
Serials Division
Cedar Falls, Iowa

Kansas

University of Kansas Library
Lawrence, Kans.

Kansas State University Library
Manhattan, Kans.

Maine

Raymond H. Fogler Library
University of Maine
Orono, Maine

Maryland

University of Maryland Library
College Park, Md.

Enoch Pratt Free Library
Baltimore, Md.

Johns Hopkins University Library
Baltimore. Md.

Massachusetts

Lesley College Library
Cambridge, Mass.

Michigan

University of Michigan Library
Ann Arbor, Mich.

Detroit Public Library
5201 Woodward Avenue
Detroit, Mich.

Wayne State University Library
Detroit, Mich.

Michigan State University
East Lansing, Mich.

Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Mich.

Minnesota

University of Minnesota Library
Minneapolis, Minn.

Mississippi

Mississippi State University
Library
State College, Miss.

Mississippi Southern College
Library
P.O. Box 53, Station A
Hattiesburg, Miss.

Missouri

University of Missouri Library
Columbia, Mo.

Kansas City Public Library
Ninth and Locust Streets
Kansas City, Mo.

Nebraska

University of Nebraska Library
Lincoln, Nebr.

New Hampshire

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