

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 095 280

95

CE 001 828

AUTHOR Walker, Yvonne; And Others
TITLE Evaluation of the Availability and Effectiveness of
MDTA Institutional Training and Employment Services
for Women: A Review of the Literature.
INSTITUTION Battle (Mark) Associates, Inc.; Exotech Systems,
Inc., Falls Church, Va.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Office
of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation.
PUB DATE [74]
CONTRACT OEC-0-73-0815
NOTE 112p.; For related documents, see CE 001 826 and
827

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.75 HC-\$5.40 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; Employment Opportunities; Employment
Statistics; *Equal Opportunities (Jobs); Job
Development; Labor Legislation; Labor Problems;
*Literature Reviews; Manpower Development; Manpower
Needs; *Sex Discrimination; Subemployment; Training;
Vocational Education; *Womens Education; *Working
Women .

ABSTRACT

The literature review represents an initial segment of a study providing a comprehensive analysis of available data to determine the impact of institutional training on women. The literature review concerned secondary data sources such as national labor force statistics and government data relating to women as enrollees in manpower programs. Pertinent findings reflecting the analysis of previous studies in terms of women include: (1) emphasis appeared to be placed on training for women in high demand occupations, i.e., those with high turnover rates, (2) female trainees were seriously hampered by the lack of counseling, supportive services and flexible training schedules, (3) male trainees had more job alternatives available to them and were therefore less dependent on the training program. Three major sections of the document deal with: (1) labor force status, programs, and problems of women, (2) analysis of Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA) and other evaluation studies, and (3) interviews with Federal officials. Appendixes offer a questionnaire for Federal interviews, recommendations to address MDTA internal and external problem areas, and an eight-page bibliography. (MW)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EVALUATION OF THE AVAILABILITY
AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MDTA
INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING AND
EMPLOYMENT SERVICES FOR WOMEN

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE



SUBMITTED BY:

MARK BATTLE ASSOCIATES
AND
EXOTECH SYSTEMS, INC.

CE 001 828

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Mark Battle Associates, the prime contractor for this study, and its subcontractor, Exotech Systems, worked as a team in compiling the data for this report. The following team members share the responsibility and credit.

Mark Battle Associates

Yvonne Kimmons, Project Director
Ron Emery
Blanche Hite
Ruth Perot, Consultant

Exotech Systems, Inc.

Carolyn Jefferson,
Principal Investigator
John Phillips
Rose Sturm

The MBA/ESI team wishes to acknowledge the support and assistance given by the Project Officers: Dorothy Shuler, Office of Planning, Budgeting and Evaluation, U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare; and Frank Stanard, Division of Program Evaluation, Manpower Administration, Department of Labor.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements

SUMMARY		i
CHAPTER I	INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW	I-1
CHAPTER II	LABOR FORCE STATUS, PROGRAMS AND PROBLEMS OF WOMEN	II-1
	PROFILE OF WORKING WOMEN	II-1
	The Working Wife	II-2
	Race, Age and Education	II-4
	Occupational Distribution	II-5
	WOMEN AND MANPOWER PROGRAMS	II-6
	Female Enrollment Characteristics	II-8
	Occupational Training Distribution	II-9
	Legal Status	II-10
	PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY WOMEN WORKERS	II-12
CHAPTER III	ANALYSIS OF MDTA AND OTHER EVALUATION STUDIES	III-1
	DUAL CAREERS	III-1
	Longitudinal Study	III-2
	Other Studies on Dual Careers	III-8
	PROGRAM OPTIONS	III-12
	PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS MEASURES	III-13
	Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Institutional Manpower Training in Meeting Employee's Needs in Skills Shortage Occupation	III-15
	National Attitude Study of Trainees in MDTA Institutional Programs (Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan)	III-16
	Analysis of MDTA Institutional and OJT Data Tapes	III-19
	Other Relevant Analyses	III-23
	CONCLUSION	III-25

Table of Contents - Continued

CHAPTER IV	INTERVIEWS WITH FEDERAL OFFICIALS	IV-1
	INTRODUCTION	IV-1
	SELECTION OF INTERVIEWEES	IV-1
	ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW RESULTS	IV-2
	Highlights of Survey Findings	IV-2
	SIGNIFICANT TRENDS AND FINDINGS FOR GROUPS OF INTERVIEWEES	IV-9
	Institutional Decision-Makers	IV-9
	Office of Education vs. Department of Labor	IV-9
	Males vs. Females	IV-10
APPENDIX A	QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FEDERAL INTERVIEWS	
APPENDIX B	RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADDRESS MDTA INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL PROBLEM AREAS	
APPENDIX C	BIBLIOGRAPHY	

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

SUMMARY

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended, created the MDTA Institutional program, which provides occupational training for disadvantaged and low-income persons. Amendments during the sixties broadened the statute to allow still more responsiveness to the needs of the unemployed and to give the states greater control over the programs. Several other manpower programs were designed during the same decade to meet the needs of special target groups. Yet, despite the legal gains and the increased opportunities for participation in federal programs extended to male and female members of the targeted groups, the unequal status of women and the economic effects of sex discrimination persist.

The literature review was conducted to provide data to facilitate the development of a research design for assessment of institutional training program impact and effectiveness in preparing women for entry and re-entry into the labor market. Factors addressed included the labor force status and employment problems of women, as well as the design, organization and content of institutional training programs and post-training employment results.

The labor force participation of women has undergone rapid growth from 1945 to the present. By 1972, the proportion of all

women of working age in the labor force had risen to 43.8 percent from 35.7 percent in 1945. The percentage of working wives has also increased, and while their income is smaller than that of their husbands, it is, generally regarded as necessary income if the family is to reach or maintain a desired standard of living. The entry of housewives into the labor market was facilitated by several factors:

- Increased work opportunities
- Decrease in the birth rate
- The availability of relatively inexpensive labor-saving equipment for use in the home, which has freed more of the housewife's time to seek paid employment

National labor force and MDTA studies which contain data breakouts for women fall into three general categories: (1) those studies which focus on the dual role of women--that of supplemental wage earner and that of child raiser and household manager; (2) those studies directed toward an investigation of institutional training program features which affect the subsequent employment of graduates; and (3) those studies which generated findings on the question of program effectiveness and the differences between male and female graduates.

For women, the decision to work is often a function of their family status. The labor force participation of women appears to be positively related to her educational attainment and a favorable

attitude on the part of her spouse, but is inversely related to her husband's earnings. Although 87 percent of the 33.3 million women in the civilian labor force in 1973 were white, black women report higher labor force participation rates than white women. Yet, the hourly pay is lower for black than white women in every educational attainment category except those with 13 or more years of schooling. The resultant pattern of downward mobility appears to be related to inadequate education as well as employment discontinuity.

When the studies which focused on program features are looked at in terms of women, pertinent findings surface:

- Emphasis appeared to be placed on training for women in so-called high demand occupations, i.e., those with high turnover rates.
- Female trainees were seriously hampered by the lack of counseling, supportive services, and flexible training schedules.

For studies on program effectiveness, the principal achievement measures utilized included: attendance, completion and placement rates, job retention rates, post-training wage rates, employment level and post-training relevance. Data indicated the following:

- Retention rates were lower in female dominated fields, even though initial placement rates were higher.
- Male trainees had more job alternatives available to them and were therefore less dependent on the training program.

As part of the literature search, interviews were conducted with federal manpower program officials in the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare to obtain information and data relevant to the development of the field study research design. Officials within the Office of Education, Office of Employment Development and the United States Employment Service who have substantial decision-making authority over the Institutional program were also interviewed.

Survey findings indicate that:

- The majority of those interviewed felt that the needs of women should be spotlighted due to the prevailing patterns of sex discrimination, inequality and stereotyping. The current neglect of women as a group was also frequently cited.
- The most frequently mentioned needs of women were child care and special counseling and/or training during and after the formal training period.
- Two of the most frequently mentioned explanations for the concentration of women trainees in clerical and health-related components were the attitude that these are traditional female occupations and the prevalence of jobs in these fields.
- "Job satisfaction" followed by "annual income" and "placement in a training-related job" were rated by federal officials as the most significant factors in determining the success of training programs for individual women trainees.
- Factors within the MDTA system that influence program outcomes for trainees fall into six major categories: legislation, guidelines, and/or regulations; funding; scope and flexibility of training programs; job placement efforts; and administration and staff patterns.

- External factors affecting program outcomes included labor market conditions; sexist attitudes of society; and licensing, certification and regulatory practices.
- Enforcement of existing anti-discrimination laws, and the improvement of Institutional programs were the most frequently cited roles of government regarding the status of women in manpower programs.
- In light of the proposed decentralization of federal programs, the responsibilities of the federal government for manpower programming should include: establishing national priorities, monitoring overall performance of prime sponsors, developing models for potential use by prime sponsors and providing technical assistance.

CHAPTER I

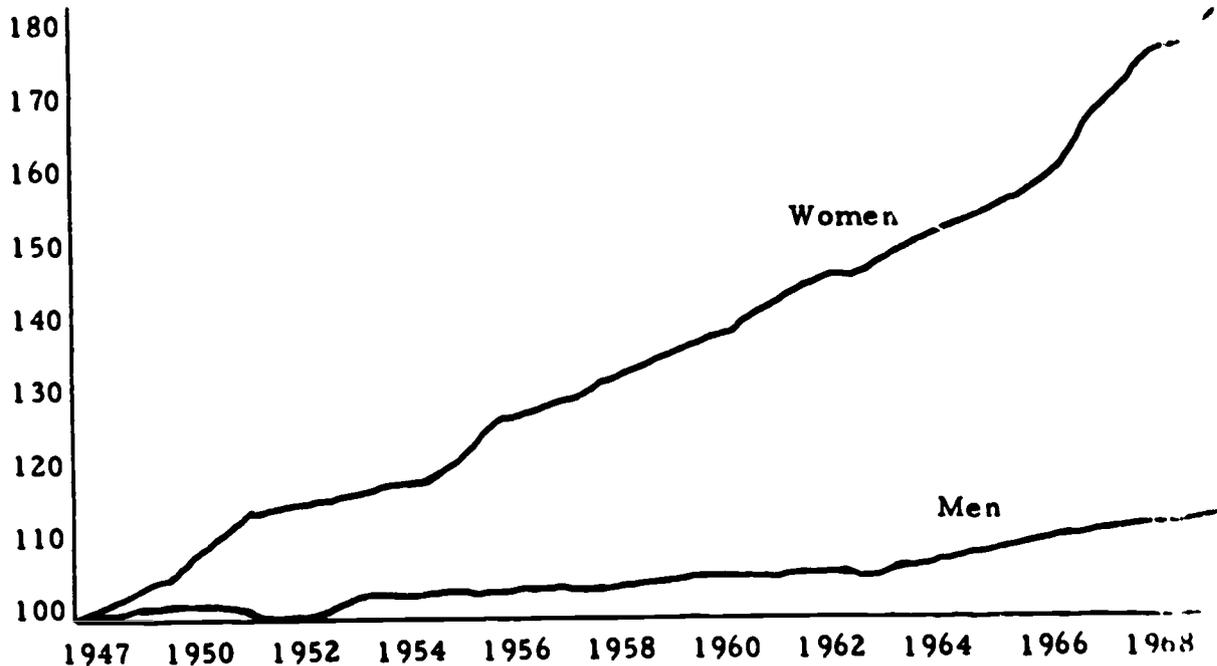
INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The role of women both in the home and in the labor force has undergone a remarkable transformation in the past thirty years. As a result of labor shortages during both World War II and the Korean War, women entered the labor force in large numbers and filled positions which formerly had been held by men. Women continued to enter the labor force in increasing numbers after mobilization efforts ceased. A comparison between men and women of the average numbers in the labor force in 1947 and 1968 illustrates this fact. The comparison reveals that the number of women in the civilian labor force increased by 75 percent (from 16.7 to 29.2 million), while that figure for men rose only 16 percent (from 42.7 to 49.5 million).^{1/}

^{1/} Handbook on Women Workers. Women's Bureau Bulletin 291, U.S. Department of Labor, 1969, p. 15.

TABLE 1

RELATIVE GROWTH OF THE LABOR FORCE, BY SEX, 1947-68
Index 1947 = 100



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

In the sixties, the right of women to equal opportunity became part of an emerging demand for the revision of traditional concepts of societal roles and the elimination of disadvantage status for sub-groups of the general population. The Equal Pay Act of 1963, the several amendments to the Manpower Training and Development Act of 1962, and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 set the stage for the development of national manpower and civil rights authorities which were given specific charters to eliminate job discrimination and to remove barriers to the entry and equitable participation of women in the labor force. Yet the concentration

of women remain in sex-typed occupations, such as the health, clerical and service fields, which offer low pay and little or no progress up career ladders of opportunity. Despite the attainment of legal rights of access, women have yet to see a fulfillment of the promise of the sixties.

It is against the background of these trends and developments that the following review of the research literature and relevant data of the MDTA Institutional program and its effects has been conducted. Such factors as the labor force status and employment problems of women have been assessed, as well as the design, organization and content of MDTA training programs, and post-training employment results.

The purpose of this literature review was to provide data to facilitate the development of a research design for the assessment of MDTA program impact and effectiveness in preparing women for entry and re-entry into the labor market. Chapter II provides an examination of the national labor force position of women, manpower programs and problems encountered by female workers. Chapter III highlights several major evaluative studies of the MDTA Institutional program and other relevant studies to determine the factors, both positive and negative, which affect women in the program. Chapter IV reports the results of interviews with federal officials which were conducted as part of the data

gathering effort. A re-analysis of data from the MDTA (Outcome Study,^{1/} undertaken simultaneously with the literature review, is being presented under separate cover.

^{1/} MDTA Outcomes Study, Final Report, Decision-Making Information, Report CAL-7778, Santa Ana, California, 1972.

CHAPTER II

LABOR FORCE STATUS, PROGRAMS AND PROBLEMS OF WOMEN

This chapter first presents a profile of working women in America--their labor force and personal characteristics. Then, national manpower program offerings, women's legal status and their current employment problems will be examined.

PROFILE OF WORKING WOMEN

Although increases in labor force participation on the part of women occurred during the first four decades of this century, the years beginning with 1945 saw an accelerated rate of growth. Indeed, the 1973 Economic Report of the President assessed the marked increases since World War II as "one of the most important changes in the American economy in this century..."^{1/}

By 1972, the proportion of all women of working age in the labor force had risen to 43.8 percent from 35.7 percent in 1945. Further, women accounted for 37.4 percent of the total work force compared with 29.6 percent in 1945.

^{1/} Economic Report of the President, January, 1973, p. 89.

TABLE 2

WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE,
SELECTED YEARS, 1900-72

Year	Women in Labor Force (thousands)	Women in Labor Force as Percent of	
		Total Labor Force	All Women of Working age
1945	19,270	29.6	35.7
1950	18,412	28.8	33.9
1955	20,584	30.2	35.7
1960	23,272	32.2	37.8
1965	26,232	34.0	39.3
1970	31,560	36.7	43.4
1972	33,320	37.4	43.8

Sources: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and
Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

The Working Wife

As of March, 1972, there were 21.3 million multiple-worker families^{1/} or 55 percent of all families headed by married men in the labor force in March, 1972. Ten years earlier, multiple-worker families totaled 16.1 million, and comprised 45 percent of all such families.^{2/} While the income of many married women is smaller than that of their husbands, it is generally regarded as necessary income if the family is to reach or maintain a desired

^{1/} Statistics cited also reflect secondary earners other than the spouse.

^{2/} U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, March, 1973, p. 66.

standard of living. "The average woman worker is a secretary who increases family income by about 25 percent, and this permits many lower middle class families to achieve middle class status, something the husband could not achieve for his family on his own."^{1/}

Rapidly rising wage rates in the years during World War II served to attract increasing numbers of housewives into the labor force. After the war, entry into the labor force was facilitated by several factors: 1) increased work opportunities, particularly in the service sector where job availability increased 77 percent between 1950 and 1971; 2) changes in social values which heretofore had discouraged married women from seeking work; 3) the decrease in the birth rate which has resulted in the lowering of the age when many mothers enter or return to the labor market; and 4) the availability of relatively inexpensive labor-saving equipment for use in the home, which has freed the housewife for paid employment.

As indicated in Appendix A, Table 1, the percentage of married females (spouse present) in the labor force increased by 17.7 percent (from 23.8 to 41.5 percent) from March 1950 to March 1972. This increase is significantly larger than the

^{1/} W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Work in America, 1972, p. 43.

increase for single women (4.4 percent) or the increase for widowed, divorced or separated women (2.3 percent) during the same period of time.

Married women (husband present) with children increased their labor force participation rates from 1950 to 1972 regardless of the number of children. This increase was 18.2 percent for those with children under 6, 21.9 percent for those with children 6 to 17 and 12.4 percent for women with no children. (See Appendix A, Table 2)

Race, Age and Education

Of the approximately 33.3 million women in the civilian labor force in 1973, 29 million, or 87 percent, were white.^{1/} However, while white women were numerically predominant, the rate at which they participated in the labor force when measured as a percentage of all white women of working age was lower than that of minority women, i.e., 43.2 percent compared with 48.7 percent, respectively.^{2/}

There were few marked differences by race in the distribution of the work force by age group. The largest proportion of workers was in the 20-30 age category for both black and white.

^{1/} U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, March, 1973, p. 129-130.

^{2/} Ibid., p. 131-132

With the exception of mothers of children under six years of age, many of whom prefer to remain at home while their children are young, the more education a woman has the more likely she is to work.^{1/} While this is true for both black and white women, the overall proportion of better educated black women who seek work is higher than that of white women. This difference is most pronounced in the case of wives living with their husbands; 55 percent of the black wives were in the labor force compared to only 40 percent of white wives as of March, 1971.

Occupational Distribution

Within broad occupational groupings, women are more likely than men to be employed in lower-skilled, lower-paying jobs. Moreover, the broad occupational distribution of women has not changed significantly in the past decade despite the growth of technology which has diminished the role of physical strength in most occupations.

For example, more than 60 percent of all women in the 1970 labor force could be found in thirteen occupations, predominantly service or white collar. Four "clerical and kindred" occupations out of the thirteen accounted for 45 percent of the women. Further an analysis of census data conducted in 1969 indicated that 50 percent of all women in occupations classified by three-digit

^{1/} Economic Report of the President, March, 1973, p. 95.

DOT codes worked in only 21 of 250 possible categories, while the same percentage of men worked in 65 different occupations.^{1/}

WOMEN AND MANPOWER PROGRAMS

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended, created the MDTA Institutional program (as well as the On-the-Job Training program). The first major piece of manpower training legislation, the act was passed as a response to anticipated high unemployment as a result of technological change and automation. Its original purpose was to "enable unemployed persons, primarily heads of families, whose skills have become obsolete, to acquire new skills which are in demand in the labor market."

The threat of widespread technological unemployment did not materialize, but the unemployment rate grew. It became apparent the disadvantaged were the primary victims of unemployment, i.e., the unskilled, undereducated, and inexperienced workers, many of whom were members of minority groups. Consequently, in 1966, the Administration established a national goal for MDTA programs, providing that 65 percent of those enrolled would be disadvantaged persons. Additional amendments during the sixties broadened

^{1/} Janice Hedge, "Women at Work/Women Workers and Manpower Demands in the 1970's," Monthly Labor Review, June, 1970

the statute to allow still more responsiveness to the needs of the unemployed, to focus more attention on the causes for their status, and to give the states greater control over the programs.

MDTA has been further interpreted and modified as the result of administrative action. In 1971, for example, a decision was made to give veterans first priority for service in all manpower programs, including the MDTA Institutional program. As a result of this decision, which was linked to changes in labor market conditions and the availability of training programs, the percentage of women in MDTA dropped to 36.8 percent in FY 1972 from a high of 44.6 percent in 1968.^{1/}

The following table compares female enrollment percentages by major manpower programs. The data should be viewed in terms

TABLE 3
TOTAL ENROLLMENT AND PERCENT
FEMALE ENROLLMENT BY TRAINING PROGRAM, FY '72a

	MDTA Institutional	PEP	JOB/ OJT	JOBS	WIN
Total Enrollment	150,600	226,100	82,100	82,800	120,600
Percent Female	36.8%	27.8%	22.5%	31.0%	60.2%

^{a/}MDTA Institutional includes enrollments from Skill Centers, Individual Referrals and Other Class-Size Projects.

Source: HEW Secretary's Report, 1973, Tables B-2, F-8, 53.

^{1/} HEW Secretary's Report, FY 73, Appendix C, Table B-1.

of the goals and emphasis of the various programs. All training programs reflect the preference given to veterans by legislative or administrative action. The MDTA Institutional program is second only to WIN in percentage of female enrollees.

Female Enrollment Characteristics

Data on the characteristics of women in the MDTA Institutional program show the female enrollee to be more likely than the male to be black, disadvantaged, not a primary wage-earner, to experience longer unemployment, and to have a shorter work history.

TABLE 4

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF MDTA INSTITUTIONAL ENROLLEES, FY 1972

N=150,600

Characteristics	Male	Female
Total	95,200	55,400
<u>Percent of Total</u>		
Disadvantaged	61.3	75.2
Poor	59.6	75.1
Head of Family	63.4	53.0
Primary Wage-Earner	85.3	67.2
Gainfully Employed		
under 3 years	36.1	55.5
3-9 years	43.4	32.4
10 years +	20.4	12.1
Race:		
Caucasian	65.7	53.4
Negro	28.5	41.1
American Indian	2.7	2.7
Oriental	.6	.6
Other Races	2.4	2.2

Source: HEW Secretary's Report 1973, Appendix C, Table B-2

Occupational Training Distribution

The occupational distribution of female enrollees in the MDTA Institutional program is presented in Table 5. Of all female enrollees in FY 1972, 96 percent were trained in only three categories: professional, clerical/sales and services. To illustrate further, 54.1 percent of female trainees were trained in clerical and sales positions, 19 percent in services and 22.9 percent in the professional, technical and managerial category, which for the most part, consists of health-related occupations. The remaining categories account for only 4 percent of all female trainees.

TABLE 5

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP OF TRAINING OF PERSONS
ENROLLED IN MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING
IN FISCAL YEAR 1972: BY SEX

N=150,600

Major Occupational Category	Total	Percentage of Total	
		Male	Female
Professional, technical and managerial	16,000	8.0	22.9
Clerical and sales	27,100	4.9	54.1
Service	14,900	8.9	19.0
Farming, fishery, forestry and related	1,200	1.5	.4
Processing	500	.5	.1
Machine trades	23,500	31.0	.6
Benchwork	4,100	4.2	2.2
Structural work	27,300	36.1	.4
Miscellaneous		4.9	.3

Source: HEW Secretary's Report, 1973, Appendix C, Tables C-2, C-3.

Legal Status

The Employment Act of 1946 established in law the goals of "maximum employment" and "maximum production," which is expressed in the 1972 Economic Report of the President as follows "those who want work should be able to work in the employment in which they will be most productive." Since that time other laws have been passed and an executive order issued, which relate directly to discrimination in employment. As indicated in Table 6, they include the Equal Pay Act of 1963, which requires that men and women in the same establishment receive equal pay for equal work; Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination in employment by sex, race, color, religion, or national origin; the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, which expands enforcement powers in discrimination cases, and extends coverage to previously excluded workers in state and local governments and educational institutions. In addition, since December 1971, federal contractors have been required under OFCC Order No. 4 (Executive Order 11246) to promote affirmative action plans to ensure all employees equal opportunities. With the passage of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, sex discrimination in education programs and activities is prohibited.

Certain Federal agencies, e.g., the U.S. Office of Education and the Department of Labor, have issued programs and guidelines

TABLE 6

MAJOR LAWS AND EXECUTIVE ORDERS
RELATING TO DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT

Law or Order	Date	Provision
Equal Pay Act	1963	Requires that men and women in the same establishment receive equal work for equal pay.
Title VII of Civil Rights Act	1964	Prohibits discrimination in employment by sex, race, color, religion, or national origin.
Equal Opportunity Act	1972	Expands enforcement powers in discrimination cases and extends coverage to previously excluded workers in state and local governments and educational institutions.
Executive Order 11246	1971	Requires Federal contractors to promote affirmative action team plans to ensure all employees equal opportunities.
Public Law 92-261	1972	Strengthened fair employment legal sanctions applicable to private employment and state and local government, and provided greater rights for employees of the Federal Government.
Public Law 92-318	1972	Prohibited sex discrimination in education programs and activities

on sex discrimination in vocational education and manpower training programs, warning local agencies of the consequences of non-compliance.

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY WOMEN WORKERS

Despite the legal gains of the past decade and the opportunities for participation in federal programs extended to male and female members of targeted groups, substantial evidence exists of the unequal status of women and the persistent economic effects of sex discrimination.

For example, a major factor which limits the opportunities of women in the labor market is the widespread practice of occupational sex stereotyping, which "...occurs when there is a large majority of those in an occupation of one sex, and when there is an associated normative expectation that this is how things should be."¹ Qualities necessary for success in sex-typed occupations are then projected to be either innate to men or women. Thus, occupations in which women predominate--nursing, clerical work, teaching, housekeeping--often are seen as an extensions of woman's traditional role as a homemaker. Similarly, occupations in which men predominate are believed to require masculine qualities. "Once such a division becomes established,

¹/ W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Work in America, 1972, p. 52.

it tends to be self-perpetuating since each sex is socialized, trained and counseled into certain jobs and not into others."1/

Concentration in sex-typed occupations also influences the earning potential of women. Available evidence suggests that the higher the percentage of female employees within an occupation or industry, the lower are the hourly wages for both males and females. Moreover, the concentration of women within occupational categories characterized by low wages has a significant effect upon their incomes, as indicated in the recent analysis of census data for Washington, D. C. conducted by the Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies.

About one-third of Washington's workers are among the working poor and almost a majority of these are black women employed as clerks and cleaning help in offices, stores and homes. Almost half of the low-wage workers were employed less than 50 weeks in the survey year and of these 55 percent were females. The largest occupational groups working less than full-time were in clerical, service, sales and laboring jobs. In addition, overall about 40 percent of the D. C. women working in 1969 earned less than \$4,000 a year.2/

Of interest in this context are Department of Labor studies cited in the March 1973 Economic Report of the President, which report that the differential almost disappears when men's and women's earnings are compared within detailed job classifications and within the same establishment.3/ It would appear then, that

1/ Ibid, p. 54.

2/ The Washington Post, April 9, 1973, p. C-1.

3/ Economic Report of the President, January, 1973, p. 106.

wage discrimination may be a less significant factor in the determination of wage rates for men and women who perform comparable work, than is job segregation.

The labor force participation of women is characterized more by discontinuity, that is, movement in and out of the labor force, than that of men. Although the length of time out of the labor force for child bearing and child rearing may be shorter today than in previous years, the interruption in work experience may also have long-term economic effects. Interrupted work history and the uneven pressures of home responsibilities may subject women to increased layoffs because of lack of seniority, may affect the amount of skill training they are exposed to, and/or may limit their eligibility for promotions. Women with breaks in employment are also at a competitive disadvantage with men of the same age because of reduced job experience.

Discontinuity must be differentiated from job instability characterized by high quit rates. U.S. Department of Labor statistics for 1972 indicated that men were unemployed primarily because they lost their last jobs and secondarily because they re-entered the labor force. On the other hand, the fact that they had lost their last job and re-entered the labor force were both reasons of equal weight for unemployed women.

The "never worked before" category accounted for a relatively small proportion of both men and women. (See Table 7.)

TABLE 7

UNEMPLOYMENT OF ADULT MEN AND WOMEN
BY REASON, 1972

Sex, Age and Reason	Total Unemployment (thousands)
Men 20 years and over	1,928
Lost last job	1,207
Left last job	245
Reentered labor force	416
Never worked before	59
Women 20 years and over	1,610
Lost last job	635
Left last job	262
Reentered labor force	635
Never worked before	79

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Source: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

It is traditionally socially acceptable for a woman to decide not to participate in the labor market, while the reverse is true for a man. This is a further impediment to the full participation of women in the labor market.

Other factors also limit the employment and earnings potential of women as compared to men. Married women are not as mobile as men; women may have to choose a job based on location, working hours, the availability of shifts, or the availability of child care rather than the job which offers the highest hourly wage or greatest potential for promotion.

Of the 42.6 million women not in the labor force in 1972, about 1.6 million reported that they "want a job now." Of this number approximately two-thirds gave "home responsibilities" as their reason for non-participation in the labor market. (refer to Table 8). It is reasonable to assume that the presence of children was a major "home responsibility" of this group. Equally significant were the 525,000 women who were not in the labor force because they think they cannot get a job. These persons may be characterized as "discouraged workers" or the "hidden unemployed."

TABLE 8

WOMEN 16 YEARS AND OVER NOT IN THE LABOR FORCE
BY DESIRE FOR A JOB AND REASONS FOR NON-PARTICIPATION
1972

(Numbers in thousands)

Reason for Non-Participation:	
Total Not in Labor Force	42,591
Want Job Now ^a	1,623
Home Responsibilities ^b	1,098
Think Cannot Get a Job	525
<u>Men and Women</u>	
In school	1,200
Ill health, disability	623
All other reasons	766

^aExcludes women in the following categories for whom no separate data were available.

^bBreakdown by sex not shown. Those reported in this category are assumed to be women.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, March, 1973.

The proportion of women at work who are not fully employed was also greater than that of men, with almost 4 percent of the women in the civilian labor force underemployed in December, 1972 compared to about 2 percent of the men.

TABLE 9

PERSONS 16 THROUGH 64 YEARS OLD
EMPLOYED PART-TIME FOR ECONOMIC REASONS,^a
AND PERCENT OF CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE,
BY SEX AND WOMEN, BY RACE
DECEMBER, 1972

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristics	Number Employed Part-Time for Economic Reasons	Percent of Civilian Labor Force
<u>Sex:</u> Total:	2,118	2.5
Women	1,106	3.9
Men	1,012	1.9
<u>Color:</u> Total:	1,104	3.9
White	849	3.0
Black and others	255	6.0

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

^aIncludes persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the weekend, material shortages, unavailability of full-time work, etc.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, January, 1973.

There is an additional problem of increasing significance and impact which should be considered. Fifty-four percent of women heads of households were in the labor force in 1971. The unemployment rate for these women in March 1973, was 7.1 percent, the highest rate since 1969.^{1/} Approximately two-thirds of these families had children under eighteen.

The disadvantaged status of women is not only apparent in the labor force, but is also reflected in federal programs. For example, a special task force report issued in 1972 took the U.S. Office of Education to task for its performance concerning sex discrimination in manpower training programs.

"As we indicated in Part I, vocational and manpower training programs, wittingly or unwittingly are helping to channel the bulk of the Nation's female workers into low paying jobs. OE's own programs are no different. The agency's programs have reinforced rather than counteracted a strong tradition of sex bias in vocational training."^{2/}

^{1/} BLS, "Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force," Special Labor Force Report 144, March, 1971, p. 10.

^{2/} Commissioner's Task Force on the Impact of Office of Education Programs on Women, A Look at Women in Education: Issues and answers for HEW, November 1972, DHEW/OE, p. 26.

The report went on to cite errors of omission and commission:

"The limited career aspirations many girls acquire early in life are certainly an important factor in problems of sex-typing in vocational training. But OE's vocational and manpower training programs must take their share of the blame. They have clearly failed to encourage girls to seek training for occupations promising more pay or better opportunities. In many cases, vocational and manpower training programs have actively discouraged both sexes from training for careers dominated by the other sex."1/

An example of the degree to which separation of the sexes is taken for granted in vocational and manpower training programs is provided in the aforementioned Upjohn Institute report:

"When States (education agencies) were asked to identify their best vocational education projects serving disadvantaged and handicapped students, 14 listed projects serving only one sex."2/

Finally, it should be observed that while the representation of women in the MDTA Institutional program has generally reflected their proportion within the total labor force, the percentage has not kept pace with the representation of women among MDTA's disadvantaged target population, estimated as high as 60 percent.3/

1/ Ibid., p. 19

2/ W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Work in America, 1972, p. 72.

3/ Bureau of Census, Population Reports, Series p. 60 No. 86, "Characteristics of the Low-Income Population," 1971.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF MDTA AND OTHER EVALUATION STUDIES

This chapter presents a summary of research findings from three groups of selected studies of women in the labor force and in MDTA programs which address the following:

Dual Careers
Program Options
Program Effectiveness

DUAL CAREERS

Four studies are directly concerned with the "dual career" concept, which is the judgement that women function simultaneously as supplemental wage earners and as child raisers and household managers. There are, of course, other options available to women such as refraining from being in the labor force, not pursuing a career as a primary objective, postponing entry or reentry until child care is no longer a responsibility, or remaining single or without children. These are the choices that confront women deciding to enter the labor market. As we shall see subsequently, the decision made is often a function of the family status of women, i.e., whether they are heads of household or not, the relative contribution made to family income and the value placed on assuming personal responsibility for the care of children and household management.

A major 5-year longitudinal study is currently being conducted at Ohio State University on the labor market experience of women. A number of other studies have been conducted using this longitudinal data base. Of interest to the current review are those by Roderick and Davis, John Shea, and Sookon Kim. The study conducted by Roderick and Davis is an investigation of the employment of women in occupational categories that are atypical, i.e., positions which are traditionally male and/or blue-collar. The investigation of data by John Shea concerning welfare mothers represents an assessment of the discouraged worker or "no career" women and of the requisite conditions for their entry into the labor force. Finally, Sookon Kim's study of the cross-substitution between husbands and wives is an econometric investigation of the positive and negative factors affecting the supply of labor man-hours for women.

Longitudinal Study

The "dual careers" concept underscores the fact that a significant number of married women who work are homemakers as well. Factors examined in a five-year study^{1/} currently underway include labor force participation, unemployment, job mobility and work attitudes. These factors were examined in light of such personal characteristics as age, race, family background, marital

1/ John Shea, Dual Careers: A Longitudinal Study of Labor Market Experience of Women, Center for Human Resource Research, Ohio State University, Vol. I, May, 1970, p. 22.

characteristics, education, health, financial characteristics, attitudes toward child care and housekeeping.

The following summarizes principal characteristics of the Dual Careers study sample:^{1/}

- About 50 percent of married white women who work had children, while nearly 75 percent of black women who work had children.
- White women appeared to have fewer health limitations than black women. Married women appeared to have fewer health limitations than others, although the differences are not significant in either case.
- Nearly 60 percent of the black women failed to complete high school. Less than 33 percent of the white women in the sample did not complete high school.
- Of all the women who were no longer in school full-time, 33 percent had taken some type of refresher course.
- About 15 percent of the white women and 15 percent of the black women in the study had received certificates for professional* and trade certification (refer to Table 10).
- Of the women in the study who were living with at least one other family member, one in six was in a household in which family income, excluding her own earnings was less than \$3,000 in 1966.
- Of nonmarried women, 66 2/3 percent of whites and 75 percent of blacks were the heads of their households.
- In the case of both whites and blacks, never-married women without children tended to have somewhat more tolerant attitudes toward working mothers than women who were or had been married.

^{1/} The sample size consisted of 5,083 individuals, of whom 3,456 were white.

* "professional" refers to those courses where certification is necessary, e.g., licensed practical nursing.

TABLE 10

III-4

PROPORTION OF MARRIED RESPONDENTS AND PROPORTION
OF RESPONDENTS WITH WORK EXPERIENCE HOLDING
PROFESSIONAL OR TRADE CERTIFICATES, BY AGE
MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS, AND COLOR

Selected characteristic	Total Number (thousands)	Percent with trade certificates	Percent with professional certificate
WHITES			
Age ^a	13,549	4	10
30-34	4,186	3	10
35-39	4,522	4	11
40-44	4,851	4	9
Marital and family status ^b	14,928	4	11
Never married, no children	679	7	25
Never married, with children	25	0	0
Ever married, no children ^c	1,441	5	8
Ever married, with children	12,784	4	10
Total or average	15,559	4	10
BLACKS			
Age ^a	1,424	8	7
30-34	450	9	5
35-39	482	9	9
40-44	498	5	8
Marital and family status ^b	2,035	8	7
Never married, no children	74	16	12
Never married, with children	70	9	6
Ever married, no children	284	6	10
Ever married, with children	1,607	8	6
Total or average	2,107	7	8

^a Includes only married respondents, spouse present and absent

^b Includes only respondents with work experience.

^c "Ever" married includes all respondents who were married at any time. Therefore, those who are separated or divorced, as all those currently married, will be included in this category.

Source: Herbert Parnes, John R. Shea, Ruth Spitz, Dual Careers Center for Human Resource Research, the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, May, 1970.

Labor Force Participation - In general, labor force participation appeared to be positively related to educational attainment of the woman and a favorable attitude on the part of the spouse, but inversely related to a husband's earnings. In the case of the latter factor, white women whose husbands reported attitudes favorable to their wives working were employed an average six months more in 1966 than those whose husbands reported unfavorable attitudes. Overall, black women reported higher labor force participation rates than white women.

Employment Patterns - Employed women in the targeted age range were distributed among the major occupational groups in substantially the same proportions as the total labor force. Although black women were less than half as likely as white women to be employed in white-collar occupations (30 versus 63 percent) those who were employed in such occupations had higher educational attainments, than their white counterparts. However, the hourly rate of pay was lower for black than white women in every educational attainment category except those with 13 or more years of schooling.

Among never-married women with children, approximately 73 percent worked in occupations different from those in which they started their work careers. In general, more women who had never married had moved downward than had moved upward occupationally.

This pattern of downward mobility appears to be related to employment discontinuity and to inadequate education.

In addition to those already noted, there were several important differences between white and black women:

- Black women had been less mobile geographically than their white counterparts.
- Blacks were more likely than whites to have moved downward occupationally.
- Within all but the highest educational attainment category, black women started their careers in lower level occupations than those available to white women.

Child Care - Two-fifths of working mothers in the study with children under 18 found it necessary to make child care arrangements. The cost of this service to them varied widely by type of arrangement, the race of the mother, and the mother's hourly rate of pay. (See Table 11)

No fees were paid by over half of the women whose children were cared for in their own homes by relatives. With few exceptions, the higher the mother's hourly wage the more she paid for the care of her child. Consistent with this pattern, minority group mothers, whose wages are on the average lower than those of their white counterparts, paid less than whites for this service.

Of those in the labor force, the children of 36 percent of poor and 22 percent of non-poor black women were cared for in a relative's home.

**DAILY COST OF CHILD-CARE ARRANGEMENTS
USED BY EMPLOYED WOMEN RESPONDENTS^a (AGE 30-44)
WITH SUCH ARRANGEMENTS, BY RATE OF PAY ON CURRENT JOB AND RACE**

(Percentage distribution)

Daily cost of child-care arrangement	Total or average	Less than \$1.50	\$1.50 to \$1.99	\$2.00 to \$2.49	\$2.50 to \$2.99	\$3.00 or more
Total number (Thousands)	1,830	337	495	375	271	230
Median	\$2.45	\$.63	\$7.20	\$3.20	\$3.08	\$3.75
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
No cost	27	38	30	15	19	23
\$.01 to 1.99	15	38	16	12	9	5
2.00 to 3.99	35	22	39	38	40	25
4.00 or more	24	2	15	33	32	46
Whites						
Total number (Thousands)	1,487	199	430	325	254	203
Median ^b	\$2.76	\$1.83	\$2.24	\$3.11	\$3.11	\$4.00
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
No cost	26	38	29	17	19	20
\$.01 to 1.99	11	13	16	11	9	5
2.00 to 3.99	36	46	39	33	39	25
4.00 or more	28	3	16	38	33	49
Negroes and others						
Total number (Thousands)	343	138	65	50	17	27
Median ^b	\$1.05	\$.50	\$1.31	\$2.64	\$2.76	\$2.36
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
No cost	34	38	38	7	20	41
\$.01 to 1.99	30	48	18	20	7	4
2.00 to 3.99	30	12	38	71	60	27
4.00 or more	6	2	6	2	13	27

^aIncludes only wage and salary workers.

^bComputed from grouped data.

Source: Herbert Parnes, John R. Shea, Ruth Spitz, Dual Careers, Center for Human Resource Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, May, 1970.

Work Attitudes, Satisfaction, and Job Attachment - The working women in the targeted age group not only had positive attitudes toward work, but substantial majorities reported that they like their jobs very much.

Job satisfaction appeared to be related systematically to several other attitudinal variables. The data supported the hypothesis that married women with jobs which are convenient in terms of their location, their work schedule, or both, are particularly reluctant to leave them for others which might pay more but lack these special characteristics.

Other Studies on Dual Careers

Special studies, which have been conducted using the dual careers data base, are discussed below. These studies statistically examined questions on the job preferences of welfare mothers, sex typing in atypical occupations for women and the effects of the women's labor participation on the relative income of husbands and wives.

Barriers to Labor Force Entry

A study by John Shea¹/of labor force barriers to welfare mothers analyzed the reactions to a hypothetical job offer by

¹/ Welfare Mothers: Barriers to Labor Force Entry. John Shea, September, 1972.

those women who were out of the labor force in 1967. His analysis showed that the desired rate of pay and/or willingness to take a hypothetical job are systematically related to marital status, receipt of AFDC, poor health, family income less respondent's earnings, and attitudes toward the propriety of mothers working.

The findings indicated that:

- For black and white women the poor more frequently than the non-poor cited both location and hours as a factor in job acceptance.
- Over 66 percent of the poor who responded positively to the job offer and over 50 percent of the non-poor indicated they would have to make special arrangements for child care.
- Although an attitude in opposition to the idea of women of school-age children working was found to be a strong predictor among both black and white, there was no correlation between the willingness to work and the presence of one or more children under six.

Atypical Occupations

In 1968, Roderick and Davis studied a sample of young women aged 18-24, not enrolled in "regular school," who had acquired work experience.^{1/} The definition of "atypical occupations" was based on the occupational distribution of women in the labor force as shown in the 1960 census. At that time 50 percent of the women working were employed in occupations in which 70 percent or more of the incumbents were women. Examples of atypical occupations found in the sample were draftsmen, welders, and electric technicians.

^{1/} Roger Roderick and Davis, Correlates to Atypical Occupational Assignment, June, 1972.

The authors cited three dominant themes from the literature on occupation choice and aspiration:

- The effect of formative environmental influence on the occupational destiny of young women whereby atypical occupational assignment may be (a) the function of a background lacking in socialization in the traditional feminine role, and (b) socialization which includes but is not limited by that role.
- Failure to have internalized the norms of the traditional feminine role irrespective of formative influences.
- A situation in which a woman finds herself propelled into one occupation or another, primarily because of the exigencies of the circumstances affecting her at any given time rather than as the result of deliberate planning or choice.

In assessing these motivational factors, the authors observed:

Atypical occupations while shown here to bear some relation to formative influences and attitudinal stances, are at the same time shown not to be severely constrained by either; they are not restricted to persons within narrow ranges of family background or educational experiences or to persons with extreme deviant attitudinal stances. This suggests that the critical interdictory force inhibiting the entrance of women into certain occupations may be ideological support that develops for the definition of jobs appropriate for female occupancy, the auxiliary rather than the institutionalized traits of occupations.^{1/}

Cross Substitution

An analysis, conducted by Sookon Kim,^{2/} examined the cross substitution between incomes of spouses as one of the factors

1/ Roger Roderick and Davis, Correlates to Atypical Occupational Assignment, June, 1972, p. 30.

2/ Sookon Kim, Cross-Substitution Between Husband and Wife as One of the Factors Determining the Number of Hours of Labor Supplied by Married Women, June, 1972.

determining the number of hours of labor supplied by married women. He found that the supply of labor is positively related to a woman's hourly wage rate, her health, permissive attitude toward propriety of women working on the part of herself and her husband, and to the demand for female labor in the local labor market. The supply of labor was negatively related on the other hand, to the amount of income available to the family without her working, her home wage (a measure of child care burden), and to the husband's annual earning capacity relative to the wife's. The measure of the home-wage scale (the age of and number of children) was statistically significant for both whites and non-whites and the percent of variance in hours of labor supply explained by the home wage was larger than that explained by any other variable.^{1/}

The author concluded as a result of this analysis, that "it is not only the absolute level of the wife's market wages but also her earning capacity relative to her husband's earning capacity which determines the number of hours of labor she supplies to the market."^{2/}

^{1/} Sookon Kim, "Determinants of Labor Force Participation of Married Women (Ph.D., diss., University of Minnesota, 1971.

^{2/} Ibid.

PROGRAM OPTIONS

A second group of studies evaluated MDTA program features which affected subsequent employment of MDTA graduates. Generally, the information derived dealt with recruitment, selection and course assignment procedures, occupational biases of program offerings and importance of employer and trainee preferences.

Two of the MDTA evaluation studies provided some insights into the question of the relative effectiveness of employment versus job skills training. They are the MENTEC Corporation's Evaluation of the Relevance and Quality of Preparation for Employment in the MDTA Institutional Program and the Olympus Research Corporation's Evaluation of MDTA Institutional Individual Referral Program.

Findings include:

- Placement for both women and men graduates was highest in programs conducted by employers who could eventually hire them or who had expertise in the development of job skills
- Women trainees drawn from the ranks of those not previously in the labor market, generally tended not to enter the labor force
- Because of the importance of training-related placement as a success indicator, for the most part women have been trained in so-called "high demand occupations," such as health, clerical and service occupations. Many such jobs offer low pay and little or no career mobility opportunities.

- Female trainees were seriously hampered by the lack of counseling, supportive services (particularly child care) and flexible training schedules. For example, 96 percent of women enrolled in MDTA Institutional training in 1972 were enrolled in either professional, clerical, or service occupations.^{1/}
- While employers interviewed generally considered federal manpower programs wasteful or inefficient, they rated more than 70 percent of their employed men and women MDTA graduates as having average or above promotion potential, and were satisfied with their performance.

PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS MEASURES

The third group of studies are also MDTA program evaluations. (See Table 12.) These generated findings on the question of program effectiveness and the differences between male and female graduates. Three of the studies discussed the specific achievement experience of women. An Olympus Research Corporation study examined the performance of female trainees in health, clerical, sales and food services program offerings, while a survey on national attitudes conducted by the Institute for Social Research (ISR) drew inferences from the experiences of women trained as typists, stenographers and practical nurses. The study by Prescott and Cooley, analyzed MDTA Institutional program data and offered aggregate findings on male-female patterns of achievement, drawing inferences regarding sex differences and trends.

^{1/} HEW Secretary's Report, 1972, Appendix C, Table C-2.

TABLE 12

OVERVIEW OF MDTA EVALUATION STUDIES^a
ADDRESSING PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

<u>Title</u>	<u>Conducted By</u>	<u>Completed</u>	<u>Objectives</u>
National MDTA Program Data Analysis	Prescott and Cooley		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyze 1968 tapes with MDTA Institutional and OJT data Relate occupational training categories to completion rates, employment rates, training-related average ways and by sex
A National Attitude Study of Trainees in MDTA Institutional Programs	Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan	August, 1970	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct longitudinal study of 6,000 trainees from over 300 MDTA Institutional Classes = 1964-S Relate attitudes to success criteria, i.e., drop-out post-training wage rate, unemployment and job relevance
Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Institutional Manpower Training in Meeting Employee's Needs in Skills Shortage Occupation	Olympus Research Corporation	June, 1972	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify occupation where skills shortage exist Assess MDTA Institutional training effectiveness in meeting employer needs Identify factors inhibiting progress effectiveness of 19 Skill Centers in 16 states

^a The MDTA Outcomes Evaluation Study completed by Decision-Making Information in 1972 will not be reviewed in this volume because a detailed analysis is being presented under separate cover.

In discussing effectiveness indicators, principal achievement measures utilized in these studies included: attendance, completion and placement rates, job retention rates, post training wage rates, employment level and post training relevance. The following conclusions drawn from the ISR study summarize the impact of the program on reduction of sex discrimination in women's employment.

With respect to the issue of female disadvantage, the findings on sex differences present a paradoxical picture. On measures of commitment to the program, women clearly do better--they more often complete the program and they more often get training relevant jobs. However, in the economic payoff for this commitment, the women do less well. That they have more unemployment is partly attributable to their own decision to withdraw from the labor market. But their disadvantage in the wage rates they command is clear and unambiguous and seems to occur even in those classes that were attended by both men and women. In a sense, the paradox heightens the discriminatory position for women--they do less well in spite of their greater tendency to stay with the program and utilize the training it has provided.1/

Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Institutional Manpower Training in Meeting Employee's Needs in Skills Shortage Occupation

The top three ranking occupational areas in performance ratings were health occupations, LPN/RN, and clerical/sales. The ranking was based on completion and placement rates, as well as job retention rates determined from follow-up investigations made at three and six month intervals.

The LPN/RN group had the highest completion rate, but the lowest placement rate of all occupational groups. The rate of

those placed in training-related jobs however was high (70 percent). Three months after training, the employment status of LPN/RN enrollees was very much improved (69 percent employed), but the training-related figure decreased to 42 percent. Six months after training, the employment rate remained the same, but the training-related rate climbed to 87 percent.

Data concerning performance criteria indicated the following:

- The lowest absentee rate (13 percent) was observed in food services, which is a female-dominated offering.
- The overall completion rate for 18 of the 19 centers in the sample was found to be 61.8 percent. However, the 38.2 percent dropout rate included enrollees who achieve certain training objectives, as well as early completers who left to take a job. Pregnancy was the only reasons given for dropping out that could definitely be unique to women. However, only 1.5 percent of dropouts gave this reason.
- The overall placement rate for 13 selected centers in the sample was 71.5 percent. Health occupations, which have predominantly female enrollees, had the highest placement rate, 82.4 percent of which 98.6 percent were training-related.
- Employment Service follow-up information indicated that 60 percent of completers placed in jobs remained employed six months after graduation. The study pointed out that retention rates were lower in female-dominated fields, even though initial placement rates were higher.

National Attitude Study of Trainees in MDTA Institutional Programs
(Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan)

The study used four success criteria: (1) whether the trainee dropped out or remained in the program; (2) the post-

training wage rate; (3) training relevance of post-program jobs; and (4) the degree of unemployment in the post-program period.^{1/}

Wage Rate - The findings showed that training had more impact on post-program earnings of women than men. Female program graduates and those with training-related jobs were somewhat better paid than the dropouts and than those who were not placed in jobs for which they had been trained. This was particularly true of white women.

On the other hand, male trainees who completed the program did not have higher wages than those who dropped out. Men who obtained training-relevant jobs did not have higher wages than those whose jobs were not training-related.

The male-female difference was shown to be related to a difference between the level of skill represented in the training and the skills and experience the trainees brought to the program rather than any special characteristics of the training programs or instructors. Given their more extensive work background and experience, the male trainees in the semi-skilled classes had more options than the women and could earn as much by obtaining jobs that did not utilize their course training.

^{1/} Data used in this study was collected in the period preceding 1966, when priority was given to the recruitment of the disadvantaged as MDTA trainees.

Male and female trainees did not differ in the relationship between the wage rate of their first post-program job and whether they were referred to the job by one of the formal agencies responsible for job placement. In fact, most of the trainees obtained their first post-program jobs on their own and received wages just as high as those who were referred by the training class or the Employment Service.

Employment Level - The data suggests that the training program may have more impact on employment level than on wage rate. For both men and women, trainee satisfaction with the training showed little relationship to wages but a clear relationship to employment level.

Program Completion - Three types of dropouts were distinguished in order to delineate the significance of the occurrence: trainees who dropped out voluntarily to take a job; those who dropped out for other reasons; and those who were terminated by the project. The authors of the study questioned the significance of the dropout rate as a criterion of failure and success since neither completion nor termination represented alternatives with clearly different consequences. Completion was not clearly related to success in terms of greater payoffs.

Training Relevance of Post-Program Jobs - Attitudes toward work and commitment to training expressed by the trainee when

he entered and left the program were found to have a positive relationship to the securing of training-related jobs. Attitudes about the program itself were related only to employment level and only for the women trainees.^{1/}

The findings based on racial differences showed that when compared to the white trainees, black men and women had more unemployment in the post-program period; a larger proportion of black men were terminated by the program whereas more white men dropped out by their own choice; and when compared with the white women trainees, black women had lower wage rates and less often obtained jobs that utilized their training.

In terms of sex difference, the findings suggested that male trainees dropped out more often, were less satisfied with their program experience and less often that it had had an important impact on them. Men had more job alternatives available to them and were therefore less dependent on the training.

Analysis of MDTA Institutional and OJT Data Tapes

An analysis of the MDTA Institutional and On-the-Job Training 1568 data tapes by Prescott^{2/} related the occupational training category to completion rate, employment rate, training-related

^{1/} Most of the women in the survey were trained as typists, stenographers and practical nurses.

^{2/} Edward C. Prescott, Analysis of MDTA Institutional and OJT Data Tapes for 1968.

employment, average wage, and average wage change by sex. His findings for female enrollees of the institutional program follow.

Generally, females in structural and metal fabrication professional occupations had the highest estimated completion rate, average wage, employment rate, and labor force participation rate. Women professionals ran a close second, yet surprisingly only four-fifths (79 percent) worked full time. (See Table 13)

Of those reporting, females had a slightly higher completion rate than males and had a higher employment rate in training-related jobs. However, they did not have higher average wages: \$2.75 per hour for males compared with \$2.23 for females. Table 17 shows average hourly post-training earnings by sex and type of training program. In all cases, males earned more than females. The post training earnings for female graduates of Institutional programs were higher than those for females in the other programs shown. This was not the case for the employed males trained in MDTA Institutional programs.

TABLE 13
EFFECTIVENESS INDICATORS BY OCCUPATIONS
FOR FEMALES IN INSTITUTIONAL PROGRAM

Occupational Category	Est. Completion Rate	For Completers		For Employed Completers					
		Em- ployed	Labor Force Partic. Rate	Unem- ployed	Training Related	Working Full Time	Average Wage	& Wage above Poverty	Average Wage Change
Professional & Technical	84	74	88	16	98	79	\$2.47	82	.74
Clerical	75	67	92	27	86	93	1.83	40	.42
Service	80	67	91	26	88	91	1.57	14	.20
Forestry & Farming	*								
Machine-Metal	70	64	95	33	80	97	2.23	83	.81
Machine-Mechanical	*								
Machine-Other	77	70	100	30	92	94	1.62	4	.28
Benchwork	78	64	92	30	78	95	1.74	18	.40
Structural-Other	*								
Structural-Metal Fab.	87	79	98	19	92	99	2.64	95	.72
Miscellaneous & Multi Skills	83	51	87	41	80	90	1.72	31	.45
All Occupations	80	67	90	25	: 90	88	1.97	46	.56

Source: Edward C. Prescott, Analysis of MDVA Institutional and OJT Data Tapes for 1968, Table X.

TABLE 14

AVERAGE POST TRAINING HOURLY EARNINGS

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>MDTA Institutional</u>	<u>On-the-Job</u>	<u>CEP</u>	<u>WIN</u>
All Trainees	\$2.49	\$3.16	\$2.24	\$2.46
Sex:				
Men	2.75	3.44	2.38	2.92
Women	2.23	2.12	2.03	2.11
Race or ethnic group:				
White	2.55	3.27	2.14	2.59
Black	2.32	2.71	2.28	2.26
Spanish-speaking	2.25	2.96	2.23	2.48

Source: Manpower Report of the President, DOL, 1973, p. 56

The post training earnings for female graduates of Institutional programs were higher than those for females in the other programs shown. This was not the case for the employed males trained in MDTA Institutional programs.

Males, both black and white, posted higher average pre-training and post-training wages than females. Black males appeared to make the greatest average pre-post training hourly earnings gain: \$.37; followed by white females, \$.36; white males, \$.31; with black females having the lowest increase, \$.28. Of particular

interest is the fact that after completing training, women earned less on the average (\$2.15) than males earned prior to training (\$2.28). Refer to Table 15.

TABLE 15

MEDIAN HOURLY WAGE RATE OF EMPLOYED GRADUATES
MDTA INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS BY SEX,
FISCAL YEAR 1972
TOTAL N=17,664

Total Male 9,060

Total Female 8,590

<u>Race and Sex</u>	<u>Median Wage Rate</u>	
	<u>Pre-Training</u>	<u>Post-Training</u>
Male	\$2.28	\$2.62
White	2.35	2.66
Black	2.16	2.53
Other	2.28	2.63
Female	1.81	2.15
White	1.80	2.16
Black	1.82	2.10
Other	1.88	2.21

Source: HEW Secretary's Report, 1973, Appendix C, Table D-3.

Other Relevant Analyses

According to a Washington Post article,^{1/} attempts to evaluate the impact of MDTA Institutional training on changes in post-

1/ Washington Post, April 10, 1973, pp. A-1 and A-10.

training earnings using Social Security data have produced differing results. The article cites one such study which matched the earnings of more than 60,000 trainees from 1968 against a weighted control group of 76,000. "The average earnings increased for everyone but men and women who received no help."

A study conducted by Prescott and Cooley at the University of Pennsylvania compared 1968 enrollees to a different group-- those who were eligible for MDTA training but withdrew at the last minute.^{1/} According to this investigation, those who completed training in both Institutional and OJT programs increased their 1969 earnings more than did non-trainees, an average of \$500 to \$800. The difference between the trainees and the non-trainees lessened when comparing 1970 earnings.

Prescott and Cooley also showed that OJT training had greater impact on earnings than did Institutional training. For Institutional enrollees, the estimated impact of MDTA training on 1969 earnings was less for women than for men: \$576 contrasted with \$652. The estimated impact of training on 1970 earnings was smaller than on 1969 earnings, suggesting the possibility that the impact of training declines over time or that there was a change in labor market conditions for men. The change in earnings impact between 1969 and 1970 was less for women than for males: \$564 versus \$488.

^{1/} Edward Prescott and Thomas Cooley, Evaluating the Impact of MDTA of Pennsylvania, Final Report, December, 1972.

The impact of marital status on earnings difference for female trainees in 1969 was \$414 for heads of households, \$593 for singles, and \$719 for married females. Yet in 1970, the impact on earnings for females showed heads of households increasing their earnings difference, while the difference in married and single female earnings diminished.

CONCLUSION

None of the studies mentioned in this chapter had as their primary purpose an assessment of the status of women. The present study, "The Evaluation of the Availability and Effectiveness of MDTA Institutional Training," of which this literature review is a part, has as its focus the development of a synthesis of current information concerning women which will be useful to MDTA planners and administrators.

CHAPTER IV

INTERVIEWS WITH FEDERAL OFFICIALS

INTRODUCTION

The first goal of the interviews was to update and extend the information available to the study team by identifying studies, directives, memoranda, reports and other data which had not surfaced during the literature search. The second goal of the interview process was to obtain information and data relevant to the development of the field study research design.

SELECTION OF INTERVIEWEES

Thirty persons were interviewed by the study team. Although no effort was made to construct a scientific sample, representation was obtained from all offices playing a role in regard to MDTA programming in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and in the Department of Labor.

In addition, an attempt was made to interview persons within the Office of Education, Office of Employment Development and the United States Employment Service who had substantial decision-making authority concerning the MDTA Institutional program.^{1/}

^{1/} This group has been identified as the MDTA Institutional Decision-Makers (MID) group throughout the balance of this Chapter.

The study team selected persons who could provide insight and information concerning the status of women in federally-funded programs.

ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW RESULTS

The survey explored several topics and issues of relevance to the overall study. These included a discussion of the needs of women; data concerning women in MDTA Institutional programs; current and future occupational offerings available to women; outcomes or indicators of program success; factors both internal and external to the MDTA system which may affect outcomes; the role of government; the impact of the proposed decategorization of MDTA programs; the role of women in MDTA decision-making; and the MDTA evaluation contract itself.

Highlights of Survey Findings

Highlights of survey findings and a discussion of potentially significant results are presented in this section.

Women's Needs

An overwhelming number of persons felt needs of women should be spotlighted in federal programs. The following reasons were given as rationale for this:

- Present patterns of inequity, sex discrimination and stereotyping

- Current neglect of women as a group
- Unique needs and problems of women
- Large representation of women among the target groups of federal programs
- The responsibility of the Federal Government as a leader and pace-setter
- Possible differing outcomes of programs for men and women

In discussing whether or not women should be treated as a group with special needs, several interviewees responding affirmatively expressed concern over the potential misuse of the "special needs" label. Yet this group was prepared to incur the "risk" in order to meet those needs they perceived to be unique to women. Persons replying in the negative, on the other hand, expressed the opinion that the needs of individual trainees should be dealt with on an individual basis. They either rejected the notion that solutions should be designed to address the collective problems of women, or they denied the assumption that women in fact constituted a group. Interestingly, all persons maintaining this position were employees of the Department of Labor. Of considerable importance, moreover, is the fact that MDTA Institutional Decision-Makers were at variance with the total sample, as shown in Table 19.

The following needs of women were most often mentioned by respondents:

- Day care/child care for younger and older children (including provisions for pregnancy)

- Special counseling, orientation and/or training during and following formal training period
- More support services in general
- Elimination of sex discrimination by employers
- Flexibility of working hours
- Transportation
- Safety
- Increased representation on decision-making bodies and staff

Occupational Offerings

In addressing the concentration of MDTA women trainees in certain occupational categories, explanations for patterns of concentration are listed as follows:

- These are traditional female occupations, a reflection of the stereotyping of the female's role.
- Jobs are there; there is high turnover and demand.
- These categories lead to easy placements, requiring little effort of the MDTA system.
- Enrollees are steered to these training slots by recruiters and counselors.
- Women themselves want these placements.
- Women don't know of other opportunities available.

Outcomes

The assessment of MDTA program outcomes for women is an issue of central importance to the overall study. This issue was

addressed to ascertain from respondents which outcomes they considered most significant in determining the success of training programs.

Although the sample is quite small, an effort was made to further analyze responses by agency, sex and decision-making responsibility for MDTA Institutional programs. Responses to Question 6 by sub-groups are presented in Tables 1-4 in Appendix A.

Of interest is the emphasis placed upon the contribution of MDTA to an improvement of the "quality of life" of the individual trainee and her family, as measured by the changes observed (e.g., family stability) at the end of training in contrast with the baseline situation. Sixty percent (60%) of the respondents who mentioned such outcomes were OE personnel.

Factors Affecting Program Outcomes

Two questions dealt with factors, within the MDTA system and external to it, which can influence program outcomes for trainees. Answers concerning internal impediments fell into several major categories as follows:

- Legislation, guidelines and/or regulations, e.g., they prohibit provision of needed supportive services with MDTA funds and restrict training to preparation for available jobs in a given locality.
- Funding, e.g., too limited, one year at a time.

- Training programs, e.g., range of training opportunities is too narrow, not enough flexibility in scheduling and structuring.
- Job placement, e.g., inadequate placement effort, reliance on job order system.
- Outcomes, e.g., lack of significant outcome measures including those important to trainees.
- Administration and staffing, e.g., rigidity of state agencies, lack of female representation in management.

Significant external factors were:

- Labor market conditions
- Society's attitudes (sexism)
- Licensing, certification and regulatory practices
- Union practices
- Status and reputation of MDTA as a federal program
- Attitudes in business and industry
- Racism
- Politics
- Lack of planning for women in the CAMPS system

An analysis of responses regarding relevant factors external to the MDTA system provides a clear example of the differing perspectives of MDTA-related federal agencies. It is interesting to note that not one of the MID officials interviewed in the OE cited the economy as a significant external factor affecting program outcomes; on the other hand, four out of five of the DOL members of this group felt that this was a significant if not "overriding consideration."

The Role of Government

The government's role regarding the status of women in MDTA Institutional and other programs was addressed. A continuum of responses was generated as interviewees defined roles for government ranging from the establishment of quotas to inaction. The following answers were most frequently cited by interviewees:

- Enforce existing anti-discrimination laws (e.g., Revised OFCC Order #4, Educational Amendments of 1972)
- Improved MDTA Institutional programs (e.g., broader training opportunities, review testing procedures, make programs more relevant to women).
- Advocate for women, intervene as third party.
- Use funding leverage with state and local government, business, contractors, etc.
- Provide opportunities for women, eliminate existing barriers.
- Build models, support pilot projects and provide technical assistance.
- Promote the issue, provide publicity, disseminate information about the working woman and her role in society.

More specific suggestions were obtained in follow-up questions. These recommendations are attached to this report as Appendix B.

The MDTA Institutional Evaluation Contract

This survey sought to ascertain the opinions and suggestions of interviewees concerning both the study and issues relevant to it.

Key recommendations included the following:

- The study should catalyze action and should recommend constructive ways of resolving problems identified.
- The parameters of the study should be expanded to include a consideration of women in other manpower programs (e.g., OJT, WIN). This is particularly true in view of the proposed decentralization of MDTA Institutional programs.
- The questionnaire should be reworded for improved comprehension and interpretation of survey results

The Future of MDTA Institutional Programs

Anticipated changes in the role and function of the Federal Government as the result of the proposed decentralization of federal programs were discussed. Responsibilities of the Federal Government for MDTA programming under these new organizational arrangements were seen by respondents as the following:

- Establish national priorities.
- Monitor in terms of the overall performance of prime sponsors, primarily with regard to performance standards concerning financial accountability and reporting requirements.
- Develop models for potential use by prime sponsors.
- Provide technical assistance.

Regarding women, there appeared to have been little discussion to date concerning the government's role as enforcer of anti-discrimination directives and laws, once decentralization has been achieved. Nor was there great optimism that, given the

shifts in authority and responsibility to regional and local decision-makers, laws and guidelines concerning women and other targeted groups would be vigorously enforced.

SIGNIFICANT TRENDS AND FINDINGS FOR GROUPS OF INTERVIEWEES

The responses of three groups of MDTA interviewee were identified for closer analysis.

Institutional Decision-Makers

Although the responses did not always lend themselves to further partition, some differences in emphasis could be discerned between the MID group and the interviewees as a whole. For example, 70 percent of the former responded in the negative when queried concerning women as a group with special needs, while the majority of the total group were in agreement that MDTA Institutional and other manpower programs should treat women as a group with special needs.

Office of Education vs. Department of Labor

In view of their respective departmental purposes and mandates, it might be expected that there would be contrasts in the perspectives of DOL and OE personnel. For example, DOL personnel gave higher priority to annual income and labor force participation

than did OE respondents. The latter, on the other hand, tended to emphasize employment stability and potential for upward mobility as being more important.

Males vs. Females

Despite expectations, no major differences could be determined between the responses of males and females interviewed except in regard to the assessment of outcomes. Men tended to give greater priority to hourly wage and placement in a training-related job, while women assigned employment stability slightly greater importance in comparison.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR
FEDERAL INTERVIEWS

INTERVIEWER: _____

DATE: _____

INTERVIEWEE: _____

POSITION: _____

AGENCY: _____

ADDRESS: _____

PHONE: _____

YEARS OF SERVICE IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: _____

YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION: _____

QUESTIONS FOR ALL INTERVIEWEES

1. Some people feel that the needs of women in federal programs should be spotlighted.

Do you agree? Yes _____ No _____

Why? _____

2. Should MDTA institutional and other manpower programs treat women as a group with special needs?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If yes, what are those needs? _____

b. How can these needs you have identified be met? _____

c. If no, why not? _____

3. What kind of data on women in MDTA programs is available for your use? _____

a. How do you use these data? _____

b. What other data on women in MDTA programs would you find useful? _____

Why? _____

c. What changes would you like to see in the data collection and reporting system in order to get the data you need?

4. Available reports show that 70% of all women in MDTA institutional programs are placed in clerical and health-related components.

a. In your opinion, why is this the case? _____

b. Do you perceive this concentration of women in a few occupational categories as a problem?

Yes _____ No _____

c. If yes, what can be done about it? _____

d. If no, why not? _____

5. Do you feel that MDTA institutional and other training programs should be expanded to include new occupational categories which hold particular promise for women?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If yes, what are they? _____

b. If no, why not? _____

6. Which of the following outcomes are most significant in determining the success of training programs for individual women trainees?

- _____ Hourly wage
- _____ Annual income
- _____ Employment stability
- _____ Potential for upward mobility
- _____ Labor force participation or employment rate
- _____ Job satisfaction
- _____ Placement in training-related job

a. Are there others not listed above? _____

b. If so, describe and define. _____

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

c. Would you rank these outcomes in order of priority?

d. Do you have any comments regarding the ranking?

7. Are there any impediments within the MDTA system which influence the outcomes specified in No. 6 (e.g., enrollee selection and placement procedures, relevance and quality of training, quality of placement effort, quality of labor market data, quality of facilities and equipment, availability and quality of supportive services)?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If yes, what are they? _____

b. What is being done about them? Are there other things you think should be done?

8. Are there any factors external to the MDTA system which can influence the outcomes identified in (#7) (e. g., nature of job market, licensing requirements, sex discrimination, civil service regulations, union practices, racism)?

Yes _____ No _____

a. What are they? _____

b. What is being done about them? Are there other things that should be done about them?

9. What should be the role of government in ensuring equitable outcomes for women in MDTA institutional and other programs?

a. Have federal efforts in this area to date been adequate and effective?

Yes _____ No _____

b. If no, why not? _____

10. Have women been involved in policy-making for MDTA institutional programs at the national level?

Yes _____ No _____

Please describe. _____

11. Are you familiar with policy directives, research studies, reports, memoranda, etc. which address the status of women in national manpower and related programs?

Yes _____

No _____

a. If yes, please describe. _____

b. Can we gain access to this information?

Yes _____

No _____

c. Of this information, what has been generated by your office? _____

d. How are these materials disseminated to other offices concerned with MDTA programs? _____

12. Are there any current government-funded programs that have been particularly effective in providing training for women?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If yes, what are they? _____

b. Where can the study team find out more about them? _____

FOLLOW UP QUESTIONS FOR SPECIFIC GROUPS

Office of Employment Development Programs/DMDT

1. What changes in the role and functions of the national office can be anticipated in the near future as the result of the anticipated decentralization and decategorization of federal programs?

Re MDTA programming? _____

Re guidelines on sex discrimination? _____

2. According to our information, MDTA institutional guidelines were written in 1966 and reprinted in 1968. Have any additional guidelines been published since?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If yes, what are they? _____

b. If no, why not? _____

Employment Service

1. Would women accept placements in training programs for traditionally "male" occupations if they were available?

Yes _____ No _____

If not, why not? _____

2. Should women be referred to MDTA institutional training components usually filled by men?

Yes _____

No _____

Why? _____

3. Some people are of the opinion that employer attitudes are primarily responsible for outcome inequities noted for women in DOL sponsored studies. Do you agree?

Yes _____

No _____

a. If yes, what can be done by government to affect employer attitudes? _____

b. If no, why not? _____

Jaffee (or other Health Expert)

In a final report to the Manpower Administration entitled Occupational Licensing and Public Policy (Education Testing Service, October 1973, authored by Benjamin Shimberg, Barbara Esser and Daniel Krueger), reference was made to an exemplary HEW study on licensing. Can you refer the team to someone who might be knowledgeable about the latter study?

Yes _____

No _____

Office of Financial and Management Information Systems and Related Offices

1. How do data re MDTA institutional programs collected at national, regional, state and local levels differ? _____

Are these differences based upon differing purposes and uses for the data at each level? _____

2. Who decides what computer runs are made and for what reasons?

3. What measures are available, if any, to show the impact of MDTA institutional programs on enrollees by the occupational type of training and the length of training?

11

4. How do you explain the limited data available for MDTA institutional enrollees as reflected in the decreasing rate of return of forms (MA) 101, 102, 103, and 104? How does this phenomenon affect program analysis? _____

5. In an April 1971 report which analyzes data from 1968 MDTA Institutional and OJT data tapes, the following statement can be found: "We doubt whether the non-response bias is a serious problem for the institutional program." As a person familiar with the requirements of program analysis, would you agree with that statement?

Yes _____ No _____

Why? _____

6. In the same study, there are some tables which present effectiveness indicators by sex and length of training, which are of particular interest to the study team. How were these tables constructed?

If as the result of a special run, why isn't this type of analysis used more widely? _____

If not a special run, where are the source data for these tables?

Can the study team have access to them? _____

7. The following questions relate to specific DOL data tables as indicated for Enrollees in FY 1972, MDTA Institutional Data:

a. In Table 40 (Enrollee Characteristics), barriers to employment are given. 95% of enrollees cited reasons which fell in the category of lack of training, education and experience. In view of these disproportionate returns, why is this question asked? _____

What information is desired and for what purpose? _____

b. Table 20 gives reasons for non-completion, but no occupational breakdown for type of training is provided. Why aren't data related to the type of occupational training received? _____

- c. **Table 90 reports outcomes for terminated trainees. Again, there is no relation cited by type of occupational training. Why not?** _____

- d. **Table 5 is a table which shows by three digit DOT code number pre-training characteristics of enrollees by the type of occupational training by sex and social characteristics. For 28,373 out of a total of 132,736 enrollees reporting, no job titles are know. Why is this the case for over 21% of all trainees?** _____

- e. **For Table 6, showing trainees enrolled by race or ethnic group and training occupation based on a one digit code, there is no coding available for 40,200 enrollees. Why?**

- f. Table 5 gives percentage calculations per occupational group for total enrollees. Raw figures are given by sex. Why are the figures by sex not calculated in percentages?

- g. Table 33 records straight time average hourly earnings of employed trainees by major industry-occupation group and post-training earnings. Data are available by race, sex, head of household and disadvantaged status, but not type of training occupation. Why not? _____

- h. Table 70 (completers vs. non-completers) similarly show no categorization by type of training. Why not?

8. If DOT code numbers were more faithfully recorded, training outcomes could be assessed in terms of pre- and post-training job status by occupational group (i. e., shifts from one occupational category to another could indicate upward mobility). Would this be a meaningful index of the MDTA institutional program's impact?

Yes _____

No _____

TABLE 1

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF FEMALE POPULATION^a IN THE LABOR FORCE, BY MARITAL STATUS, SELECTED MONTHS, 1950-72
(Numbers in Thousands)

Date	Single		Married, Spouse Present		Widowed, Divorced, Separated	
	Number	Percentage of Population	Number	Percentage of Population	Number	Percentage of Population
March, 1950	5,621	50.5	8,550	23.8	3,624	37.8
March, 1960	5,401	44.1	12,253	30.5	4,861	40.0
March, 1970	6,965	53.0	18,377	40.8	5,891	39.1
March, 1972	7,477	54.9	19,249	41.5	6,213	40.1

^aCivilian population (including institutional) 14 years and over, March 1950 - March 1960; March 1970 and 1972, 16 and over; beginning 1972 to relate to civilian non-institutional population.

Source: Manpower Report of the President, USDOL, March, 1973, p. 164-165.

TABLE 2

**LABOR FORCE STATUS AND LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES^a
OF MARRIED WOMEN, HUSBAND PRESENT, BY PRESENCE AND AGE OF CHILDREN,
SELECTED MONTHS, 1950-72**

(Numbers in Thousands)

	Total	Percent Rate	No Children under 18 years old	Percent Rate	Children 6 to 17 years Only	Percent Rate	Children under 6 years	Percent Rate
March 1950	8,550	23.8	4,946	30.3	2,205	28.3	1,399	11.9
March 1960	12,253	30.5	5,692	34.7	4,087	39.0	2,474	18.6
March 1970	18,377	40.8	8,174	42.2	6,289	49.2	3,914	30.3
March 1972	19,249	41.5	8,797	42.7	6,706	50.2	3,746	30.1

^aOf civilian noninstitutional population in the labor force.

Source: Manpower Report of the President, USDOL, March 1972, p. 168

Additional manpower programs were designed during the decade as outlined in Table 3. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and subsequent amendments gave birth to the Neighborhood Youth Corps, New Careers (later subsumed under Public Service Careers), Operation Mainstream, the Job Corps, and the Special Impact Program. The Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) was developed in 1967 as a means to coordinate manpower services within a defined geographic area. J.O.B.S. began in 1968 in an attempt to involve private industry actively in federally subsidized on-the-job training in conjunction with supportive services. The JOBS-Optional program began in 1971 to focus on on-the-job training in private industry with minimal provision of supportive services. The Work Incentive program (WIN) was created by an amendment to the Social Security Act in 1967 to provide a job training program specifically for welfare recipients. And finally, the Emergency Employment Act of 1971 created the Public Employment Program (PEP), a program to subsidize public service jobs.

As the MDTA program has evolved during the eleven years since enactment of the legislation, certain groups have been singled out for focus: youth, older workers, inmates, veterans, the disadvantaged and heads of households. Although they can be found in all of these categories, women to date have not been specifically targeted by MDTA.

The Work Incentive program, on the other hand, was created as a reaction to Congressional concern over the growing welfare rolls and the need to train AFDC (Aid For Dependent Children) recipients for employment. The Talmadge amendment required all welfare recipients capable of working to register for work or job training or lose their welfare subsistence.^{1/} Although the first priority of the WIN Program is AFDC fathers, the majority of its enrollees are AFDC mothers. Therefore, "women's problems" in terms of employment, child care, and job training have been a major concern in the development and implementation of the WIN program. This has not occurred in the MDTA Institutional program because of its different legislative history.

^{1/} Those exempted from this requirement include: young people under 16 years of age and full-time students in school or vocational training; ill or aged persons; those living beyond reasonable commuting distance from a WIN project; mothers of children under 6 (though they may volunteer); persons who must care for ill or incapacitated members of the household; and the mother or other female caretaker of a child if the father or another male relative is in the home and has registered. Manpower Report of the President, 1973, p. 37.

TABLE 3

FEDERAL MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Program	Legislation	Source of Funds	Date
MDTA Institutional Training	Manpower Development & Training Act, Title 11B	DOL; HEW; Two Years Authorization	1962
WIN	SSA Title 11C	Job Training; DOL Support Services; HEW - One Year	1964
CEP	EOA Title 1B, Sec. 123, MDTA Title 11	DOL; One Year Money DOL (MDTA Funds) Two Years	1967
J.O.B.S.	EOA, Title 1B, MDTA Title 11, Sec. 204, 301	DOL; Two Year	1968
Operation Mainstream	EOA, Titles 1B, 1F, MDTA Sec. 123a, 162a	Title 1B: DOL-One Year Money-Title 13: DOL Six Months	1966
Job Corps	EOA Title 1A	DOL; One Year	1964
Neighborhood Youth Corps	EOA Title 1B, Sec. 123a	DOL; One Year	1964
Public Service Careers	EOA Title 1B MDTA Title 1E	DOL and HEW (MDTA) Two Year Money, DOL (EOA); One Year	1966
Emergency Employment	Emergency Employment Act, 1971	DOL	1971
Journeyman Training	MDTA	DOL	1962
Apprenticeship Outreach	MDTA	DOL	1962
National O.J.T.	MDTA, Sec. 204a	DOL	1962
Jobs Optional	MDTA, Title 11A	DOL	1971

APPENDIX B

**RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADDRESS MDTA
INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL PROBLEM AREAS**

**RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADDRESS MDTA
INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL PROBLEM AREAS**

Internal Impediments

In responding to follow-up questions concerning impediments within the MDTA system, most respondents described actions which had been or should be undertaken by the federal government. Accordingly, the listing below identifies both the impediment and the full range of responses suggested to address it. Because of the wide variety of replies, no attempt was made to rank order these responses:

<u>Impediment</u>	<u>Proposed Action</u>
<p>Legislation, guidelines and/or regulations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Propose legislative amendments concerning available job requirements, restrictions on provision of supportive services, the mandate re: training for entry level employment and/or seek changes in administrative guidelines (e.g., regarding reasonable expectations of employment) ● Request authority to offer services to trainees on a long-term basis, e.g., offer upgrading and refresher training ● Encourage and respond to pressure from private women's organizations ● Make placement of female heads of households a priority
<p>Funding</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Seek long-term funding on other than project-by-project basis ● Increase funding levels for operations and E&D efforts

Training programs

- Develop individualized occupational plans for trainees, diagnosing current needs and projecting needs over time
- Develop a more formalized yet flexible approach to the counseling of women trainees
- Expand and improve upon the cluster approach of the Skill Centers, to facilitate vertical and horizontal mobility for trainees
- Expand the use of job analysis techniques in developing training options
- Structure a more gradual transition from training to work, with less emphasis upon training in institutional settings
- Make greater use of IR's and private trade schools
- Revise tests with anti-female biases (e.g., GATBE) used to screen MDTA trainees
- Establish relationships and linkages with community colleges

Job placement

- Provide federal support for innovative programs encouraging industry to hire women (e.g., JOBS)
- Subcontract with private women's organizations and groups to develop individualized approaches to the counseling and placement of women
- Provide information and technical assistance to employers
- Support experimentation with entire training systems, not just with components

Job placement (continued)

- Hire a contractor to structure a series of seminars and conferences to sensitize MDTA personnel to women and minority issues
- Develop uniform criteria for assessing staff performance
- Conceal the sex of applicants for administrative positions in the MDTA system
- Develop either process or guideline oriented controls, or police federal grants to states to see that antidiscrimination laws are enforced

External Factors

Most action steps proposed to address the external factors identified as significant influences upon program outcomes fell within the province of the federal government. The full range of relevant responses is identified below in relation to the primary external factors named.

<u>External Factors</u>	<u>Proposed Action</u>
Labor market conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Improve information and forecasting system by decreasing reliance upon trend and historical analysis and making long-range projections at local levels with employer participation ● Create jobs, e.g., provide support for public employment on a permanent basis ● Support passage of pending legislation regarding relocation assistance

**Labor market conditions
(continued)**

- Anticipate training needs (e.g., through coordination between DOL and DOD regarding anticipated defense installation shutdowns)
- Link manpower with educational legislation requirements, so that trainees can be exposed to wide career options
- Offer inducements to firms to remain in cities so that potential jobs are not lost

Society's attitudes (sexism)

- Enforce existing laws
- Conduct public information campaigns (e.g., "Hire the Vet")
- Support enactment of pending Constitutional Equal Rights Amendments
- Solicit advice and counsel of women's rights organizations

**Licensing, certification
and regulatory practices**

- Work with states through E&D efforts underway
- Encourage women to bring more cases to civil service appeal

Union practices

- Attach strings to federal funds
- Develop a grants and contracting program in Women's Bureau

**Status and reputation of
MDTA as a federal program**

- Develop system to inform potential trainees or range of options available and advantages and disadvantages of MDTA Institutional and other programs
- Find out what stigmas, if any, are attached to MDTA Institutional programs among public at large

**Status and reputation of
MDTA as a federal program
(continued)**

- Encourage closer communication between MDTA programs and surrounding community (e.g., Skill Centers)

**Attitudes of business and
industry**

- Encourage industry through incentives, JOBS-like programs, etc. to make innovations re: hiring and promotion of women
- Sponsor a series of seminars which focus on industry's role in retooling for the greater involvement of women
- Develop explicit counter-policies to deal with the problems caused by past discrimination
- Attach strings to federal funds
- Promote institutional training rather than OJT since employer acceptance of female enrollees in the former program is higher
- Encourage business and industry to recruit from WIN and other MDTA programs

Racism

- Continue and expand the involvement of EEO officers in the program
- Ethnic and racial makeup of the staff should compare proportionately with that of clientele
- View placement as a means of assuring occupational parity among racial/ethnic groups

**Lack of planning for women
in the CAMPS system**

- Work with prime sponsors to ensure the presentation of women in the CAMPS system

APPENDIX C

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

CODE :

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS

**Reports, Issuances
Outside Evaluations for Government
Research for Government**

JOURNALS, PERIODICALS

BOOKS

SPEECHES

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS

Reports, Issuances

Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Volume II. Occupational Classification and Industry Index, Third Edition, USDOL/MA/BES, USGPO, D. C.

Manpower Report of the President, Including a Report on the Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization and Training by the USDOL, USGPO, 1973, 1972, 1971, 1970.

1969 Handbook on Women Workers. Women's Bureau, Bulletin 294, ELSA, USDOL, GPO, 1969.

Economic Report of the President. Transmitted to the Congress, January 1973 together with the Annual Report of the Council of Economic Advisors, USGPO, 1973.

Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers in the United States. Seth Low and Pearl G. Spindler, USDHEW and USDOL Children's Bureau publication number 461-1968 (reprinted 1969), USGPO, Annual reports of the Secretary of HEW to Congress on the MDTA.

Education and Training. Annual reports of the Secretary of HEW to Congress on the MDTA. USDHEW, USGPO, 1966, 1969, 1971, 1972, 1973.

"Money Income in 1971 of Families and Persons in the United States Consumer Income," Current Population Reports, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 85, December 1972.

"Characteristics of the Low-Income Population," Current Population Reports, Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 86. December 1972.

"Population Characteristics," Current Population Reports, Bureau of the Census, Series P-20, No. 243, November 1972.

USDOL, WLSA, WB, August 1969. Facts About Women's Absenteeism and Labor Turnover.

The Report of the President's Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities - A Matter of Simple Justice. April 1970.

A Look at Women in Education: Issues and Answers for HEW, Report of the Commissioner's Task Force on the Impact of OE's Programs on Women. USDHEW/OE, November 1972.

Continued - Reports, Issuances

Catalog of Manpower Research and Development Projects.
U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1972.

SRS Research 1971, An Annotated List of SRS Research and Demonstration Grants, 1955-1971, USDHEW/Social and Rehabilitation Service.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, MDTA Handbook, Chapter III, "Training Project Development," December 1968.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Guidelines on Developing Skill Centers, (DOL-DHEW) 1970.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Manpower Administration Regional Operational Planning and Control Systems for FY 1973. Chapter II, "MTS/WIN/PEP Production Schedules."

U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, Volume 19, No. 7, January 1973 (1972 annual averages), Joseph M. Finerty, editor.

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Service, Training and Employment Service Program Letters (Dealing with Sex Discrimination sent to State Employment Security Agencies - \$2038, 2763, 2764, 2750).

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Service, General Administration Letters No. 1054, 1465, 1466.

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Service, Reports and Analysis Letter No. 716. February 1971 and June 1972.

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment Service, Unemployment Insurance Program Letter No. 1097. December 31, 1970.

U.S. Census of Population 1970. "General Social and Economic Characteristics - United States Summary PC(1) c-1 Summary," June 1972.

Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. As amended (P.L. 87-415, March 15, 1962, 76 Stat. 23 as amended through October 1968).

Manpower Evaluation Report. Number 3, July 1964, USDOL/MA, "Occupational Training of Women Under the Manpower Development and Training Act, 1964.

Continued - Reports, Issuances

Educational Testing Service, October 1972, Occupational Licensing and Public Policy. Final Report to Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Benjamin Shimberg, Barbara F. Esser, Daniel H. Kruger.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS

Outside Evaluations for Government

Office of Economic Opportunity, Office of Planning, Research, and Evaluation. Characteristics of Urban Enrollees Entering the Job Corps. (1 of 4 longitudinal manpower evaluation studies - MDTA Institutional Study to be completed later).

Federally Sponsored MDTA Evaluations.

Olympus Research Corporation:

- 1) Evaluation of MDTA Skills Centers, Final Report, February 1971, for BAUTE, OE/HEW.
- 2) Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Institutional Manpower Training in Meeting Employers' Needs in Skill Shortage Occupations. Final Report, June 1972, for OPER/MA/DOL.
- 3) Evaluation of MDTA Institutional Individual Referral Program. Final Report, June 1972, for DOL/MA.
- 4) Overview of the Seven Evaluations. December 1972.

MENTEC

Evaluation of the Relevance and Quality of Preparation for Employment Under the MDTA Institutional Training Program. Final Report, May 1971 for BAUTE, OE/HEW.

DMI

MDTA Outcomes Study. Final Report, April 1972 for OPER/MA/DOL.

NARISCO

Systems Analysis of the MDTA Institutional Training Program MDTA Basic Education Study. Final Report, March 1973 for Office of Education/HEW.

Continued - Outside Evaluations for Government

Federally Sponsored MDTA Evaluations

A National Attitude Study of Trainees in MDTA Institutional Programs. Gerald Gurin, Final Report to MA/DOL and DHEW, Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, August 1970.

Report MEL 71-11
Analysis of MDTA Institutional and OJT Data Tapes for 1968. Edward C. Prescott, Wharton EFA, April 1971, Final Report for Office of Policy, Evaluation and Research, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor.

Report MEL 73-08
 Contract #83-42-71-04
Evaluating the Impact of MDTA Programs on Earnings Under Varying Labor Market Conditions. Edward Prescott and Thomas Cooley, University of Pennsylvania, December 1972, Final Report for Office of Policy, Evaluation and Research, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor.

Welfare Reform: A Synthesis of Research on the WIN Program. Bradley R. Schiller, prepared for Office of Research and Development, MA/USDOL, Contract #51-24-72-09.

The Impact of Urban WIN Programs: Phase II - Final Report. Pacific Training and Technical Assistance Corporation, Washington, D. C.

Medical and Health Research Association of New York City, Inc., Upgrading Nurse's Aids to LPNS Through a Work-Study Program. Final Progress Report, May 1970, USDOL/MA Contract #82-34-67-48.

E&D Project Final Report, September 1967. Secretarial Training With Speech Improvement.

Low Wages and the Working Poor.

The Economics of Sex Discrimination. Janice Madden, Duke University, (Doctoral Disseration Research Grant #91-37-72-36), September 1972.

WAGES Program - In Full Operation, An Interim Report. June 1972 - February 1973, Office of Research and Development.

Women in Wisconsin: Apprenticeship Report. MDT Grant #92-53-70-17, November 1970 - March 1973.

Journals, Periodicals

The Relationship of Sex Discrimination to Poverty in Oregon - A Report with Implications for Manpower Training. Betty Mull, Oregon Board of Education, (mimeo).

Manpower. U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, February 1973, "Help for the Woman Breadwinner," Paul and Sandy DeVivo.

The Law and Women Series No. 1 (LAW-1) December 1971. "Fighting Job Discrimination - Three Federal Approaches," Mary Eastwood, Today Publications and News Service, Washington, D. C.

Washington Post, Tuesday, April 10, 1973. "Paradox of Job Training," William Greider and Nick Kotz, A-1, A-10.

Washington Post, April 9, 1973, "110,000 Here Work Below Poverty Level," Lawrence Feinberg, C1,C2.

Manpower, Vol. 2, No. 6, June 1970, "Working Mothers and Their Children," Margaret Mead.

Monthly Labor Review. Bureau of Labor Statistics, USDOL

- 1) June 1970. "Women at Work - Women Workers and Manpower Demands in the 1970's," Janice Neipert Hedges.
- 2) June 1970. "Women at Work - Changes in the Labor Force Activity of Women," Elizabeth Waldman.
- 3) July 1971. (Special Labor Force Report # - SLFR#) "Children of Women in the Labor Force," SLFR#134, Elizabeth Waldman and Kathryn R. Gover.
- 4) April 1972. "Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force," SLFR#144, Elizabeth Waldman and Kathryn R. Gover.
- 5) November 1972. "Educational Attainment of Workers, March 1972," SLFR#148, William V. Deutermann.
- 6) August 1972. "An Analysis of Unemployment by Household Relationship," SLFR#146, Paul O. Flaim and Christopher G. Gellner.
- 7) February 1973. "Changes in the Employment Situation in 1972," SLFR#152, Gloria P. Green and John F. Stinson.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS

Research for Government

Ohio State

Years for Decision Volume I, 1971. (Longitudinal study of the educational and labor market experience of young women 14-24). Manpower Research Monograph No. 24, 1971, Parnes, Shee, Roderick, Zeller, Kohen and Associates.

Years for Decision, Volume 2, March 1973, Roger D. Roderick with assistance of Joseph M. Davis.

Dual Careers. Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. (A longitudinal study of labor market experience of women, 30-44 years old).

Volume I - Herbert S. Parnes, John R. Shea, Ruth S. Spitz, Federick A. Zeller and Associates, Manpower Research Monograph #21, May 1970.

Volume II - Sookon Kim, Roger D. Roderick, Hohn R. Shea, September 1972.

Age Patterns in Medical Care, Illness, and Disability, United States, 1968-1969. Series 10, No. 70, USDHEW, Public Health Service, HSMHA, April 1972.

Cross-Substitution Between Husband and Wife as One of the Factors Determining the Number of Hours of Labor Supplied by Married Women. Sookon Kim, June 1972.

Welfare Mothers: Barriers to Labor Force Entry. John Shea, September 1972.

Correlates of Atypical Occupational Assignment. Roderick and Davis, June 1972.

The Influence of Fertility Strategies on the Labor Force Status of American Wives. Harry Rosenberg, November 1972.

Typing, Shorthand, and Occupational Assignments of Women: Some Black-White Differentials. Roderick and Shea, September 1972.

BOOKS

Manpower Challenge of the 1970's: Institutions and Social Change. Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1970.

Evaluating the Impact of Manpower Programs. Edited by Michael Borus, D. C. Heath and Company, Lexington Books, Lexington, Massachusetts, 1972. (Proceedings of a conference conducted June 15-17, 1971).

Sex in the Market Place: American Women at Work. Juanita Kreps, Policy Studies in Employment and Welfare #11, Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1971

Work in America. W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1972.

SPEECHES

Text of speech given by Emily Heller, DOL/MA on February 5, 1973 before the sub-group on female heads of households of the National Advisory Council of Economic Opportunity.

Text of testimony presented by Assistant Secretary of Labor William H. Kolberg presented before the Subcommittee on Employment, Poverty, and Migratory Labor, Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, May 3, 1973.