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ABSTRACT

Offering an overview and informal appraisal of the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) and its amendments since 1962, the study focuses on the vocational education program and the development of its legislation and administration. The 12 years of manpower training legislation from MDTA to the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973 and a parallel chronology of legislative history of vocational education since 1963 is analyzed in chapter 1 and the diversity of current interpretations and definitions of career education discussed. The following section deals with group impressions of manpower training issues related to evaluation, training, and the need for national interagency coordination. The third section examines the mixed perceptions and attitudes of vocational educators toward the status of vocational education and manpower training. Examining Project Baseline data and information, conclusions and recommendations of the 1972-73 reports are summarized. The report concludes that vocational education and manpower training and development are not antithetical and competitive; they are compatible and both are dedicated to the same objective of training in the nation's policy for manpower. An appendix offers selected tables; a bibliography; Congressional reports; and a list of evaluation, research, and related studies. (MW)

AN APPRAISAL OF THE MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMS ESTABLISHED BY CONGRESS IN THE 1960s

Project Baseline Supplemental Report

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The points of view and opinions stated herein are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the views and opinions of Technical Education Research Centers, Inc., Project Baseline or Northern Arizona University.

ABSTRACT

This report is a limited overview and informal appraisal of the Manpower Development and Training Act and its amendments since 1962. It is neither an exhaustive treatment of the literature nor of the research and evaluation effort which has accompanied the training program. In another smaller context, the study attempts to treat the vocational education program and the development of its legislation and administration. Essentially, the targeted readership of the report is the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education (NACVE), the Congress, and the vocational education community at large. The dozen years of manpower training from MDTA to the recently enacted Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973 and a parallel chronology of legislative history of vocational education since 1963 make opportune the general nature of the study, its implications, and recommendations for the future.

The turbulence of social, economic, and technological forces of the decade of the sixties are reflected dramatically in the provisions and administration of manpower training legislation enacted by Congress. There is a rich body of literature, largely the work of economists, on the training and its evaluation. Generally, most observers agree that improvements have been made in the program as experience was gained. Interestingly, informal attempts at cooperation among many training agencies have been more successful than formal efforts at working together.

The most severe critics of manpower training programs stress the crucial need for coordination at the national level. This criticism is undoubtedly due to the overlapping and duplication of programs and services on the parts of numerous agencies in the manpower training and poverty programs. The perfection of coordinating mechanisms like CAMPS is held up as desirable and exemplary by the manpower community. Most reports of state manpower councils reflect strong concern for uniform, timely reporting and for the establishment of sound criteria for evaluation.

This report does not duplicate in even a small way the ongoing research and reporting of Project Baseline. An examination of Baseline's data and information was made, especially that contained in the 1972 and 1973 volumes, along with a more exacting investigation of its files of reports from state manpower groups. Conclusions and recommendations of both volumes of Learning a Living Across the Nation, the two publications of Project Baseline, are summarized in this report.

There appears to be a general feeling that the manpower training effort was well worth the national expenditure in terms of the welfare of trainees and benefactors. Some writers view the twelve years of development as a period of trial and experimentation which predicate a more perfect system. There have been very desirable spillovers from the manpower training effort to the system of vocational education and vice versa. Vocational educators, especially at the state and local levels, have provided facilities, personnel, and expertise in the conduct of manpower programs--particularly through institutional training. It is highly important that the future effort retain these characteristics as CETA embarks upon a period of transition from MDTA under the new revenue shar-

ing flavor of funding and local determination, and as the legislation and performance of vocational education are examined in oversight.

The dozen years of MDTA have created a new profession of "manpowerists." Hopefully, it will provide strong leadership in the total effort to create new opportunities for human development. Such an effort of necessity should shed the many constraints of attachments to bureaus and agencies to meet more effectively the training needs of our citizens. The profession of vocational education also must continue its social forward thrust for its program benefactors at the secondary and post-secondary levels in keeping with social, economic, and political needs. In their own unique roles, Congress and the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education can reinforce and implement professional resources in the development of national manpower policy which would provide for persons and groups as needed with a minimum of red tape and program constraints.

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The interest, resources, and patient indulgence of many friends in Vocational Education and manpower development have made this report possible. Their sharing of unbiased insights and general perceptions of the successes and limitations of twelve years of manpower training has been invaluable and fruitful. Sincere and grateful appreciation therefore is accorded to:

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

PROLOGUE TO A NATIONAL DILEMMA

"If I only could get a job! Or if only I could get myself some job training!" Pity the plight of the young West Virginian literally scratching out a grubby existence for his family in an abandoned coal mine. And this in America!

Whatever one's walk in life, one cannot forget the impact of a recent Christmas television documentary which spotted the desperation of this man. And his city-dwelling counterpart is perhaps worse off. Affluent America wishes that the image would go away, but somehow the bad dream persistently stays on--as it should for our determined action to resolve it.

In the current economic tune of the times, we hush the word "recession" as if dodging the ugliness of the word would dispel the condition. And some of us have good reason to remember a former national predicament when not only a recession prevailed, but the coinage of the man on the street, ". . . the slump had hit the depression!" No doubt, the man (or woman) out of a job is caught in his personal recession. If he or she is untrained, unskilled, and uneducated--the "slump" has hit depression. With all of our social overtures of the past half century and our pronouncements for the welfare of Americans, our progress is, indeed, small in comparison to need.

Fifty years ago, the man on the street did not look to government intervention to get him a job. He looked more to a way of life which was couched in the "free enterprise" system and the work ethic. But government did step in in a variety of ways. If our memories fail us, we need not read deeply or long to discover contemporary advocates of WPA and NYA, or other throwbacks to the original acronyms of the New Deal.

Soothsayers of the seventies continue to look for whipping boys. Invariably they single out education for the spanking. Whether or not all Americans ever did accept the notion of public education for everyone--and it is debatable that they did--the ideal has clouded. The hope of educational opportunity for all has been dimmed by arguments concerning its relationship to property taxes and court attempts to clarify fine distinctions between "schooling" and education as guarantees of the U.S. Constitution. The public school and the educational profession have their democratic roots in elitism. They resent governmental interference and the portend that a dual or multiple educational track will be set up in the public school.

The roadbed for the dual track was laid far back in our educational history. There should be little wonder at the action of the federal government, particularly with that of the Congress, in education and especially in vocational education and manpower, the focus of this report. Dramatic social forces of the 1960s caused Congress to shore up vocational education legislation and draft numerous bills and provisions for manpower development. There have been very positive benefits to Americans as a result of vocational and manpower legislation, although neither has been fully and objectively assessed. Adequate appraisal remains a challenge of the future--in the eyes of the benefactors of the legislation.

There are dim rays of hope for the forgotten American in the achievements of vocational education and manpower development over the last dozen years. Meanwhile, the almost forsaken, displaced counterpart of the West Virginian still is praying for a job or for job training, the poverty stricken young black man or Puerto Rican is worse off, and the young black girl or woman is the most despondent of all Americans. But we are trying.

INTRODUCTION

This report is an overview--an informal appraisal of progress and problems of manpower training. It is neither statistical nor exhaustive in its treatment, although it calls upon data, however inconclusive and incomplete they are to educators, economists, and researchers. Specifically, what are the gains and losses of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and its various amendments, and what are the perceptions of those gains and losses? More important, what are the general strengths and limitations of the manpower program, particularly the institutional aspect of it? Admittedly, perceptions of this nature tend to shape up as attitudes of thin substance to researchers. On the other hand, experience of better than a decade should have a firm attitudinal base, if it is not watered down by bias and jurisdictional zeal. No doubt, there was strong Congressional attitude and intent in the framing of MDTA for many social and economical reasons. Moreover, Congress revised its intent and attitude with successive amendments. Why this was done needs to be answered.

Three parameters of the assessment should be made clear. However intangible and sometimes nebulous to document, what are the perceptions of Congress? What is the attitude of education, specifically vocational education and its frank spokeman, The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education? What has been the spillover of the manpower training effort to vocational education and vice versa? Regardless of the intimate relationship and philosophical kinship which should have existed in the characteristics of manpower and vocational education legislation designed and implemented during the same period of time, what have been the accomplishments?

The most severe criticism against manpower and vocational programs is the extent of overlap and duplication. It holds strong Congressional concern for the results of past manpower programs and motivates future program direction. The unpalatable criticism today is subdued in a more genteel expression which is found in the literature of manpower, employment, and vocational education--coordination. Few topics are treated at greater length and with warmer energy than the coordination theme, but the application is intended for all levels of the program.

> Our national manpower-education-training-counseling program has developed, tragically, into a monstrous bureaucratic tangle. Since a new era in vocational education was launched in our land by passage in 1962 of the historic Manpower Development and Training Act, our politicians have strung together a hopelessly complicated patchwork of vocational education efforts.
>
> So befuddling has the patchwork become that federal agencies are now actually issuing special "reference guides" to help observers sort out the different job training programs. New agency after new agency also is being superimposed on the vocational tangle, supposedly to coordinate the many programs or to provide "one stop" information services to baffled seekers of training and employment.

> One estimate is that there are more than three dozen different federal manpower programs in operation--aimed at various groups ranging from teenage dropouts to the elderly poor, retired farmers, migrant workers, slum dwellers, ex-military servicemen, the physically, mentally, vocationally and "socially" handicapped.[1]

Beyond its implications for manpower training, the more ardent disciples of coordination urge a new home base for vocational education other than the Office of Education at federal and state levels.

This overview and limited appraisal is commissioned as a supplementary report to Project Baseline's Volume III of Learning a Living Across the Nation prepared for the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education (NACVE). Project Baseline's investigation and this evaluation are focused for the specific attention of the Council, the vocational education community at large, and the members of Congress. Perhaps Baseline's authors state the function of this supplementary report most succinctly as follows:

> The supplementary report dealing with manpower programs will probe into all of the sensitive areas, not to support or discredit any particular point of view, but to establish as much as possible of the factual picture. It will contain the results of two years' research by the Baseline staff, additional research by the author for the specific purposes noted above, and a variety of materials drawn from the body of literature available. It is intended to be informative and analytical.[2]

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[1]Sylvia Porter, "'Alphabet Soup' Manpower Snare," Boston Herald Traveler, July 22, 1969, p. 5.

[2]Arthur M. Lee, and Robert Sartin, Learning a Living Across the Nation: Project Baseline, Second National Report, Vol. II (Flagstaff: Northern Arizona University, November, 1973), p. 361.

CHAPTER I

A DOZEN YEARS FROM MDTA TO CETA--A RESUME AND COMMENTARY

Viewing history and legislative development, some of the inadequacies of manpower training may be overcome in the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973. Although it is not the intent of this report to treat CETA in any length, its recent passage accents concern over its implementation. And there is considerable apprehension of the transition from MDTA to CETA. But these are the days of revenue sharing, consolidation grants, and the soft sell to local communities to determine their own needs and action programs. There is ample historical evidence for both sides of the federal intervention-local determination argument, forgetting for a monent the role of state government upon whose doorstep some political writers forecast a new ascendency to power. With CETA, Congress again has taken initiative and action. And there is an interesting sidelight taking place in the wings--review and oversight hearings on vocational education. To what extent will CETA and its provisions, especially for the institutional aspects of training, preempt or at least influence the next stage of vocational legislation for 1975 and beyond? The legislation for both programs since 1962 has run an interesting, often hectic and dramatic, parallel course. Some writers characterize the dozen years of manpower and poverty legislation as "patchwork" of a turbulent society and economy. Quite possibly, they have taken their cues from older historians who have used the same term in describing the development of vocational legislation since 1917. Nonetheless, "people's needs" have become the dominant theme of legislation for both programs. With due respect for the intent of Congress, as any experienced educator knows, a recognition of and dedication to personal needs has posed complex problems for the educational process. This fact may account for most of the uncertainty, apprehension, and mixed feelings about the relative sucess and limitations of the manpower training program over recent years.

A HISTORICAL CAPSULE OF MANPOWER TRAINING LEGISLATION

In this brief overview, the breadth of manpower legislation may be arbitrarily grouped into three categories: (1) vocational education; (2) manpower training and development; and (3) poverty. Although the three are interrelated in many ways, by themselves they are distinctly separate. Legislative antecedents prior to the 1960s are different and generally reflect changing conditions and crises in the national society and economy since shortly after the turn of the century. Ruttenburg terms at least some of the antecedents as a "legislative base."

> The legislative base of the programs administered by the Manpower Adminstration is made up of five separate pieces: the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933, establishing the federal-state Employment Service system; the Fitzgerald Act of 1937, estab-

lishing a national apprenticeship policy; the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, providing occupational and skill training, manpower research, experimental and demonstration programs, and other related manpower services; the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, providing employment and training opportunities for the poor; and the Social Security Act of 1935, with its amendments, authorizing the unemployment insurance system, providing the funding base for the Employment Service operations, and, as amended in 1967, authorizing a new program of work incentives for welfare recipients.[1]

The legal flavor of the sixties is described in another source:

> The relatively brief experience with manpower programs during the 1960s must be viewed as experimental; hence, the limited success of these tools heretofore does not preclude reliance on them in the future. From the many trials and failures experienced during the past decade, lessons were learned, services were improved, and new options were provided for disadvantaged persons, especially blacks, to improve their abilities and thus gain entry into the mainstream economy. In many cases, manpower programs offer a second chance to those who failed in, or were failed by, the educational system and for those whose skills have been eroded by technological change. As more knowledge is gained about the needs of particular individuals and about the effectiveness of particular services or combination of services in meeting these needs, the manpower programs may become an alternative for those who do not succeed in the regular school system. The experience gained from the manpower programs may also help the regular school system to avoid many mistakes.[2]

Congressional Quarterly's chapter, "Vocational Education and Worker Training," for the period 1945-1964 presents a workable synthesis of the legislation, and it is summarized as follows:

Vocational Education

1917. Smith-Hughes Act authorized grants to the states for vocational education below the college level.

1917-46. Several additional laws supplementing the Smith-Hughes Act. (George-Reed Act of 1929, George-Ellzey Act of 1934, George-Dean Act of 1936, all of which provided additional funds for vocational education. All of these were superseded by the George-Barden Act of 1946.)

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[1]Stanley H. Ruttenberg, Manpower Challenge of the 1970's: Institutions and Social Change (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1970), p. 11.

[2]S. A. Levitan, G. L. Mangum, and O. R. Marshall, Human Resources and Labor Markets (New York: Harper and Row, 1972), p. 576.

1956. Health Amendments Act for practical nurse training, and the Fisheries Trades Act for training for the fishing industry.

1958. The National Defense Education Act, specifically Title VIII for the training of highly skilled technicians for the national defense.

1961. Extended grants for practical nurse training and for Title VIII of the NDEA.

1963. Vocational Education Act which established new and expanded vocational education programs.

Worker Training and Retraining

1961-62. The Area Redevelopment Act authorized special job training programs for workers in economically decayed areas of the country.

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 sought to retrain workers with obsolete skills for new jobs.

The Trade Expansion Act (1962) provided special training for workers losing jobs because of foreign competition.

The Public Welfare Amendments (1962) authorized special community training efforts to help persons dependent on relief to become self-supporting.[3]

The focus of this report on manpower training necessarily delimits treatment of vocational education and poverty legislation. All three of the movements have a strong common ground, however, in the dramatic events, social and economic forces, and scientific and technological advances of the past decade. One wonders at the dexterity of Congress to leap from one crisis to another, with many issues in conflict and simultaneously demanding immediate attention and relief. New social legislation was enacted and amended as needs justified.

In the 1960s unemployment caused by automation and limited job opportunities for some in the midst of plenty were factors contributing to the rampant unrest which crested in rioting and crime on the streets. Unemployed and disadvantaged youth were classified "potential dynamite." Racial confrontations ignited in both northern and southern communities. Any group, any program, or any project that smacked of the "establishment" seemed doomed. As Daniel Moynihan put it in 1970, the United States "exhibits the qualities of an individual going through a nervous breakdown." Consequently, one views with astonishment the long list of "people-centered" legislation, moreover, its appraisal.

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[3]Congress and the Nation (Washington: Congressional Quarterly, Inc., 1965, pp. 1220-22.

The past five years have been a period of intensive social experimentation characterized by a new sensitivity to old problems of human distress. Though the underlying factors contributing to unemployment, poverty, and other social ills were closely interwoven, the administration and Congress reacted separately to each problem on a piecemeal basis. Numerous programs were inaugurated but with little consideration to their interaction. Newly emphasized needs sparked ideas which were translated into legislation with rarely a pause for intermediate steps of analysis and pretesting. The pattern, typical of a period of innovation, requires no apology. It has produced administrative confusion, duplication, gaps, and overlaps; it has also demonstrated the relative effectiveness of various approaches; and it has served people whose needs were, and are, current and pressing.[4]

Ellis in an unpublished work in 1973 on federal manpower programs presents a concise digest of eleven programs and their relative enrollment magnitude:

Work Incentive Program (WIN): 117,500 enrollment, provides job training for employable welfare recipients; largest percentage of women enrollees (60%).

MDTA/OJT: 60,000 enrollment, helps unemployed to gain job skills and the underemployed to upgrade skills through on-the-job training.

Jobs Optional Program (JOP): 15,300 enrollment, on-the-job training program administered by state OJT agencies.

Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS): 17,800 enrollment, National Alliance of Businessmen encourages private firms to hire disadvantaged individuals for whom the government pays the cost of training and supportive services.

MDTA/Institutional: 38,000 enrollment, training for the unemployed and underemployed through classroom-type instruction. Contracts may be given to educational institutions so certified by state departments of education. Certification may also be made in a similar manner for the 1000 MDTA "Skill Centers."

Public Service Careers: 21,200 enrollment, in which local, state, and federal agencies hire disadvantaged workers for public service jobs that are permanent in character.

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[4]U.S. Congress, Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Vocational Education: The Bridge Between Man and His Work, Notes and Working Papers Concerning the Administration of Programs Authorized Under the Vocational Education Act of 1963, Public Law 88-210 as Amended, United States Senate, 90th Congress, 2nd Session, 1968, p. 343.

Public Employment Program (PEP): 135,000 enrollment, operating under Emergency Employment Act with expiration in 1973. States and localities receive federal funds to hire unemployed and underemployed for a wide range of community service jobs with expectation that the individuals will be absorbed by state and local governments under their own funding or by an expanded economy.

Concentrated Employment Program (CEP): 24,900 enrollment, provides one-stop services in manpower and related programs for disadvantaged persons who live in high unemployment areas. It may give only job placement services, or pre-vocational orientation, or refer to on-the-job or institutional training, as need is determined.

Job Corps: 22,400 enrollment, residential program of human renewal and work readiness through remedial and skill training for disadvantaged young men and women ages 16 through 21.

Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC): a program for both in- and out-of-school youth aged 14 through 21 to help them stay in school, return to school, or get work experience. Enrollment includes largest number of women when the summer youth programs are combined.

Operation Mainstream: 29,300 enrollment, pay older workers in small towns and rural areas to work on public improvement projects.[5]

Proper perspective, Ellis continues, for comparison with vocational and technical education programs dictates that the manpower programs are not synonymouns with the former. She notes that only a small percentage of the federal dollar goes for skill training, and about twenty percent of the $3.3 billion per year, or approximately $700 million, is for institutional training, which provides job skill instruction and remedial education in vocational schools. Of the $700 million, however, more than half of it goes for subistence allowances, leaving about $320 million for institutional training. She concludes her general analysis with the fact that the largest part of the manpower financing, nearly fifty-five percent, is for various forms of work support including work orientation for persons with limited employment experience, the underwriting of wages for temporary public employment for adults unable to find regular jobs, and for youth with little work experience.[6]

Very revealing to the development of both vocational education and manpower legislation and their accompanying political strength is Ruttenberg's description and analysis. He perceives MDTA as the cornerstone of the manpower legislative framework and its successive amendments of 1963, 1965, and 1968 keeping pace with the changing economic scene and shifting national priorities. The cornerstone, he indicates, has proved to be one of the most useful and flexible laws ever written.

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[5]Mary L. Ellis, "Federal Manpower Programs." (unpublished paper, Washington: Technical Education Research Centers, 1973), pp. 3-6.

[6]Ibid., pp. 6-8.

> Compared to other legislative programs for social and economic goals, the growth of MDTA has been accomplished quite painlessly. There has been acceptance of the need to shift purpose and scope to meet urgent national needs; in fact, manpower training legislation has enjoyed strong support from both sides of the aisle. The struggle has been over administration and implementation--a struggle that began with the first discussions in 1961 and 1962 and is still going on.[7]

And now CETA. Quite passively and without its traditional adroitness for the stewardship of vocational education, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education reported that the passage of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973 will eliminate the numerous categorical programs and 10,000 contracts of MDTA. Instead, it will authorize grants to about 550 local and prime sponsors who will plan and operate their programs to meet local needs. Five percent of the funds available to prime sponsors will go to state vocational education boards. The house Committee which drafted the new bill appeared to have at least some sensitivity to the vocational education system, but it was a token gesture.

> Vocational Education is an important instrument of manpower policy and the committee is convinced that an effective manpower program requires the effective utilization of the vocational education system. The committee is aware that such effective utilization has not at all times been the rule in the past and has provided for special grants to state vocational education boards to provide vocational education and services in areas served by local prime sponsors. These funds may be utilized only by agreement between the state vocational education board and the local prime sponsor, and the Committee expects that these agreements will provide a foundation for fruitful cooperation between the manpower and vocational education system.[8]

The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education's newsletter relates that CETA will establish a National Commission for Manpower Policy to study duplication of manpower training programs. The publication contends that the House Committee took into account the current structure of government, with its inevitable jurisdictional anomalies and bureaucratic concerns, institutional rivalries, and conflicts, which will not be remedied except over a long period of time. Meanwhile, the Committee has authorized some means of working around these obstacles toward the goal of a more coherent national manpower policy.

Unfortunately, the bill further perpetuates dualism between manpower training and education and sets it in concrete. "Certainly," the House Committee continues, "the Secretary of HEW, after consulting with the Office of Education, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, the Rehabilitation Services Administration, and other agencies within his Department having a concern for manpower policy, should be able to make a

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[7]Ruttenberg, op. cit., p. 16.

[8]National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, News from NACVE (Washington, December, 1973), pp. 1-2.

major contribution in coordinating these programs and services with those financed under this legislation." The "struggle" between administration and implementation, which Ruttenberg aptly cites, is indeed a pivotal concern. Tucked away in a Committee Report of the bill, it is interesting to note the dissenting views of Congressmen William D. Ford and Lloyd Meeds and Congresswoman Patsy T. Mink:

> Actually this legislation is a hodgepodge of compromises that mean nothing, and will be so complicated to administer that the present Administration will continue on its merry way with the present Manpower Revenue Sharing (which they are now calling MRP--Manpower Reform Program) and by hook or crook fit this legislation into the present guidelines. The extension of the Manpower Development and Training Act, and the Emergency Employment Act is a better alternative and Congress then would have retained some control over the funds.[9]

In summary, this report's historic capsule of manpower legislation from the federal level to the client for whom the services are rendered is aptly presented in a chart designed by Kruger in Figure 1.[10] He considers it a complex maze in which the client may well be confused.

TARGET POPULATIONS

Kruger's "client" at the bottom of the maze is the target of the legislation. Regardless of the volumes which would be necessary to describe adequately the nature of the target group, for purposes of this report the broad definition cited in Project Baseline's 1972 report is appropriate.

> The target populations toward which federal vocational education and manpower training funds are directed are persons needed for employment by business and industry, persons whose skills have become obsolete, high school students, school dropouts, post high school students, adults who need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones, students with special educational handicaps, everyone who needs the opportunity for education, training, and work. It would hardly be possible to reach everyone identified in the vocational education and manpower legislation of the 1960s, but for nearly one billion dollars annually there would be an impact.[11]

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[9]U.S. Congress, House, Committee on Education and Labor, Comprehensive Manpower Act of 1973, Report together with Minority, Supplemental, Additional, and Dissenting Views, United States House of Representatives, 93rd Congress, 1st Session, 1973, p. 81.

[10]Daniel H. Kruger, "Statement Before the Select Subcommittee on Labor, House Committee on Education and Labor." (unpublished report, School of Labor and Industrial Relations, Michigan State University, February 23, 1972), p. 3.

[11]Arthur M. Lee, and Robert Sartin, Learning a Living Across the Nation: Project Baseline, First National Report, Vol. I (Flagstaff: Northern Arizona University, November 1972), p. 418.

Figure 1

MANPOWER PROGRAMS AND FUNDING PATTERNS

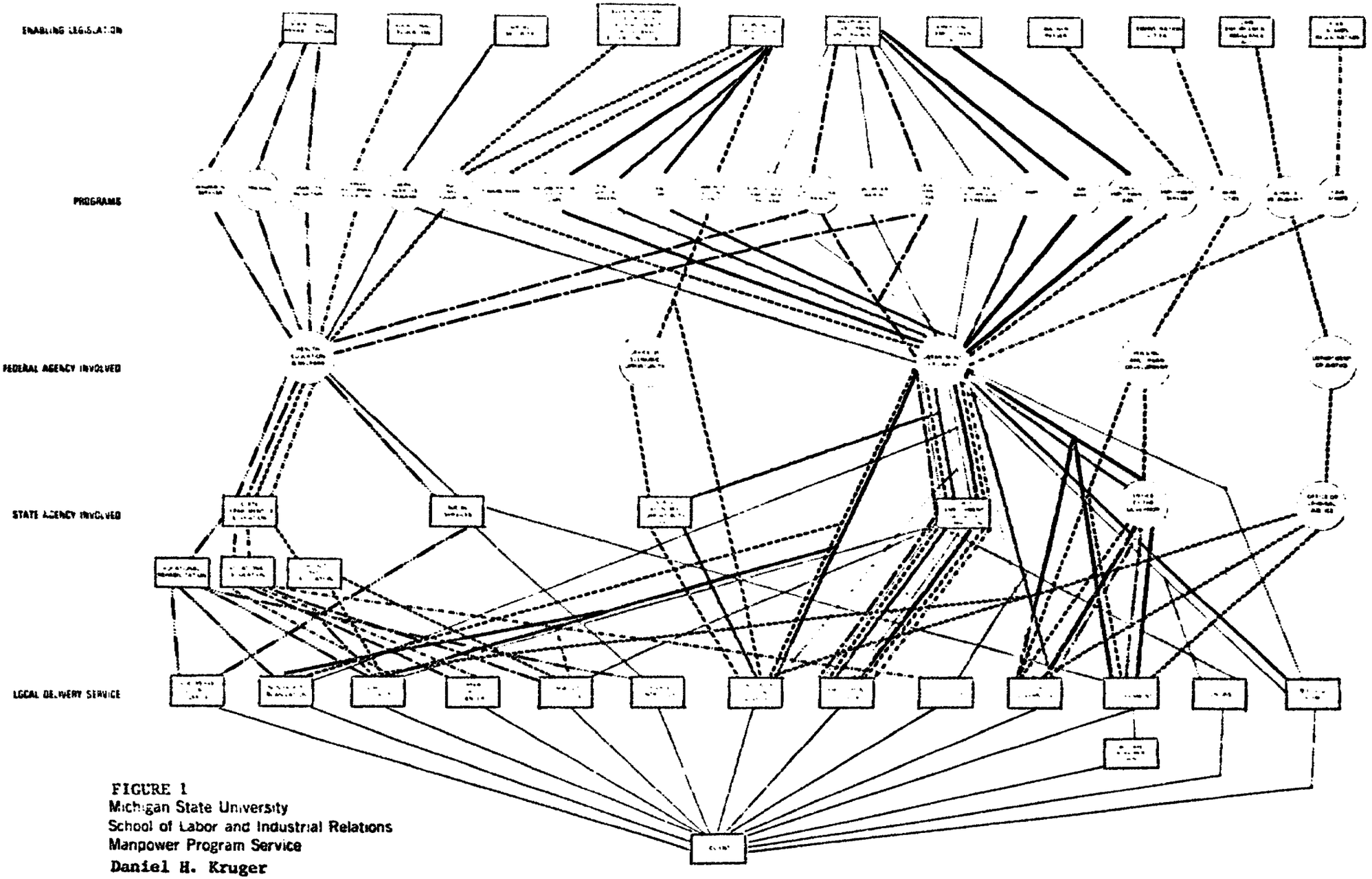

FIGURE 1
Michigan State University
School of Labor and Industrial Relations
Manpower Program Service
Daniel H. Kruger

Impact data on target populations is the purpose of another concurrent supplementary report of Project Baseline. Project Baseline's report of 1972 indicated that nine million students were enrolled in vocational education. Of these, nineteen percent were blacks, six percent were Spanish-surnamed Americans, 0.7 percent were Orientals, 0.5 percent were American Indians, and the remainder was largely Caucasian or of European descent. Data show that blacks, American Indians, and Orientals comprised a higher percentage of enrollments than their representation in the total U.S. population. By a ratio of five to four, more females than males were receiving vocational education, although the majority was enrolled in non-wage-earning consumer and homemaking programs. Thirteen percent of the total enrollment were disadvantaged persons; 1.9 percent were handicapped.

In the MDTA programs, thirty-two percent of the trainees were blacks, 2.5 percent were American Indians, and 0.5 percent were Orientals. In another comparison, the programs of the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) in 1970-71 show an enrollment of which 44.8 percent were blacks, 2.3 percent were American Indians, and 0.3 percent were Orientals.

Project Baseline also reports that in 1970-71 better than one-third (thirty-eight percent) of all high school students were reported to be enrolled in federally supported vocational education programs.

> If the target here is every student, the achievement rate is more than sixty percent short. Whether those who are enrolled are the ones who need the training most cannot be determined, but indications point to an assumption that most of them are. In manpower programs the same assumption can be made.[12]

However, the Project Baseline report indicates strong reservations about the impact of federally supported programs, both vocational and manpower, on the target populations. There are criticisms on both sides of the fence: (1) that there are too many agricultural students in the vocational program compared to other occupational groups in our urbanized society; (2) that for many trainees in the manpower program there is a waste of time and resources in that they are not employable after their training; and (3) that vocational education is a dumping ground for misfits and failures in the schools. These criticisms and judgments "simply have no evidence on which they can be supported or denied." "It is another area," the report concludes, "in which data are inadequate, unreliable, or do not exist."

In November 1973, Project Baseline's second volume reported some slight gains in the enrollment of blacks, American Indians, Orientals, and Spanish-surnamed in the vocational education program for 1971-72. It also stated that the vocational programs which were designed specifically for the disadvantaged and handicapped were quite limited in number. Total enrollment of the training programs administered by the U.S. Department of Labor was 346,066 of which 209,269 persons were enrolled in MDTA programs and 136,797 in EOA programs; the MDTA Institutional pro-

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[12] Ibid., p. 419.

gram operating in the vocational schools enrolled 38.4 percent of the manpower trainees, more than one-third of all MDTA and EOA programs combined.[13]

The Manpower Report of the President (1974) contains the most recent data available in its section, "Profile of MDTA Institutional Trainees." Generally, over the twelve years of MDTA, training has been provided in over 600 occupational skills. The characteristics of trainees in the institutional program showed that the percentage of men participating increased from about sixty-three percent in 1972 to over sixty-seven percent in 1973. The percentage of disadvantaged persons dropped from sixty-six percent in 1972 to fifty-eight percent in 1973; a reflection of this drop is a general increase in the family income reported by the 1973 enrollees--thirteen percent fewer women reported family incomes below $2,000, and fourteen percent fewer men reported family incomes below $2,000. Trainees who were heads of families increased more than 3.8 percent, totaling more than 63 percent of all enrollees. Fifty-six percent of all trainees were in the prime working years (ages 21-45), an increase of two percent over the previous year of 1972. The Manpower Report possibly shows a new trend:

> One of the most significant shifts in enrollees' characteristics is the dramatic increase in the percentage of high school graduates who have been enrolled in the program over the past 3 years. For example, in 1968 only 40 percent of all MDTA enrollees had completed high school or gone beyond. By 1972, the percentage had increased to 58 percent, only 1 percent less that the 59 percent enrolled in 1963, the first year of training under the act and until 1973 the year of highest enrollment of high school graduates in the MDTA program. In 1973, however, the figure rose an additional 5.3 percentage points to 63.6 percent of all trainees--a new record. One possible explanation for this shift is the ever-increasing enrollment of veterans in the MDTA programs.[14]

Additional enrollment characteristics are as follows:

Women who comprise 40 percent of the work force, are underrepresented in institutional training programs, constituting 33 percent of all trainees in 1973.

White trainees reported the largest increase in educational attainment and were the group completing the most years of school. American Indians continued to enter training with the lowest level of educational achievement.

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[13]Lee and Sartin, Vol. II, op. cit., p. 12.

[14]Manpower Report of the President (Washington: Government Printing Office, April, 1974), p. 185.

Women enrollees reported more years of school completed than men, but in 1973 there was a significant narrowing of the gap, 65.1 percent of the women had finished high school or gone beyond as compared with 62.9 percent of the men.

In 1973, whites accounted for about two-thirds of all MDTA enrollees; the proportion of blacks within the minority groups dropped to 83 percent with increased enrollment of Orientals and American Indians accounting for the decrease. Minority groups (black and others) comprise less than 20 percent of the civilian labor force, but 34.2 percent of 1973 trainees.

Over 38 percent of all institutional trainees were veterans, an increase of more than 7 percentage points over 1972 and 15 over 1971. Only 41 percent of the veterans were considered disadvantaged and poor, compared with 58 percent (disadvantaged) and 59.4 percent (poor) of the total trainee group.

Close to 10 percent of all MDTA Institutional trainees enrolled in 1973 were persons with a Spanish-surname. Sixty-five percent of them were male. More than 74 percent were considered disadvantaged and close to 73 percent were classified as poor. As a group they were poorly educated; more than 54 percent were high school dropouts, and more than 20 percent had dropped out before completing the eighth grade.[15]

For further details of the characteristics of trainees in manpower programs administered by the Department of Labor in fiscal year 1973, see Tables F-5 through F-10 in Appendix A.

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[15] Ibid., pp. 362-67

SUMMARY

A chronology of MDTA to CETA is an historical record of the nation's struggle with a series of social, economic, and technological forces and their effects upon the lives of Americans, their employment and their welfare. There probably has never been a more turbulent upheavel of forces, crises, and confrontations on the American domestic scene than during the period between 1962 to 1974, a turmoil which still faces the nation approaching its bicentennial anniversary. MDTA originally was intended to upgrade members of the labor force who could not assume unfilled jobs requiring technical skills. The legislation through successive amendments gravitated to alleviation of the ills of the poor, the disadvantaged, and handicapped. Finally, the basic thrust of the legislation became social rather than purely educational.

Paralleling the course of manpower training and its supportive services, the legislation of vocational education through successive revisions was influenced by similar conditions in the society and economy. It must be noted, however, that vocational education and manpower training, are not synonymous. Only a small percent of the federal dollar actually goes for institutional training conducted through vocational schools. Too often, the complicated maze of programs and services, dual administrations, overlap and duplication become the tail that wagged the dog, and the intended benefactor--the client--was either lost or turned off in the confused process. Some writers consider the era one of trial and error which resulted in refinements and improvements of the programs. Most generally agree that the total effort was worth the expenditure. Forgotten, confused, or neglected clients who could not be accomodated in the program may have other reactions.

Despite criticism of the inadequacies and injustices of both programs, manpower and vocational education legislation, thanks to the initiative and intentions of Congress, became "people-centered"--possibly the basic cause of the mixed success of the programs during the past decade, but the prevailing hope of the future.

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CHAPTER II

PERCEPTIONS AND ISSUES OF MANPOWER TRAINING--GROUP IMPRESSIONS

The pursuit of feelings, generalized or documented, about manpower training and vocational education is an interesting, but exhaustive business. The general literature is replete with perceptions of success and failure, optimism and pessimism, charge and counter-charge, and a crying need for more adequate evaluation. In some ways, the manpower training movement seems to have been turned inside out by studies, investigations, and sophisticated analyses, many of which point up their limitations. Quite to the opposite extreme, many writers and researchers cite the urgent need for more studies and refined systems of data collection and dissemination of information on the part of state and federal governments.

As consensus seems to have it, a great deal of benefit has occurred from the manpower training program. Most important, this general opinion indicates that many trainees of the target population have been given valuable and productive educational and work experiences. In this light, the effort and expenditures have been extremely worthwhile. Another consensus sees highly positive values spilling over from the manpower program to vocational education and vice versa. As Ellis suggests:

> The parallel lines--regular and vocational education on one hand and manpower on the other--which did not seem to meet ever, or wherein constituents of each track viewed the other with circumspection at least, appear to be bending toward each other. This is a favorable development to continue. Prevention and remediation are both essential to human resource development.[1]

The controversy over prevention versus remediation has been a heated one, even though it may be academic. A great deal of the argument has centered on the "flow" and "pool" of the unemployed. The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, early in its history, attempted to affect federal policy and spending by advocating that more attention be given to the "flow", that is, the early prevention of unemployment. The Council states its position emphatically:

> These concerns lead us to one fundamental policy: <u>The Federal government should invest at least as much money in reducing the flow of untrained youth as it invests in reducing the pool of unemployed, and most of the Federal investment should be concentrated in paying the additional cost of vocational and technical programs of career preparation (as</u>

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[1] Ellis, op. cit., p. 14.

compared with programs which prepare for further education) in high schools and post-secondary institutions.[2]

Education at large, manpower training, and vocational education in particular should face up to an ultimate goal, which usually is buried in the pro's and con's and their relation to manpower policy. The final outcome of the total effort, as stated by Walter Reuther, should be the human goal of manpower policy.

> Most of all, however, manpower policy should aim at making obsolete such words and phrases as "manpower" and "labor market," for our central concern must increasingly be with the worker as a human being rather than as an instrument of production. For example, the major purpose of education and training must not be simply to produce more effective human tools for the use of employers but, rather, more effective human beings for participation in, and for enjoyment of, all aspects of living. In the next two decades, substantial progress ought to be made in these new directions that are indicated by our evolving concepts of what is desirable and achievable.[3]

Reuther's statement of mission has been the touchstone of the philosophy of organized labor in testimony after testimony, formal and informal, year after year concerning manpower training during the last decade. The testimony is consistent and never waivers. Mere jobs for the unemployed are not enough, it avows; training without job placement into worthwhile, meaningful occupations is an insult and frustration to the unemployed. There are other persistent threads in the commitment and testimony: (1) provision of good jobs at decent wage levels; (2) a manpower program that is national in scope, controlled by federal policy and responsibility; (3) program flexibility; (4) public service employment; and (5) federalization of the U.S. Employment Service to make the fifty state systems serve more adequately the needs of the unemployed and disadvantaged. Quite typical of the beliefs of organized labor are the opinions expressed by the American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations (AFL-CIO) on repeated occasions:

> Not everyone needs training. For large numbers of the unemployed--probably the majority--the primary need is for jobs. But for the disadvantaged, training is an important and necessary component. Despite the speed and inexperience with which the manpower training programs of the 1960s were put together, they have given meaning and substance to the

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2 National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, Second Report (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, November 15, 1969), pp. 3-4.

3 Walter P. Reuther, "The Human Goals of Manpower Policy," Manpower Tomorrow (New York: Augustus M. Kelley, 1967), pp. 31-32.

lives of hundreds of thousands of disadvantaged persons. We believe that an effective public service employment program must be linked with training programs designed to utilize worker skills at their maximum potential. We see merit in both on-the-job and institutional training or a combination of both for the disadvantaged worker.[4]

Another controversy rages between academic and vocational education. The crux of the argument lies in two basic questions: What is the role of the schools, and how relevant is the instruction of the school system to the nature of work? Bolino gives two illustrations:

> Some educators believe that the existing educational system is adequate for the job. For example, here are the words of Professor C. A. Anderson: "The basic theme of this paper is that the United States has a flexible education system and a flexible set of mechanisms for allocating individuals to occupational positions. This system is adequate generally to supply the kinds and qualities of individuals needed and to place them in appropriate positions in order to maintain the dynamic quality of the society."
>
> Opposed to this view are a few--and I join them--who believe that much of what is now taught in the public and parochial schools has little relevance to the technology that is generating profound changes in the nature of work. Marvin Feldman has articulated this view very well:
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> My thesis is that vocational education is not a separate discipline and cannot be treated in the same way we approach mathematics, English, or the physical sciences.

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[4] Statement of Andrew J. Biemiller, Director, Department of Legislation, American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations Before the Subcommittee on Employment, Manpower and Poverty of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, April 1, 1970, p. 6. (mimeographed.)

For additional evidence of the philosophy and consistence of testimony of organized labor, see statements of Andrew J. Biemiller and Kenneth Young before Senate and House Committees of March 14, 1972; March 17, 1970; April 3, 1968; June 7, 1966; March 17, 1966; February 10, 1965; and June 14, 1961; and also recommendations and resolutions of the AFL-CIO Constitutional Conventions of 1972 and 1973 (Washington: AFL-CIO) (mimeographed.)

It is, rather, an approach to the disciplines and the learning process which, properly used, could reconstruct the American educational system for greater relevance of general education and a renascence of liberal-arts studies.[5]

Limitations of the vocational education system are indicated quite generally in a Committee Print of the Senate in connection with "Programs for Youth with Special Needs" as progress of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 was estimated in preparation for the framing of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. As a result of the deliberations and recommendations of President Kennedy's Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education, the 1963 act placed emphasis upon the need to combat poverty and unemployment, and to expand vocational programs to accomodate persons with academic, socio-economic, and other handicaps. How successful was the program?

> Several factors bear upon this problem. One is the reluctance of many persons in vocational education to accommodate this type of student. For many years vocational education has suffered from its image as a program for trouble-makers, slow learners, nonmotivated, less than college-ability types. Therefore, it is natural that there will be a strong tendency to avoid programs which perpetuate or increase this negative image.
>
> Programs for persons with special needs are not being implemented because many earnest vocational administrators are not fully cognizant of what constitutes an optimum program of services and training. There will be continued delays in implementing these programs until some suggested models are made available.[6]

Information in the Committee Print, however, enlarged upon the problem. Evidently, many students with "special needs" were accomodated in vocational education programs prior to 1968, but on an individual basis. With the advent of MDTA and EOA, which do not require matching state funds, and the reluctance of many states and local communities to finance special or expanded programs, states and local districts turned to more accessible sources for funding. Information on programs funded through other sources would not have appeared on vocational records. In

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5 August C. Bolino, Manpower and the City (Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing Company, 1969), p. 59.

6 U.S. Congress, Senate, Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Notes and Working Papers Concerning the Administration of Programs Authorized Under the Vocational Education Act of 1963, Committee Print, 90th Congress, 2nd Session, (Washington: Government Printing Office, March 1968), p. 263.

fact, the reporting system at the time does not present clearly the extent of vocational activities designed to serve those with special needs. Yet, overall available evidence supports the criticism that this purpose had not received the emphasis intended by the Congress through the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

There is the bare possibility that current oversight hearings on vocational legislation will yield further evidence of the achievements and strengths, as well as limitations, of vocational education. That the 1968 amendments did not shore up weaknesses, while promising more rapid improvements, may be charged to the good intentions, but poor commitment of Congress in allocating ample funds to do the job.

> Legislative intents must be translated from authorizations into appropriations, and lobbying groups--and the American Vocational Association has achieved an enviable reputation--have been known to undo in the appropriation stage what they could not reverse in authorizations. The appropriations in fiscal 1970, and the proposed budget for fiscal 1971, have in fact failed to give the intended support to the innovative measures of the 1968 act, providing meager funding for planning and experimentation, for training the specially disadvantaged, and for introducing new courses.[7]

Fianlly, and in support of reliance upon the general perceptions conveyed in the literature, it must be said that any reviewer would be hopelessly confused in searching out documentation. Albeit, there are impressive volumes of literature concerning the manpower training program, and labor economists have been most prolific in interpreting events. In comparison, the voice of the vocational educator is weak, a failing which is compensated for by the hallmarks of his discipline and profession. Accordingly, the clamor over cost-benefits and cost-effectiveness overshadows the human goal of manpower policy. In some cases, the economist and the manpower specialist are addressing the proper concerns of the educator.

The weaknesses in the dialogue are related to the leadership in the upper echelons of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and Office of Education responsible for vocational education and manpower training. Generally, silence and little enthusiasm for programs of this nature, disparagement of the vocational establishment, and default to other agencies and administrations have been the order of the day. The vocational education community has long since learned to live with the state of affairs and at least a general impression that its main support,

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7 Sar A. Levitan, and Robert Taggart III, Social Experimentation and Manpower Policy: The Rhetoric and the Reality (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1971), p. 39.

possibly "thin" at times, lies with the Congress. But somewhere in the middle are caught the potential benefactors of all of the legislation and its administration at the national, state, and local levels.

EVALUATIONS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND MANPOWER TRAINING

Numerous issues in the two fields are illustrated profusely in general commentary of successes and limitations of both programs. Many appraisals are well known, and it should suffice to discuss a few of them briefly. First of all, many have expressed the need to modernize the vocational program and its image, although commentators invariably hasten to add that there are many fine, progressive programs and the entire vocational system should not be characterized by the presence of some traditional hangovers. Sometimes "modernization" means that the training which is being given is "moribund" and irrelevant to the current nature of work. In other cases, "modernization" implies that equipment and facilities are out-of-date or teachers are out of touch with skill requirements of their occupations and community. There have been the general criticisms that vocational education is unnecessary and undesirable, that because occupations change so rapidly, there always will be the need to train, retrain, ad infinitum, and it is totally an impossible task. According to this argument, broad, general training unrelated to occupational training would be preferable. Vocational education has responded to many of these criticisms by developing a more comprehensive program based on innovative, far reaching concepts. "At the same time the very existence of MDTA may revitalize the entire vocational training, modernize it, infuse some status into it, and provide funds for many new teachers, up-to-date equipment, and more financial support on a continuing basis. All are important."[8]

In a broad sense, education traditionally has concentrated on verbal and abstract skills at the expense of practical experience (learning by doing) and problem-solving. Conventional lecture and discussion methods have dominated education as preparation for the professions. Although federal law and intervention were required to break the lock-step, government action has resulted in the preservation of social stratification.

> Federal law which mandated a separate administrative structure for vocational education and defined it as less than college level did not create the separation between academic and vocational education but it has certainly perpetuated it. It is paradoxial that the very phases of education which are the most specifically vocational in nature, higher and graduate education, are held in

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8 A. M. Ross, Unemployment and the American Economy (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964), p. 45.

esteem while occupational preparation at a less than college level is without prestige.[9]

Levitan and Mangum see another difference--a nonessential one--between vocational education and manpower training, and an implication for the future. MDTA, they assert, has the willingness and developing ability to help those who previously have been too often ignored. Vocational educators under MDTA, given the assignment through institutional training, effectively have served those with deficient educational preparation and have developed new remedial tools for doing so. The deficiency of the 1963 act and the role of manpower training are delineated.

> The 1963 Vocational Education Act directed vocational education to move in this direction but provided neither "carrots" nor "sticks" to bring it about. As vocational education assumes its proper role, MDTA can and should be limited to remedial efforts in behalf of those in the labor market who need special assistance to negotiate its perils.[10]

Quite contrary to the steady endorsement of top union officials, the total fabric of organized labor has not supported manpower training. At least some of the ambivalence is understandable. The loose labor market at times has caused concern among union leaders, and labor representatives have been afraid that government training may lead to increased geographic mobility of industry. Craft unions in particular have shown their opposition.

> Generally, the craft unions with a tradition of union control over jobs and training have frequently opposed MDTA training, lest it serve as a substitute for established apprenticeship programs. In some areas, labor's objections have prevented training in certain occupations. For example, in the Northwest, training is largely limited to health and forestry occupations since unions have persuaded employment services not to certify courses in apprenticeable trade.[11]

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9 Garth L. Mangum, Reorienting Vocational Education (Washington: National Manpower Policy Task Force, May 1968), p. 46.

10 Sar A. Levitan and Garth L. Mangum, Federal Training and Work Programs in the Sixties (Detroit: Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1969) p. 90.

11 Sar A. Levitan, Federal Manpower Policies and Programs to Combat Unemployment (Kalamazoo: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1964), p. 39.

Ambivalence of this nature aptly illustrates the eternal predicament of vocational education in the public sector. Vocational education is in double jeopardy on two counts: (1) its general unacceptability to education itself; and (2) its subjection to the shifts of management and labor and their problem spillovers. It is safe to conclude that there is no sincere public commitment to vocational education or training uninspired by the profit motive. Most tragically for our youth, unless they plan to enter college, our society will not have reserved a relevant place for them. Many will be suspended in the limbo of unemployment or meaningless jobs, awaiting a more dynamic economy or a national crisis to accommodate them and their talents. Thus, each generation of Americans has its era of desolation.

That we have failed to use our resources wisely to create broader educational opportunities is apparent in our disregard for private schools. Belitsky claims that there has been very "uneven use" of this resource for manpower development purposes. On several occasions, Congress has attempted to implement more effective utilization of private institutions, but some states continue to ignore them. Belitsky describes the situation quite generally.

> Opposition to the use of proprietary schools under the MDTA has persisted despite their frequent ability to underbid the public schools when vying for contracts. It is claimed that the private schools were, at times, not awarded contracts because the public schools wished to expand their own training activities.[12]

Continuing with his advocacy for the utilization of private schools and their capacity, Belitsky offers the following illustration:

> For example, under Vocational Rehabilitation programs, many of the schools have accepted and successfully trained people who lacked a high school education and who in addition may have been physically and emotionally handicapped. In particular, many more unemployed and underemployed persons could be served under the Manpower Development and Training Act; and there should be more extensive direct government contracts with national associations of private schools which also have accrediting bodies that are recognized by the U. S. Commissioner of Education.[13]

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12 A. Harvey Belitsky, Private Vocational Schools and Their Students (Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing Company, 1969), p. 136.

13 Ibid., p. 153.

There is a rich source of evaluation and assessment findings contained in the information compiled by Project Baseline. This source, the various state MDTA plans and progress reports, is not limited to accomplishments and state needs. These documents also are concerned with the appraisal process, moreso the criteria and benchmarks upon which good evaluation should be based. Although the reports are quite informal and probably do not find their way into the channel of published literature, Project Baseline is giving visibility to data and information of this nature in its three research volumes. This investigator spent a great deal of time reviewing these state reports, and the following summarizes some of the information, although the reports are essentially descriptive in nature.

A recent report of the Ohio plan, which is addressed mainly to impending revenue sharing legislation and the state role, does make a strong appeal for evaluation.

> A more stringent and comprehensive evaluation and follow-up must be encouraged for all manpower training programs. The promulgation of programs that have not produced positive results is inadvisable. The end objective should be placement in a training-related occupation with upward mobility. Full responsibility should be assumed by the sponsor for each individual until proper evaluation shows the ultimate goal has been attained.
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> The final determination on achieved results can be made only by personnel not personally involved with the implementation of the project. This should be a continual process not ending immediately following the placement of the trainee.
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> Those in Manpower Program Planning can become involved in activities so deeply that objectivity is difficult. Expectations of evaluation by a group with no vested interests can be the most equitable. There are innumerable organizations with the skill to do this more rapidly and far better than persons directly involved in these projects.[14]

That the State of New York feels more strongly about criteria of evaluation than does Ohio may be detected in a staff report. It makes the point that it is important for state government to be aware of the effectiveness of various nationally directed efforts and the extent to which they reduce the level of need. This information is vital to a determination of additional state effort required. Secondarily, it insures that the state functions efficiently and avoids duplication of effort.

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14 Ohio Manpower Plan for Fiscal 1972, State CAMPS Summary (Columbus: State of Ohio, Office of the Governor, 1972), pp. 19-20.

> Unfortunately, standards or criteria which will permit adequate evaluation of the relative effectiveness of manpower programs have not been satisfactorily developed. Meaningful data on manpower programs serving identical or similar target groups are not always available. Non-comparability of information from program to program is another weighty problem which usually confronts the evaluator. The lack of adequate post-training follow-up data and the absence of control groups in all manpower hamper the evaluative process significantly.[15]

Two reports of the State of Wisconsin, although very brief, reach the heart of manpower problems in general. Moreover, they represent a summation of the needs, ideas, and recommendations expressed in other state reports. In its recommendations for the improvement of the total manpower program, Wisconsin makes the following points: (1) the amount of federal funds for institutional training has remained constant in the face of cost escalation, but the Exess Property program has helped to stabilize additional costs; (2) the disposition of equipment is very costly and cumbersome, and a depreciation schedule is needed; (3) trainee follow-up should be improved by providing funds to the State Employment Service; (4) supportive services are critically needed, and they are advocated as "missing links" between institutional training and the world of work in order to better serve the disadvantaged; and (5) the training of teachers needs additional funding regardless of the extent to which AMIDS provides adequate opportunity for the training of administrative and supervisory personnel.[16]

The CAMPS Plan of Rhode Island takes additional steps in defining needed evaluation and priorities, particularly in four areas of its operations: (1) the CAMPS Committee role; (2) involvement in the funding allocation process; (3) establishment of a job-skills bank; and (4) community input from area subcommittees. Clarification of its second area of priority raises two points of evaluation.

> More objective evaluations of program performance must be made. This requires assembly and assessment of reasonably standard data on all programs. As an initial step toward this goal, a subcommittee has been established to review program proposals.
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> A monitoring system is needed to give the state committee a continuous and current picture of program operations and

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15 Staff Report, The Manpower Development and Training Act in New York State, prepared for the Manpower Resources Commission (Albany: Office of the Governor, June 1970), p. 2.

16 Accomplishments and Evaluation of Manpower Development and Training (Madison: Wisconsin Board of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education, 1970-71), p. 1.

performance. Such a system has been initiated by requesting all manpower agencies to report, each quarter, the social security numbers of persons serviced by the agency and their significant characteristics: race, sex, whether disadvantaged, and the target groups in which they are classified.[17]

Critiques on the importance of evaluation and the appraisal process are rich and knowledgeable. In the way of a brief summary of this section, the insights of Jon Goldstein's study are almost indispensable. Although his writing in a staff study of public welfare is targeted on the effectiveness of manpower training and impact on the poor, it seems to ring true for investigation of all manpower training and vocational education. He concludes that the extreme breadth of manpower training makes it an unwieldy subject, and precludes any simple, unqualified determination of its effectiveness. He reviews seven of the better research efforts, but cautions that each study has some feature which makes it precarious to generalize the finding. Goldstein focuses upon the programs of MDTA, NYC, and WIN. Generalized evidence of the MDTA aspect of his study as it is related to differential impacts of training by demographic characteristics reveals the following:

1. Sex

   MDTA--The two studies conducted thus far found that males who were exposed to institutional training had significant increases in earnings, while females did not benefit. However, women had larger increases in earnings from on-the-job training than males.

2. Education

   MDTA--Training had a greater impact on the earnings of those with less education. Several studies found that training benefited high school dropouts more than graduates. At least two studies found that training had the greatest impact on those with only grade school education.

3. Race

   MDTA--The differential effect of training by race has not been well investigated. What little evidence there is (one study in Michigan with a sample size of 150)

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17 Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System Committee, The Rhode Island Comprehensive Manpower Plan, Fiscal Year 1971 (Providence: Office of the Governor, June 1970), pp. 83-84.

suggests that whites benefit more from training than blacks, but both groups experience increases in earnings. The explanation for the differential effect of training on the productivity of whites and blacks (if in fact one exists) is unknown. The most reliable investigations of the issue found that discrimination rather than motivation or inherent personal differences accounts for the inequality in earnings and employment.

4. Age

MDTA--There was no consistent relationship between age and the impact of training.

5. Indices of Maturity and Family Responsibilities

MDTA--The two studies which investigated the issue found no consistent relationship between the effectiveness of training and marital status, status as a household head, or number of dependents.

6. Previous Labor Market Experience

MDTA--Persons with a history of extensive unemployment prior to enrolling in MDTA had larger increases in earnings due to training than those who had been employed or those who had been unemployed for shorter periods. One study (Olympus Research Corporation, 1971) found that those trainees with the lowest earnings and wage rates prior to training experienced the largest increases in earnings and wage rates.[18]

In summarizing his discussion of the differential impacts of training, Goldstein cautions:

> We have couched our discussion in terms of increases in earnings due to training and the rates of return on investment. These are important measures of program success and economic efficiency, but their significance can be overemphasized. Although some of the research results suggest that the gains in earnings have been large relative to costs, they have not been large by conventional, social standards. It is sobering to

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18 U. S. Congress, Jon H. Goldstein, Ed., Joint Economic Committee, Studies in Public Welfare, Paper No. 3, The Effectiveness of Manpower Training Programs: A Review of Research on the Impact on the Poor, A Staff Study Prepared for the Use of the Subcommittee on Fiscal Policy (Washington: Government Printing Office, November 20, 1972), pp. 2-12.

note that even those studies with the most optimistic results estimate average post-training annual earnings levels well below the poverty line.[19]

Goldstein has a strong concern for the improvement of the evaluation process. He sees glaring deficiencies in the use of control groups and short observation periods. He believes that evaluation should be continuous and an ongoing procedure, not a one-shot measurement in even an optimal design. For numerous reasons, which are related to assignment of the evaluation task to program administrators and the suspect of bias, he believes that an independent agency, accountable to Congress, should be responsible for appraisal. His perception of the dollar cost of appraisal may be insightful.

> The robust expenditures for research and evaluation of training programs ($179.4 million from fiscal 1962 through 1972) are a disturbing contrast to the anemic set of conclusive and reliable findings. Although some of the data may be necessary management information, much of what is collected as a matter of course by program administrators cannot be used to estimate the impact of training and determine the effectiveness of the program.[20]

THE UNIVERSAL CRY AND PLEA FOR COORDINATION

However justifiable and easily made, the criticism of manpower training programs in terms of overlap and duplication is overwhelming. Generally, the commentary becomes quite meaningless, unless it is related to specific problems of administration, organization, training, welfare, poverty, employment, clientele, and a myriad of other factors. In the current literature, particularly concerning the passage of CETA and revenue sharing and their implications for state and local roles in manpower training, there is acute apprehension and wariness. One can detect sensitivity of this nature in reviewing state manpower plans to which reference has been made earlier in this chapter. Their concerns include: (1) the need for city and state cooperation to improve services to minority groups; (2) support of the CAMPS approach to unify city-state relations; (3) the state's role in revenue sharing; (4) the identification of needs at the local level; and (5) the linkage of CAMPS with governors' task forces.

Predominant in the coordination theme are the recommendations leveled at the federal agencies. At first, these suggestions appear to be administrative, but they contain strong political overtones. In "Design for A Federal Manpower Agency," Levitan and Mangum make an analysis and provide a rubric fashioned around the framework of: (1) maintaining the status quo; (2) improving coordination; (3) strengthening

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19 Ibid., p. 14.

20 Ibid.

Congressional oversight; and (4) creating a unified manpower agency. In the present system, they indicate, there is considerable premium on local initiative to choose among federal funding sources. The result may be a toss up, they intimate, between survival of the fittest or survival of those with the most political savvy. "At any rate, the distribution of funds does not necessarily reflect need. The final defense of the status quo seems to be mere resignation: 'Unification of the manpower agencies is not in the political cards, so let's learn to live with proliferation.' While this solution may turn out to be adequate for the politician, it does not satisfy the analyst."[21]

Although there have been positive efforts of coordination at national and local levels which have improved a difficult situation, informal coordination has made programs workable--formal coordination has accomplished little. The latter suffers from lack of enforcement powers. Not disparaging mutual self-interest, in view of the many weighty problems and priorities of the President's Office, and the leadership of the Bureau of the Budget and its competition for Presidential influence, Levitan and Mangum conclude: "Risking political and religious blasphemy, an analogy can be made to the United Nations with ultimate resort only to warfare or to God whose Ear often appears to be turned away."[22]

One should not assume that the major coordination "bug" was lodged between competing agencies of the federal government. Generally, a great deal of incoordination was found to be intra-agency rather than inter-agency. Over the history of MDTA, however, considerable progress in coordination has been made, and hopefully, this positive value will serve both during the transition from MDTA to CETA and after the former has been phased out. However, the caution of some observers goes beyond a "wait-and-see" attitude. They seem to perceive the manpower training program by whatever acronym as huge, complex, and cumbersome, and the watchword essentially will remain--live with the system. Possibly, the tongue-in-cheek reservation is well taken for program administrators and personnel responsible for the program, but for members of target groups and recipients of services and tax expenditures the posture is totally indefensible.

Quoted previously in this report, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education showed strong concern for coordination of another nature--that which should exist between manpower training and vocational education. NACVE's recommendations to the federal government, although

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21 Sar A. Levitan and Garth L. Mangum, Making Sense of Federal Manpower Policy (Washington: National Manpower Policy Task Force, 1967), pp. 20-24.

22 Ibid., p. 22.

they were made at the close of 1969, are more appropriate at the present time, with the advent of CETA, local determination, and revenue sharing:

1. Require that communities develop coordinated plans for reducing both the flow of untrained youth and the pool of unemployed adults.

2. Focus Federal support for community colleges and other two-year post-secondary institutions on vocational and technical programs as career preparation.

3. Overhaul the Federal administrative organization to permit the Federal government to exercise leadership in vocational education as well as manpower training.[23]

An interesting, but frustrating corollary to the recommendations of NACVE shows that two years later the Council was raising the question and the assertion:

> Is anybody really listening? We do not think so! "In this, our Fifth Report, the Council wishes to examine those forces which have prevented the adoption of some of the recommendations of the first four reports. While the mood of the National Advisory Council today is one of impatience, the Council senses the mood of the public as punitive."[24]

In a broad examination of coordination, Kruger sees the nation moving from a policy of exclusion to one of inclusion. "All three manpower problems--development, maintenance, and utilization--come to the fore in the nation's efforts to expand employment opportunities for minorities and women, a most important social change affecting the operation of the labor market." Civil rights legislation has sparked the policy of inclusion, and it is ironical that minorities, especially blacks, forced American institutions to re-examine their ways of operating. Social efficiency, then, has become the new measurement of accountability.

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23 National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, op. cit., pp. 4-5.

24 National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, Fifth Report (Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, June 21, 1971), p. 1.

It is not a question, however, of either economic efficiency or social efficiency. It is a matter of the integrated combination of the two. Improving social efficiency, both in the organization and in the society, through improved utilization of human resources, raises economic efficiency. Moreover, social efficiency is an integral part of democratic government. It is for this reason that institutions both private and public must be evaluated against the nation's social goals and objectives.[25]

In looking back at the dozen years of MDTA and its trials and tribulations, any enumeration of the many instances of program overlap and duplication, while they may be legion, may be better taken as a positive learning experience rather than a solidification of prejudices. There are plainly too many cases and illustrations of the lack of coordination and the override of duplication, the "horror stories" which are cited in a Congressional Committee Print of 1968. Its summary paragraph may exemplify learning from the past for application in the future.

These are "horror stories" of the type which make good newspaper copy but which cannot be taken as typical. But they do illustrate some of the problems faced by local administrators in initiating and operating federally supported manpower programs: (1) Multiagency administration of particular programs results in delays in review and approval of proposals, (2) various combinations of Federal, State, and local agencies are often in competition to serve the same clientele, (3) programs and facilities may be duplicated and not fully utilized, (4) State and local officials are confused by the variety of programs and the sophisticated (and often the most needy) fail to get their full share of available Federal support, (5) uncertainty or delays in refunding often cause disintegration of carefully constructed staffs and programs, (6) each Federal funding source tends to generate its own local constituency encouraging proliferation at the local level; and (7) the overhead costs are increased.[26]

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25 Daniel H. Kruger, "Manpower Problems in the 1970's," A Lecture Delivered as a Visiting Scholar at the University of Rhode Island, December 5, 1973 (East Lansing: School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Michigan State University, 1973), p. 15. (mimeographed.)

26 U. S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, op. cit., p. 345.

There seems to be great enthusiasm and optimism for the future direction of the manpower program.

> CETA also encourages another essential element of improved programming: the coordination of program planning and review of non-CETA-financed manpower activity with the activities of program sponsors. It has always been apparent that many diverse groups and institutions had to work together on common problems. CAMPS was a major thrust in this direction. Now CETA greatly extends the possibility of such cooperation by establishing State Manpower Services Councils and prime sponsors planning councils on which relevant groups will be represented. It also encourages common program planning and the development of standards of evaluation that will enable program managers to compare the results of various programs.[27]

SUMMARY

The literature is replete with many perceptions about manpower training and vocational education. Both constructive and destructive criticism, however valid, center around many issues of the two programs and their roles in relation to employment, poverty, welfare, and the alleviation of the many ills of the disadvantaged. For purposes of this report, the observations and commentary are grouped according to general impressions and documented appraisal.

Great benefit from MDTA has accrued to trainees and clients. The expenditure has been justified with positive returns. MDTA has had a beneficial influence on vocational education in many ways. The opposite also has been true. Yet, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education has made a strong stand for prevention versus remediation by advocating the reduction of the "flow" rather than the "pool" of the unemployed and by emphasizing the need for realistic appropriations to counter the prevailing thrust of manpower policy and funding.

Organized labor, at least at the national level, has been reserved in its support of training. The unions continue to stress the need for additional, better-paying, and more meaningful jobs promising advancement. Labor contends that employers must not be subsidized by training which affords no future, unrealistic job placement, and poverty level wages. Some craft unions have opposed training as a threat to apprenticeship programs.

The sincere and true place of vocational education in education, and in the public schools, is obscure and troublesome. As historic preparation for the professions, education by content and methodology has shown

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27 Manpower Report of the President, op. cit., p. 65.

little accomodation for the vocational and practical arts except possibly at the higher education level, where the "vocational" image is dispelled. More serious than the unpalatable image, vocational education challenges the relevance of the regular school program to the world outside.

General appraisals indicate the need for modernization of traditional vocational education programs. Some blame the inadequacies on Congress for not bolstering appropriations for the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the 1968 amendments. There is also the feeling that vocational legislation perpetuated the breach between general and vocational education regardless of the fact that the legislation did not create the dualism.

There are many limitations of formal research and evaluation of the manpower training effort. Researchers are not without prescriptions for making their studies more valid, but the size of the enterprise to begin with is unwieldly. The robust $179.4 million research expenditure for a ten-year span is disturbing in contrast "to the anemic set of conclusive and reliable findings." Unfortunately, earnings to the poor which result from training are decidedly below the poverty line.

There is a strong undercurrent of concern for ultimate benefit to the recipient, the target of the legislation and its provisions. Clients should be considered more than the instrument of production. Rather they must be given the opportunity to develop their full human potential. To what extent the failings of training programs, their administrations, their conditioning to live with the system have violated the opportunity and rights of participants remains the "holy grail" of the evaluation process.

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CHAPTER III

ACCEPTANCE, REJECTION, AND COMPROMISE— THE ATTITUDES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

By and large, the perceptions and attitudes of vocational educators are hard to come by, let alone generalize. Judging from the literature, one would assume that the economist is the chief commentator, moreover the interpreter. This circumstance, not to disparage the interest and involvement of the economist or his insights, raises a number of important questions not the least of which is whether there is a professional voice for vocational education. It is highly problemmatical that there is not, at least not in an integrated sense of a true profession. What little research there is reveals the peculiar basic loyalties and underlying provincialism of the "profession": (1) first, to the individual school or system, (2) second, to the level or area of teaching, and (3) only third, to the precepts and commitment of the profession. As Darland comments, "One might be a little uneasy if one felt that such a condition prevailed in medicine."[1] He classifies the strong forces of provincialism by examples:

1. The mutual distrust between people from lower education and higher education

2. The state and regional loyalties that emerge at any national educational forum

3. The fact that the teaching profession tends to pattern its organization upon the way in which education is organized rather than create a new pattern which is independent and autonomous[2]

Perhaps examples of this nature are characteristic of many groups, traditional and emerging, which call themselves professionals. This fact is true of medicine and its continuing struggle with government and health care of the nation.[3] But the comparison is awkward, and the vocationalist finds himself caught in the middle between failure to organize with other professionals and unionization. As vocational education increasingly utilizes personnel from other professions (medicine, law, engineering, etc.) and other occupations including card-carrying journeymen, there are, indeed, mixed loyalties and consequently, splintered

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[1]David D. Darland, "Preparation in the Governance of the Profession," Teachers for the Real World (Washington: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), p. 139

[2]Ibid.

[3]Stuart Auerbach, "AMA Faces Battle Over Checks on Quality," The Washington Post, June 23, 1974, p. A-2.

thrust for unification and stewardship of a system of vocational education and manpower development. To make matters worse, there is little, if any, attention paid to education of the profession of the vocationalist in undergraduate and graduate programs of preparation. It is highly probable that there will be, if indeed there is not already, a profession of "manpowerists"--a much needed group of promise, if it can focus dedication and stewardship to the poor, disadvantaged, and minorities at the expense of allegiance to multi-level bureaucracies and regulations.

One can easily jump to the conclusion as it is intimated in the literature that the profession of the vocationalist is represented by the American Vocational Association. Regardless of its educational and political success of the past, the notion of the organization should be held with some reservations: (1) the American Vocational Association presently enrolls 53,000 members out of an estimated potential of 230,000; (2) its purposes are too many and varied to serve professional unity and influence; (3) its organization is cumbersome and complex; and (4) its legitimizing leadership, often hidden to the eye, but acknowledged in the literature, clings to traditional control by state agency personnel and the various vocational services which were established in federal legislation over the years. As a matter of conjecture, if one considers the overall vocational contribution of business, industry, labor, management, and the private sector of the economy, the federal program is indeed, miniscule. Optimistically, the younger generation of vocationalists is most ardent and supportive of the concerns and pronouncements of the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education on its behalf.

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF MANPOWER TRAINING ON THE PART OF VOCATIONALISTS

Many vocational educators have welcomed MDTA and have been very supportive of its goals, particularly when they are translated to serve the target population. Many vocational personnel have changed their full time employment to careers in manpower training, and they seem to find a great deal of satisfaction in their work and contribution. They appear to be enthusiastic about some of the innovative spirit of manpower training, its flexibility, and the presence of fewer constraints to program organization and operation. Finding ultimate rewards in their trainees and their employment, they feel that the costs of training have been paid back and that the total effort has been very worthwhile. Most important in the views of these educators is the nature of the clientele of manpower programs: the unemployed, disadvantaged, the members of minority groups, and the poor. There seems to be a suggestion that vocational education is reaching for sophistication--it is "upward" bound. The pro-MDTA educators see great merit in the CAMPS coordination mechanism and the establishment and use of skill centers despite an occasional competitor.

At least some reflection of this favorable influence and spillover is seen in the Manpower Report of the President (1974) in its section related to "Community Educational Resources." The writer indicates that MDTA has served as a catalyst for change and illustrates reinforcement of career education as an example. He concludes, "As Mangum and Walsh observe, 'Much of the credit for the improvements which have been made in vocational education (over the past decade) should go to MDTA'"[4] While

[4]Manpower Report of the President, op. cit., p. 184.

it is highly debatable that the credit for improvement should go to MDTA, there have been very positive accruals, and Mangum and Walsh illustrate some of these.

> It is difficult to isolate the impact of manpower experience upon vocational-technical education, but it is undoubtedly significant. The emergence of a National Manpower Training Association as a constituent group within the American Vocational Association enhances that influence, as well as giving manpower staffs vestiges of professionalization . . . . Skills Centers did not invent onsite counseling, cluster training, and open-entry/open-exit individualized instruction and basic education linked to skills training, but they enhanced the development of these concepts and broadened their exposure within vocational training. Individual referrals are also a useful development, supporting the possibilities of voucher systems for the retraining and upgrading of adults.[5]

To be sure, there are many unsavory criticisms of manpower training and their administrations which are voiced by vocationalists. The criticisms run the gamut from "meddling" in the schools' business to alleged narrowness of the training. Levitan labels the former as the most important source of irritation on the part of local vocational education authorities, but his commentary is now ten years old and begs the question of what vestiges of it still persist.[6] From any level of government to another, from many causes, the "meddling" issue invariably arises. At the heart of the issue is jurisdiction.

No doubt, some of the negative attitudes have emerged from another issue of the sixties, expectancies and confusion about the role of the schools in general, and the role of vocational education in particular. Belitsky, in looking at the composition of school boards and their make-up of professional, business, and religious leaders, observed that they tended to both separate general and vocational education and devote principal attention to the general program.[7] While the relationship of the attitude to the acceptance of manpower training programs is not clear, there is a strong inference from a vocationalist point of view that the role of the school is in an ugly predicament.

> Dr. Walter Arnold, a former Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education in the U.S. Office of Education, has observed that the public schools are "literally boxed-in." The schools and their students are expected to fit into a pattern; otherwise either the school or the student is declared a failure. Given this necessity, the schools have then been inconsistently criticized for failing to take care of individual problems among their students.[8]

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[5] Ibid., p. 182.

[6] Levitan, op. cit., p. 35.

[7] Belitsky, op. cit., p. 140.

[8] Ibid.

The curriculum of the school, especially the vocational one, traditionally has been ripe for criticism. The content of manpower training courses is equally vulnerable, and spokemen from vocational education have been vocal.

> Many, particularly vocational educators, have criticized the MDT program for the narrowness and brevity of its courses and its attachment to present rather than future labor market demands. They aver that the training may be only for future displacement in the future. A related charge is that the anxiety to return the trainee to employment encourages training for low-skilled, low-paid, high turnover jobs for which training is not actually required by the job content though it may be to provide access for the trainees involved.[9]

Sommers and Little have recently looked at the present and future of vocational education and its many relationships to manpower training. Their writing shows no apparent bias in reporting the many favorable and unfavorable aspects of the partnership. They report: (1) little effectiveness of local MDTA advisory committees (in the opinions of vocational educators); (2) good infusion of MDTA funds which were unburdened by the customary matching requirements; (3) great enthusiasm for the establishment of skills centers and their many offerings and services, despite drawbacks in lack of staff, program continuity, and project-basis staffing and financing; (4) and MDTA data and feedback system of current vocational education and training; and (5) good accomplishment in experimental and demonstration programs, and the recruitment of personnel with fresh ideas in many program areas.[10]

At least in an informal sense, Project Baseline data, information, assertions speak for the vocational community. In Volume I, Chapter X, "Strengths and Weaknesses of Vocational Education and Manpower Training," there is considerable description of some of the same factors which are being treated in this supplementary report. Baseline authors frankly indicate that not all of the facts are in, but the picture is sufficiently clear. In attempting to be constructive in their criticism, the authors isolate several high priority areas of improvement: (1) there is costly duplication of effort; (2) coordination and cooperation do exist and are working well in some states; (3) CAMPS committees and state manpower agencies have been particularly successful; (4) duplication of resources is a major problem; (5) there is glaring lack of coordination in welfare provisions; (9) there is a continuing problem of the "drifting" trainee who piggybacks from one training program to another; and (7) federal funds are misdirected. Some of the striking and impressive data and information may be summarized as follows:

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[9]Levitan, and Mangum, op. cit., p. 90.

[10]Gerald C. Sommers, and J. Kenneth Little, Vocational Education: Today and Tomorrow (Madison: Center for Studies in Vocational and Technical Education, University of Wisconsin, 1971), pp. 164-284.

1. Costly duplication of effort. The great majority of programs are located in urban and metropolitan areas, and the persons intended to benefit from each of the manpower programs administered through the U.S. Department of Labor are also being served by vocational education administered through the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Vocational education enrolls ninety-three percent of all trainees in vocational education and manpower programs combined.

2. Duplication of resources is a major problem. For every Federal dollar per trainee spent on manpower programs, vocational education programs receive only two cents of Federal support per student. This ratio--50 to 1--is hard to justify. Lack of adequate financial resources is the major deterrent in providing vocational education for every youth and adult who needs to be trained or retrained. Federal expenditures for vocational education result in more persons trained than in manpower programs administered through the U.S. Department of Labor; disparity to a considerable degree, at least, is due to the emergency or "crash" nature of manpower programs compared with the more established role of vocational education programs.

3. Lack of coordination is glaring in welfare provisions. This fact is true in most manpower programs, especially those under EOA. Widespread dissatisfaction is reflected in this newer approach to welfare through training for employment. Inasmuch as all other welfare programs are administered by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, existing complex problems are compounded when training programs with welfare provisions are administered by an entirely different Federal department, different state agencies, and different local agencies. Adminstration should be by the same agencies or coordinated by law.

4. The "drifting" trainee may be a product of mixed responsibility. It may also result in duplication of training. There is wide dispersion of responsibility for EOA training programs, and it poses a basic problem in the states. Drifting "professional" trainees go from one program to another for the sole purpose of receiving the support benefits while in training, some state agency personnel report.

5. The direction of Federal funds should be questioned. In 1970-71, $509 million was spent for training 300,000 persons in EOA programs; another $335 million was spent for training 500,000 persons in MDTA. For training 9 million persons in vocational education, $393 million was spent. If there is a concern for government spending, "When funds are used to train individuals at a cost of

44 times as much in one program as in another, and twice as much money is appropriated for the former than the latter, spending limitations would seem to call for a different approach to budgeting and appropriations."[11]

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION--REJECTION OR COMPROMISE?

The question is essentially an old one. An historic answer was supplied by the Congress in the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. While the academic community is still reluctant to accept the verdict, the general image of vocational education is slowly improving with public disillusionment with the college-bound track for everyone. The question of vocational education or manpower training, more specifically their administration, is also an old one. Although resolution of the issue through Congressional opinion and intent occurred in 1962 with MDTA, the training ambitions of the Department of Labor were very much in evidence in the late 1940s. Notably, in aspiring to get into the training act, the Labor Department's strategy was most sensitive and apparent to the trade and industrial specialist in vocational education. Whether or not the department's involvement was inevitable, it provoked the question which has prevailed in the minds of vocationalists, "What agency or institution is responsible for vocational education?" Implicit in the question is the assumption that manpower training and vocational education are essentially the same. But training, at least its administration, remains very precious to the Department of Labor notwithstanding its lack of expertise in relation to the learning process.

Contemporary perceptions of vocationalists are mixed, and with good reason. Fortunately, unless it has been sparked by the concept of career education, the image of vocational education at least has not been confused by charisma. There are many strong advocates who insist that vocational education is the name of the game regardless of periodic attempts to glamorize it or have it assume an aura of academia or respectability. On the other hand, over the past decade there has been another charismatic force--money--to reckon with in the vocational program. Successive injections of new money, however adequate to do the job, and enabling legislation have conferred another image upon vocational education and perhaps thrust greatness on it. Almost in the nature of a cliche, everyone is in the training act. Possibly due to the elimination of categorical grants, looser arrangements of block, revenue sharing, and consolidation forms of allocating the nation's money, together with the advent of the area vocational school, an organization of instruction which was once premature and too dramatic to win immediate acceptance of the general public has become a true bonanza of exploitation. Even the private researcher and the multi-disciplined personnel of the prestigious universities have cultivated a dedicated interest in it. Business and

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[11]Lee, and Sartin, Vol. I, op. cit., pp. 410-13.

industry in the private sector have become ardent participants in the training-for-money enterprise. Their involvement is well documented in the late 1960s during the era of the conglomerates. A small sampling of industries including ITT, U.S. Industries, Inc., the Bell and Howell Company, Lear Sigler, Inc., Litton Industries, Inc., and a bevy of smaller companies such as American Motor Inns started their own schools where pupils learned various skills for a fee.[12] Since then, some schools have fallen by the wayside, but the attractiveness of training for profit on the part of the private sector is a very live concern of both the Federal Trade Commission whose watch-dog investigation looks at integrity and business practices, and the Washington Post whose conclusions result from months of reporting of the profit-seeking sector in the Post's recent series, "The Knowledge Hustlers." The government, it states, has failed to protect both young Americans and the taxpayer from fraud and needless financial losses.

> The multibillion-dollar industry has thousands of members, from mom-and-pop secretarial schools in small Southern towns to nationwide chains and correspondence course factories owned by International Telephone and Telegraph, Control Data, Bell and Howell, Montgomery Ward and other large corporations.
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> While enrollment figures vary widely, the Federal Trade Commission has estimated that industrywide total at more than 3 million students--which would be at least one-third of the total for all public and private non-profit colleges and universities. Bell and Howell alone recently reported 150,000 students in its correspondence courses and another 10,000 in classrooms, which would make it as large as the entire University of California system.[13]

Thus, there seems to be a great deal of credence to the newer cliches--"everyone is in the training act," and "vocational education is good for everyone." Vocational education is popular, indeed.

For too long, too many vocational educators have resented the role and domination of the U.S. Office of Education regardless of the strong attachment to the reimbursable program felt by the Congress and the administration. Unfortunately, few officials have marshalled sufficient clout to improve the situation. The professional attitude, and it is not reserved and confined to that of the vocationalist, has been sharpened by the dual administration of manpower training. It is truly an ungainly problem to review the historic and original commission of the Office of Education, namely, the role of statistician of the nation's schools and its current power in the control of education. Congress

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[12] "Major Concerns Finding Profits in Vocational Teaching," The New York Times, December 6, 1969, p. 4.

[13] Eric Wentworth, "Schools to Make Money: Deception and Exploitation is Charged" (First of a Series of The Knowledge Hustlers), The Washington Post, June 23, 1974, pp. A-1 - A-12.

periodically has investigated the efficiency of USOE's 1910 commission, and it is still asking the question in this age of data processing and the high speed computer.

> ED STATISTICS IN "SORRY STATE," PERKINS SAYS. "The collection and dissemination of educational statistics today is in a sorry state," House General Education Subcommittee Chairman Carl Perkins (D-Ky.) told Office of Education representatives recently as he asked their views on legislation he is introducing to improve the situation. And while Education Commissioner John Ottina insisted there is "no need" for specific legislation such as Perkins' H.R. 13991, cosponsored by ranking Committee Republican Albert Quie (Minn.), he did concede that there is room for improvement in OE's current operations. The proposed bill would require HEW to study and report on Federal education statistics.
>
> "They're A Little Old," Ottina Admits. The "as of" date of statistical publications issued by OE's National Center for Education Statistics is generally about 26 months earlier than the date of release, Ottina said, and the time range is from 9 months ("a quick turnaround") to four years.[14]

At least one news commentator has quipped that it is easier to pass a new law than it is to change a bureaucrat's method of operations. The reporting of statistics may be a case in point. Other influences of the Office of Education and its leadership are equally far-reaching and more pervasive. The Congress itself seems to be confused about the role it would choose for the Office of Education--a money-dispensing machine or an effective strategy for reforming American education. The profession of education seems to listen, await, and abide. On occasion, such as in the appointment of a new U.S. Commissioner of Education, there is an analysis of the huge demands of the job, its priorities, and constraints. Samuel Halperin published an analysis of this nature, and its insights are typical of the following tight-rope antics of the Office and its "new man."

> Over the years, then, the bulk of OE's personnel has been devoted to "getting the money out" with as little controversy as possible. When Presidents, HEW Secretaries, or Commissioners desire "new thrusts" and "new leadership," the tendency, rather than to "turn existing programs around," has been to seek new legislation mandating the desired innovation.

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[14]Emily C. Harris, (ed.), Report on Education Research (Washington: Capital Publications, Inc., May 22, 1974), p. 4.

> New leaders are unlikely to hold ardently to the discretionary priorities of their predecessors while, at the same time, they require funds to do their "own thing" in education. In the insightful words of former OE research chief James Gallagher, old commitments, "their political glamor worn off," have their places taken "by new, bright, and shiny programs that are polished by hope and unsullied by experience. . . . The plans designed in past years become the victims of persons who have no sense of history or respect for programs begun before their entrance upon the scene, but who are eager to pursue their own pet projects 'to make their own mark' in Washington."[15]

The U.S. Office of Education's role and its domination cast in this context, then, is disastrous to vocational education and its profession. Perhaps to a lesser extent, the same predicament with another bureaucracy, in fact, two bureaucracies, has been the lot of manpower training. More profound than the welfare and destiny of either vocational education or manpower training, what is the net result to the intended benefactors of the programs?

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[15] Samuel Halperin, "Agenda for the New Man at the U. S. Office of Education," (Washington: U. S. Congress, Congressional Record--Senate, December 11, 1970), pp. 520039-42.

SUMMARY

The profession of education and particularly that of vocational education is complex and frequently confusing. The confusion is made more complex by the advent of unionism and its effects upon the organization of all educational personnel at all levels. The current state of the nation's economy will have a strong influence on the ultimate organization of the profession. The two central issues, self-governance and control of education, generally are not recognized by professionals themselves.

Traditionally, vocational education has organized itself along the lines of federal legislation and administration; the orgauization of vocational education has been dominated by the Office of Education and its regulations and their influence upon state departments of education. The hallmark of an integrated profession suggests quite the opposite organization and influence. Consequently, the influence of the federal program of reimbursement has inhibited and made political the development of programs for the preparation of professional personnel, curriculum thrust and revision, and meaningful research and its utilization.

Many vocational educators are enthusiastic about the manpower training program, its flexibility, its provision of equipment for training programs, and perhaps most of all for its concentration upon the needs of its trainees and clientele. These vocational educators, many of whom are full time employees of the manpower program, have some reservations regarding the acceptance of the disadvantaged and other target groups by vocational education. These reservations imply that vocational education has developed a stronger overriding concern for the clientele of post-secondary programs--an "upward bound" thrust compensating for the downgraded image of the past, which has not been dispelled.

The ever-present criticism, meddling by the federal government in local affairs, seems to be a persistent complaint and irritation of local vocational educators.

The findings and recommendations of Project Baseline include the following: (1) there is costly duplication; (2) coordination and cooperation are working well in some states; (3) good success is seen in CAMPS committees and state manpower agencies; (4) duplication of resources is a major problem; (5) coordination is lacking in welfare and training provisions and operations; (6) the "drifting" trainee is a continuing problem; and (7) federal funds are misdirected.

The development of vocational education over the past decade has attracted increased interest and support among the public and private sectors of the economy. While the chief motivation has been finanical profit, other charismatic features have gained broad appeal: career education, renewal, competency-based and performance-based objectives, and innovation. These factors, together with a growing recognition that vocational education is especially pertinent to the nature and ethic of work in America, have bestowed great popularity on the field. Despite the development and growing popularity of vocational education and manpower training, they have won dubious recognition in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Office of Education. This enigma continues to be a sensitive irritation, however old, to some vocationalists.

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CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THIS REPORT

Possibly some, many, or all of the implications and recommendations of this report already are affected to varying degrees by the emergence of CETA in 1973, the transition of MDTA to CETA, and the current review and evaluation of federal legislation for vocational education. No doubt, political and administrative influences upon the two programs will not be as obvious as the mold which may have been cast in CETA or the design of vocational education after oversight. It is hoped that the two will be complementary and uncompetitive, that, suffering the rigors of revenue sharing, the transition of MDTA to CETA will be expedited and new vocational education legislation will be enacted with effective and ample appropriations.

It is apparent that Congress continually must examine manpower training and vocational education, not as separate entities, but as an integrated vehicle of manpower policy. Regardless of the twelve years of MDTA and the recent passage of CETA, the formulation of manpower policy is fragmented and patched not unlike the legislation which has supported it and vocational education over the years. The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education also has an unique and strategic role. As a third agent, vocationalists, in spite of the complex nature of the vocational education community, have the educational and political potential to assist Congress and the NACVE in the determination of policy and the implementation of training and education.

Implications and recommendations for the future are seen readily in the glaring issues of both vocational education and manpower development. Genuine solutions are more difficult to come by. Levitan and Mangum indicate that the issues are historic, unresolved, and critical.

(1) Should the program's objectives emphasize upgrading the labor force or rehabilitating the disadvantaged?

(2) What are the relative advantages, and what should be the balance between institutional training and OJT?

(3) What should be the relative federal and state roles in policy and operation?

(4) Is a permanent program needed, and what should be its nature and size?[1]

With all of the economic, social, and political discords of our time, it is probably later than we think for opportune evaluation and action for the future. It is very evident that Congress needs to deal with unification of the vocational program itself and its relation to education

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[1]Levitan and Mangum, op. cit., p. 88.

at all levels. Realistically, Congress cannot reconcile all of the petty bickering among multi-level and multi-specializations of vocational education and the manpower program. But the determination of policy, integration of administration, and assumption of responsibility will go a long way in smoothing off the rough edges of many aspects of both programs. If, indeed, we have had our era of trial and experimentation in both manpower training and vocational education, it would seem that there must be a new and viable synthesis for effective programs in the immediate future.

The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education should have an especially strategic role in examining all of the hindsight and foresight. Most important, it seems to speak with a voice of spirit and mission, possibly unorthodox for the acceptance of the traditional vocational educator. But pragmatic it is, and the voice of realism is greatly needed in occupational education, whatever form it takes, today and in the future. NACVE's acknowledged and legal commission, if not outwardly a buffer for the Office of Education's disregard and default of the stewardship of vocational education, is evaluation. Its voice should be in the forefront of practitioner views of vocational education, and its mission should be strongly flavored by the forthrightness which it has shown in the past. Linkages with the chain of state advisory councils should support and reinforce its effectiveness in representing the needs of Americans and a dedicated, efficient national system to meet them.

There is a postulate of all vocational and manpower programs. One cannot miss the implication of the prerequisite and its relation to any recommendation for the improvement of the total manpower effort. The client, student, or trainee, by whatever name or label he or she may bear, is the "human" of human resources. Too much of the literature of education and training reflects the extent to which these individuals and their target populations fall through the cracks of programs, their administrations, and the maze of regulations which seemingly take precedence over human welfare and benefit. Along the age continuum, provisions especially for youth are meager, and the disregard of decades perpetuates many of the conditions which necessitate repeated remedies. Surely, educators should be able to reconcile their differences for the sake of our youth and the future.

With the new CETA, nonetheless with the future of vocational education, there is an impressive concern for judging the effectiveness of programs and provisions. Judgement of this nature usually is couched in the language of evaluation, assessment, appraisal, accreditation, and the most recent coinage, accountability. While the terminology has its peculiar function, the essential component of responsibility easily is shifted and passed over. There remains the implication that there is a process which is vital and a product to be determined and that Congress should reckon strongly with monitoring quantity and quality, even though the latter is especially difficult to define, let alone determine. In the past, vocational education has supported efforts to examine the process and product of programs. However, there is a dubious relationship between these self-imposed reviews and the actual pay-off to the student, a present concern for "the interest of the public." It begs a

very serious question of the future, "When and to what extent will the Congress ultimately demand a strict accounting for all of its measures and provisions in the public and private sectors for all aspects of the vast job training enterprise?" Full accountability has many tangents and components: skill in evaluation; administration of the responsibility; making adjustments in operation and instruction; and training of personnel involved in the process. One need of both manpower training and vocational education is crystal clear, and both the Congress and NACVE should face up to it. The success of both programs will be related directly to the quality of personnel who operate them, and it will demand a great deal more than the lip-service that has been paid to the value and competency of instructors and other operating personnel. Outside of the unusual effort of Congressman Carl Perkins in the late sixties to put teeth in the preparation of vocational personnel, there seems to be little concern and recognition of the need. Regardless of his effort and the noble authorizations of Title II of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, subsequent levels of appropriations, farming out the personnel preparation function to the Office of Education Bureau of Professional Personnel Development, and political attitudes of state departments of education have woefully neglected or watered down the function. The meager discretionary money which has been attached to the token effort since 1968 has been diverted by USOE's enchantment with the charisma of career education and the determination to what extent vocational funds should pay for it. By and large, funding and administration of vocational research and curriculum development have followed a similar confused political course of events.

The issue of responsibility and accountability is complicated by the pitfalls of decentralization and revenue sharing of the manpower program, as well as the possibility that the vocational program may embrace consolidation grant funding in the new federalism. A policy statement of the Committee for Economic Development suggests a recommendation which the federal government should observe. It seems to be more appropriate today than it was in 1970.

> Within guidelines established by the federal plan, state and local agencies should have responsibility for planning and administering manpower development programs. However, because many state and local governments lack capacity either for planning or for vigorous administration, the federal government should retain responsibility for reviewing and approving those state and local manpower development plans which will be federally funded, and of monitoring the administrative effectiveness of ongoing programs. Finally, the federal government should be prepared to take the initiative in establishing manpower development programs in regions that are incapable of providing their own.[2]

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[2] Research and Policy Committee, Training and Jobs for the Urban Poor, A Statement on National Policy (New York: Committee for Economic Development, July 1970), p. 16.

In reinforcement of the Committee for Economic Development's stand, Levitan and Taggart have strong reservations of local autonomy. "On the other hand, if the programs are operated autonomously by local governments, community groups which now deliver manpower services and are often a useful countervailing force against city halls, will wither away."

> Perhaps an even greater problem from the standpoint of evaluating social experimentation is that as control is decentralized, and as block grants are increasingly used, it will become even more difficult to measure the aggregate impact of federal monies, to test alternate approaches, or to find out whether desired ends are being served. It is no accident that the best statistics to date are available for the federally operated Job Corps program, while the worst are those of decentralized efforts, such as the Vocational Education and community action programs.[3]

In summary, the ten-point recommendation and plan of Kruger seem to offer a viable blueprint for the comprehensive planning of the manpower training and vocational education delivery system. His testimony, although it was made in 1972 and adjustments have been made, is still relevant. The following includes major implications and recommendations for manpower training and policy development:

1. Consolidation of programs.

2. Mandated groups of workers to be served.

3. A meaningful and manageable role for the Federal, State and local government agencies and non-profit agencies involved in the planning and delivery of manpower services.

4. A more pronounced role for the State either through designating the governor as the State Manpower Agent or through mandating a state comprehensive manpower agency.

5. New institutional arrangements to foster and improve federal-state-local governmental relations through a Manpower Review Board or some similar arrangement.

6. Clarification of the role of public service employment

   (a) assign it a permanent role in the nation's manpower programs
   (b) eliminate the transitional requirement
   (c) utilize regional unemployment data as the trigger mechanism

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[3] Levitan and Taggart, op. cit., p. 70.

7. Improve the functioning of the labor market

   (a) national computerized job bank
   (b) better labor and job market information
   (c) encouraging development of one-stop centers to provide manpower services

8. Improve the delivery of manpower services

   (a) mandating accountability
   (b) establishing some kind of due process mechanism and providing for applicant rights and responsibilities
   (c) more emphasis on staff training including inter-agency training

9. Funding

   (a) adequate level of funding
   (b) advance funding

10. Establishment of a National Institute for Manpower Policy.[4]

More specific to the nature and purpose of this report, although the above ideas and recommendations of Kruger are pertinent to the vocational education program, the Baseline Report recommends a series of actions which should be taken. Its recommendations are the result of two years of activity and study of the status and future of the vocational and manpower training programs; in-depth information and documentation of the recommendations are detailed in its publications. The following is a ten-point summary:

1. Legal and administrative coordination of all Federally supported manpower and vocational education programs should be established.

2. A higher proportion of Federal appropriation should be allocated for vocational education.

3. Post-secondary and adult programs should receive first priority in an increase of Federal experditures for vocational education.

4. Vocational education at the secondary level should continue to place increasing emphasis on clusters of occupationally related programs.

5. Congress and the State legislatures should provide some kind of special funding for a follow-up system in all institutions where Federal and State funds are used to prepare persons for employment.

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[4]Kruger, op. cit., p. 20.

6. The recommendations made last year that Congress and the U. S. Office of Education begin consideration immediately of a new national education information system are being acted upon.

7. The use of Federal reporting forms in vocational education, with their problems in definitions and communications, should be discontinued, and the forms replaced by a national uniform reporting and accounting system.

8. New realistic definitions of "disadvantaged" and "handicapped" should be developed which can be applied logically to educational and employment training requirements, and used uniformly by all local and state educational agencies.

9. Congress and the U. S. Office of Education should either redefine the terms "post-secondary" and "adult" so that accurate and uniform data can be reported by the States, or new terminology more appropriate for the enrollment of persons beyond the secondary level should be adopted.

10. National level research should be undertaken to uncover the variables in educational management and in the general environment which contribute to each State's performance.[5]

SUMMARY

The implications and recommendations to Congress, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, and the vocational community at large, representing over a decade of experience with manpower training, are readily identified in the literature. The recent passage of CETA and the ongoing review of the progress of vocational education, while they may have problemmatical effects on the unification of the two programs, do hold promise for improvement and greater effectiveness. To what extent revenue sharing in CETA and consolidation grant funding in vocational education will thwart or implement the totality of Congressional intent for manpower training will remain a question of large magnitude. Hopefully there will be unification and the assumption of federal responsibility at the expense of expedient political action. If the last twelve years of manpower training (and vocational education) have been characterized by trial and error or social experimentation, a realistic synthesis of the training design as it is related to manpower policy should be forthcoming at an early date.

Four basic issues are historic, unresolved, and critical: (1) What is the prime objective of manpower training, rehabilitating the disad-

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[5]Lee and Sartin, Vol. II, op. cit., p. 374-77.

vantaged or upgrading the labor force? (2) What are the roles (and what are the advantages) of institutional training and on-the-job training? (3) In terms of policy and operation, what should be the federal and state roles? (4) Is the training program a stop-gap device, or should there be a permanent program?

Leadership and stewardship of the training program is not the exclusive province of the U. S. Department of Labor and the Manpower Administration. NACVE should make determined and strategic efforts to assert that the program is educational, and it should not be shunted to an alternative educational track for some Americans. The voice of the Council since 1968 has been refreshingly blunt, forthright, and agressive, and it has engendered enthusiastic and strong support for its proclamations. The research, study, and publications of Project Baseline, now in its third year, have produced what appear to be sound documentation and interpretation for a series of viable resolutions of inadequacies and recommendations for the future. Hopefully as a product of its third year of research and study, there will be additional data, analysis, and interpretation for re-direction of the vocational education and manpower training programs. The most recent recommendations of Project Baseline emphasize the following adjustments: (1) coordination of all manpower and vocational programs; (2) vocational education should receive a higher allocation of appropriations; (3) first priority for increased funding should go to post-secondary and adult vocational programs; (4) special funding is needed for follow-up of persons prepared for employment by all institutions which use federal and state funds; (5) a new, uniform reporting and accounting system should be established; (6) new definitions for "disadvantaged" and "handicapped" should be developed and used uniformly by all state and local educational agencies for application to educational and employment training requirements; (7) new terminology is needed for reporting of data of enrollment for adult and post-secondary populations of programs; and (8) there should be national research on the variables of educational management and its general environment which are related to individual states and their performance.

Vocational education and manpower training and development are not antithetical and competitive; they are compatible and should be supportive of each other in mutual dedication to the main objective of training in the nation's policy for manpower. Essentially, dedication must be to the citizens of America, the improvement of life and living for them, and their optimum growth and productivity in our democracy. This goal should be embraced by the vocational education community as it assists in the design of education for work, the operation and appraisal of programs, and the general stewardship of vocational education before the Congress and the nation.

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APPENDIX A

SELECTED TABLES

Table F-1. Enrollment Opportunities, First-Time Enrollments, and Federal Obligations for Work and Training Programs Administered by the Department of Labor, by Program, Fiscal Years 1963–73*

[Thousands]

Program	Total	FY 1973	FY 1972	FY 1971	FY 1970	FY 1969	FY 1968	FY 1967	FY 1966	FY 1965	FY 1963-64
Enrollment Opportunities											
Total	8,097.6	927.4	1,362.3	1,149.6	1,031.3	910.7	823.8	809.5	804.8	510.2	188.0
Manpower Development and Training Act	2,234.3	163.0	229.2	213.7	211.2	194.5	229.9	270.9	241.1	231.8	183.9
Institutional training	1,424.4	116.3	138.7	144.5	147.2	120.7	131.1	126.4	163.0	167.1	169.4
JOP-OJT [2]	809.9	66.7	90.5	69.2	64.0	77.8	98.8	144.5	118.1	64.7	14.6
Neighborhood Youth Corps	5,219.5	661.3	863.0	698.9	600.6	539.7	537.7	512.8	527.7	278.4	....
In school	1,054.4	111.3	101.6	78.8	97.1	100.6	135.0	139.0	188.8	102.2	....
Out of school	521.1	38.7	41.6	40.1	45.4	51.9	68.6	79.5	98.8	61.7	....
Summer	3,644.0	511.3	[5]719.8	[5]560.0	[5]457.8	[5]387.2	[5]334.1	294.3	240.3	114.8	....
Operation Mainstream	128.1	32.3	22.3	23.3	17.8	13.5	10.9	8.0	....	....	....
Public Service Careers	111.2	(4)	21.0	42.4	34.8	5.9	2.7	4.4	....	....	....
Special Impact [6]	6.5	....	....	....	....	1.3	1.2	4.0	....	....	....
Concentrated Employment Program [7]	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
JOBS (federally financed)	334.7	33.1	80.6	88.2	64.1	52.8	31.8	8.4	....	....	....
Work Incentive Program	391.8	(4)	149.5	60.7	65.7	99.0	9.9	....	....	....	....
Job Corps	85.8	17.7	24.0	22.4	21.7	....	....	....	....	....	....
Public Employment Program	192.7	(4)	192.7	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
First-Time Enrollments [3]											
Total	9,654.6	1,537.7	1,973.0	1,412.5	1,051.4	1,000.7	780.8	833.3	658.7	294.8	111.7
Manpower Development and Training Act	2,274.9	267.1	301.6	251.8	221.0	220.0	241.0	265.0	235.8	176.9	111.7
Institutional training	1,404.2	119.6	150.6	155.6	130.0	135.0	140.0	150.0	177.5	165.3	100.6
JOP-OJT [2]	870.7	147.5	151.0	99.2	91.0	85.0	101.0	115.0	58.3	11.6	11.1
Neighborhood Youth Corps	4,950.1	628.4	1,010.9	740.2	482.1	501.1	467.3	574.3	422.9	137.9	....
In school	1,130.6	165.3	186.0	120.0	74.4	84.3	118.3	166.8	160.8	54.7	....
Out of school	771.3	74.7	65.0	53.0	46.2	74.5	93.8	161.6	166.9	35.6	....
Summer	3,048.2	388.4	759.9	567.2	361.5	345.3	255.2	247.9	95.2	47.6	....
Operation Mainstream	138.2	37.5	31.4	21.9	12.5	11.3	12.6	11.0	....	....	....
Public Service Careers	150.5	28.6	65.9	47.3	3.6	3.8	4.3	1.0	....	....	....
Special Impact [6]	5.3	....	....	....	....	2.7	2.6	....	....	....	....
Concentrated Employment Program	537.3	64.8	84.7	93.7	110.1	127.0	53.0	....	....	....	....
JOBS (federally financed)	361.9	51.5	82.9	92.6	80.8	51.2	....	....	....	....	....
Work Incentive Program	644.6	238.5	120.6	112.3	92.7	80.6	....	....	....	....	....
Job Corps	194.9	63.4	47.0	40.8	42.6	....	....	....	....	....	....
Public Employment Program	404.0	177.9	226.1	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Federal Obligations											
Total	$12,223,131	$2,753,445	$2,698,960	$1,695,466	$1,419,552	$1,021,730	$802,173	$795,950	$628,697	$414,247	$198,181
Manpower Development and Training Act	3,169,313	380,612	424,553	335,732	336,560	272,616	296,418	296,207	333,649	286,505	198,181
Institutional training	2,594,762	303,816	355,708	275,467	287,031	214,505	221,847	215,548	281,710	249,348	190,744
JOP-OJT [2]	574,551	76,[illegible]	68,845	60,265	49,519	57,111	74,571	82,659	57,939	37,157	7,437
Neighborhood Youth Corps	3,059,689	416,931	517,244	426,458	356,569	330,646	281,664	314,833	263,337	127,762	....
In school	(8)	64,052	74,807	58,032	54,242	61,018	58,508	67,414	(8)	(8)	....
Out of school	(8)	106,854	121,902	115,145	97,933	121,721	96,279	116,079	(8)	(8)	....
Summer	(8)	245,924	[5]320,345	[5]253,256	[5]194,424	[5]147,907	[5]126,677	131,306	(8)	(8)	....
Operation Mainstream	375,772	51,078	55,164	71,550	51,048	41,090	22,319	28,629	....	....	....
Public Service Careers	311,612	30,712	58,301	91,636	69,366	18,409	7,557	15,573	....	....	....
Special Impact [6]	10,138	....	....	....	....	1,100	2,038	7,000	....	....	....
Concentrated Employment Program	950,323	130,258	154,603	166,752	167,592	116,220	93,037	76,411	25,421	....	....
JOBS (federally financed)	784,069	72,518	119,728	104,091	118,820	150,821	89,931	28,259	....	....	....
Work Incentive Program	[illegible]	[illegible]	176,789	64,065	78,740	101,817	8,000	....	....	....	....
Job Corps	786,956	192,880	202,185	160,147	164,762	....	....	....	....	....	....
Public Employment Program	2,201,922	1,239,143	961,879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

[1] [illegible] of time and other training.
[2] [illegible] JOBS Optional Program (JOP), which began in fiscal 1971, [illegible] MDTA on-the-job training (OJT) program, which ended in fiscal [illegible].
[3] [illegible] MDTA [illegible] fiscal 1972 [illegible] fiscal 1969 [illegible].
[4] Not available.
[5] [illegible] Office of Economic Opportunity effective July 1, 1969.
[6] [illegible] CEP [illegible] the CEP approach includes a variety of program components—orientation, basic education, work experience, and other types of job training. An individual may be enrolled in one or more of several components.
[7] The number of first-time enrollments for a fiscal year is generally larger than the number of enrollment opportunities [illegible] may [illegible] turnover or [illegible].
[8] Data are not available for NYC [illegible] prior to fiscal 1967.
[9] Includes [illegible] MDTA supplemental funds; these were [illegible] in fiscal 1970, $7,4[illegible] in fiscal 1969, and $12,[illegible] in fiscal 1968.

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F–2. Enrollment Opportunities Authorized for Work and Training Programs Administered by the Department of Labor, by State and Program, Fiscal Year 1973 [1] *

[Thousands]

State	MDTA training		Neighborhood Youth Corps			Operation Mainstream	JOBS (federally financed)
	Institutional, part time, and other	JOP-OUT [2]	In school	Out of school	Summer		
United States	116.3	[3] 64.7	111.3	38.7	311.3	22.8	23.1
Alabama	1.9	1.8	2.8	1.2	9.8	.7	.6
Alaska	.4	.3	.9	.2	2.2	.3	(4)
American Samoa	.1		(4)		.1		
Arizona	1.0	.8	1.0	.4	5.4	.4	.3
Arkansas	1.0	.6	1.7	.6	7.2	1.1	.6
California	9.0	4.4	9.0	3.8	56.2	1.7	2.3
Colorado	1.3	.3	.9	.4	3.4	.2	.3
Connecticut	2.7	.6	.9	.3	10.3	.1	.3
Delaware	.6	.1	.2	.1	2.0		.1
District of Columbia	.7	(4)	1.0	.5	9.0	.1	.3
Florida	3.2	.8	2.4	1.2	13.6	1.0	.8
Georgia	2.9	.8	3.6	.5	10.1	.4	1.0
Guam	.2	.1	(4)	(4)	.7	(4)	
Hawaii	1.7	.2	.2	.1	1.7	.1	(4)
Idaho	.4	.2	.3	.1	1.4	.1	.1
Illinois	1.7	1.5	2.1	1.7	5.4	1.0	1.1
Indiana	1.7	.3	2.6	.9		1.0	.3
Iowa	1.2	.8	1.8	.3	5.0	.4	.3
Kansas	4.5	.3	1.7	.3	5.2	.4	.4
Kentucky	3.3	1.6	4.1	1.2	3.8	2.9	.4
Louisiana	1.6	.5	2.3	.7	13.4	.3	1.7
Maine	.7	.4	.8	.2	3.9	.3	.2
Maryland	3.3	.5	1.0	.5	5.2	.2	.4
Massachusetts	1.2	.5	1.6	.5	18.5	.3	.9
Michigan	3.1	1.1	4.1	1.1	23.9	.5	2.4
Minnesota	1.8	.8	2.3	.3	5.7	1.7	.2
Mississippi	.7	.9	1.7	1.1	11.0	.4	.6
Missouri	2.5	1.0	3.6	.5	15.0	.9	.4
Montana	.5	.2	.3	.1	3.2	.3	.2
Nebraska	.6	.3	1.4	.1	2.9	.3	.2
Nevada	.2	.2	.2	(4)	1.6	.1	(4)
New Hampshire	.4	(4)	.3	.1	2.4	(4)	.1
New Jersey	7.4	2.3	2.7	1.2	20.8	.8	1.2
New Mexico	2.3	.1	.7	.3	4.0	.4	.2
New York	8.6	5.1	7.9	3.7	19.4	1.2	3.8
North Carolina	7.0	.6	3.6	1.4	14.4	.6	1.0
North Dakota	.4	.2	.5	.2	1.9	.4	.4
Ohio	4.6	1.1	6.8	1.8	7.8	.7	.6
Oklahoma	1.6	.6	2.7	.8	6.8	.9	.4
Oregon	1.2	.5	1.1	.2	5.8	.8	.1
Pennsylvania	6.2	1.2	5.0	1.2	27.6	.8	.8
Puerto Rico	1.6	.7	1.9	1.6	40.0	.3	1.0
Rhode Island	.4	.1	.7	.1	3.2	.1	(4)
South Carolina	1.6	.9	2.1	.9	12.7	.5	1.2
South Dakota	.3	.3	.5	.2	2.0	.5	.3
Tennessee	2.2	1.0	2.4	1.2	13.7	1.0	.5
Texas	4.7	.5	6.2	1.8	28.4	2.1	1.9
Trust Territory	.8	(4)	(4)	(4)	.3		.7
Utah	.6	.3	.6	.2	1.6	.2	
Vermont	.5	.3	.3	.2	1.5	.2	(4)
Virginia	1.6	.3	2.1	.8	12.4	.9	1.6
Virgin Islands	(4)	(4)	.1	.1	.4		(4) 2
Washington	3.9	1.2	2.4	.5	15.0	.3	
West Virginia	.6	.6	1.1	.5	5.5	.5	.1
Wisconsin	1.6	1.5	2.7	.2	1.1	1.4	.2
Wyoming	.6	.2	.2	.1	1.0	.1	.2

[1] The Job Corps is not included because recruitment for centers is multistate, the Concentrated Employment Program is not included because enrollment opportunities are not a prespecified goal for the program (see footnote 6, Table F-1), data were not available for Public Service Careers and the Work Incentive Program, and the 2-year funding period for the Public Employment Program presented a year delineation of enrollment opportunities by fiscal year.

[2] See footnote 2, Table F-1.

[3] Includes 28,000 OJT and Construction Outreach employment opportunities under national contracts, data for which are not available by State.

[4] Less than 50.

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F-3. Federal Obligations for Work and Training Programs Administered by the Department of Labor, by State and Program, Fiscal Year 1973 [1] *

[Thousands]

State	MDTA training: Institutional, part time, and other	MDTA training: JOP-OJT [2]	Neighborhood Youth Corps: In school	Neighborhood Youth Corps: Out of school	Neighborhood Youth Corps: Summer	Operation Mainstream	Public Service Careers	Concentrated Employment Program	JOBS (federally financed)	Work Incentive Program [3]	Public Employment Program
United States [4]	$[illegible]	$78,[illegible]	$64,[illegible]	$109,[illegible]	$[illegible]	$[illegible]	$30,719	$130,[illegible]	$72,914	$198,010	$1,239,148
Alabama	3,[illegible]	663	1,540	3,321	4,053	1,678	16	1,439	989	2,401	12,289
Alaska	1,[illegible]	225	246	570	1,110	327	257		72	736	7,662
American Samoa	72	17	10	36	36						177
Arizona	2,509	911	722	1,207	2,[illegible]	1,027	46	4,108	915	1,816	12,384
Arkansas	3,235	534	1,059	1,875	2,411	464	118	1,341	1,102	1,094	9,359
California	26,613	4,[illegible]	5,721	9,622	24,[illegible]	2,995	3,0[illegible]	12,304	6,407	31,620	190,526
Colorado	2,466	323	324	1,094	1,891	256	324	1,196	1,009	2,741	8,916
Connecticut	5,735	210	7[illegible]	1,114	4,174	193	101	2,716	1,722	1,568	28,908
Delaware	1,85[illegible]	110	76	208	629		181		227	696	3,334
District of Columbia	2,241	75	331	2,863	4,014		880	4,090	334	3,839	9,998
Florida	4,[illegible]	708	870	2,070	5,231	308	318	2,481	1,094	2,742	18,397
Georgia	6,[illegible]	775	1,565	2,615	4,087	626	242	1,947	1,099	3,216	18,478
Guam	122	71	6	164	315	75				186	716
Hawaii	1,5[illegible]	156	139	216	725	329		1,198	61	811	3,841
Idaho	1,164	246		345	621	312			192	925	3,982
Illinois	11,[illegible]	3,156	3,563	4,217	13,[illegible]	2,419	670	4,567	2,466	5,777	49,617
Indiana	3,7[illegible]	441	1,779	2,525	5,037	1,045	246	1,401	712	1,406	23,720
Iowa	2,746	715	1,078	741	2,070	916	56	1,222	844	2,490	6,904
Kansas	2,506	47[illegible]	81[illegible]	784	2,162	743	57		902	2,811	11,095
Kentucky	4,20[illegible]	921	2,130	2,940	5,965	8,903		2,000	515	1,655	18,442
Louisiana	4,9[illegible]	845	1,37[illegible]	2,170	5,4[illegible]	713	[illegible]	1,103	3,218	1,731	21,304
Maine	1,177	50[illegible]	371	56[illegible]	1,062	463		1,061	518	1,140	7,544
Maryland	4,930	4[illegible]2	257	1,656	2,165	606	267	3,157	1,000	4,398	12,188
Massachusetts	7,43[illegible]	6[illegible]	1,540	1,747	7,458	515	2[illegible]8	8,329	2,739	5,297	44,526
Michigan	12,93[illegible]	1,884	2,[illegible]7	2,867	[illegible]	1,155	323	4,875	5,614	9,732	65,336
Minnesota	4,76[illegible]	9[illegible]	1,864	7[illegible]3	3,331	2,8[illegible]	835	3,704	342	3,729	19,629
Mississippi	2,8[illegible]	[illegible]	815	2,618	4,158	8[illegible]	852	2,302	967	2,262	9,336
Missouri	5,2[illegible]	8[illegible]	2,[illegible]	2,173	6,[illegible]	1,2[illegible]	111	5,7[illegible]	1,006	2,566	25,691
Montana	1,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	1,[illegible]	573	[illegible]	[illegible]	2[illegible]	1,1[illegible]	[illegible],175
Nebraska	1,[illegible]	[illegible]	521	905	1,4[illegible]	417	73	5[illegible]	225	8[illegible]	4,417
Nevada	1,1[illegible]	2[illegible]	75	164	[illegible]	122	192	1,291	16[illegible]	3[illegible]	3,787
New Hampshire	843	108	310	340	770	141		1,030	2[illegible]	467	2,286
New Jersey	11,204	1,735	1,456	3,[illegible]	8,679	1,341	1,213	6,447	2,722	7,092	60,112
New Mexico	2,[illegible]	231	114	1,357	1,771	9[illegible]	16	2,464	466	1,011	7,181
New York	20,[illegible]	4,2[illegible]5	4,105	9,[illegible]	30,1[illegible]	1,591	3,432	4,437	9,417	22,3[illegible]	96,963
North Carolina	4,751	[illegible]	1,1[illegible]	3,221	7,0[illegible]	[illegible]	1,402	3,118	1,392	2,242	13,248
North Dakota	1,0[illegible]	2[illegible]	[illegible]	333	[illegible]	537	271		554	777	3,139
Ohio	10,558	1,241	3,773	4,716	9,[illegible]	1,9[illegible]	5[illegible]	6,[illegible]	1,484	4,[illegible]	40,881
Oklahoma	3,[illegible]	294	1,798	1,626	2,8[illegible]	1,974	131	1,767	719	1,944	10,186
Oregon	[illegible]	625	4[illegible]	5[illegible]	2,415	1,087	3[illegible]	1,319	444	4,900	16,609
Pennsylvania	18,017	2,871	3,2[illegible]	4,236	11,501	1,802	330	6,234	2,376	9,526	69,891
Puerto Rico	3,707	671	1,311	4,703	8,308	256	423		2,267	3,392	60,038
Rhode Island	1,540	82	646	308	1,246	64		1,308	171	716	7,688
South Carolina	2,730	624	1,024	2,303	5,177	1,226	165	1,957	1,923	1,169	12,477
South Dakota	[illegible]	240	[illegible]	482	8[illegible]	[illegible]			436	1,130	4,646
Tennessee	5,024	843	1,211	2,349	6,212	2,283	327	2,641	710	1,930	14,821
Texas	10,[illegible]	1,602	3,4[illegible]	5,[illegible]	10,[illegible]	3,[illegible]	724	7,444	3,530	6,129	39,030
Trust Territory	133		10	165	47						389
Utah	2,644	350	2[illegible]	4,418	1,447	234	33		1,465	3,582	8,117
Vermont	[illegible]	2[illegible]	13[illegible]	3[illegible]	631	427	[illegible]		112	715	2,904
Virginia	4,[illegible]	232	1,3[illegible]6	2,579	2,[illegible]	1,448	[illegible]	1,607	2,483	2,081	9,828
Virgin Islands	376	3[illegible]	27	335	177				40	[illegible]	767
Washington	7,10[illegible]	1,513	632	1,716	6,217	322	356	1,569	1,166	5,122	62,679
West Virginia	2,1[illegible]	155	77[illegible]	1,4[illegible]	2,[illegible]	1,657	1,019		165	7,251	12,829
Wisconsin	6,45[illegible]	841	1,011	610	3,758	1,492	369	2,905	349	5,365	20,559
Wyoming	853	240	56	136	440	158			279	446	2,291

[1] Does not include $[illegible] for the Job Corps because recruitment for Job Corps centers is multistate.
[2] See footnote 2, table F-1.
[3] Does not include $[illegible] for program support.
[4] Differences between the U.S. total shown for each program and the sum of the amounts by State reflect either funds for national contracts, auditing, or funds transferred to other agencies.

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F–4. Enrollments, Completions, and Posttraining Employment in MDTA Training Programs, by Type of Program, Fiscal Years 1963–73 *

[Thousands]

Fiscal year	Total [1]			Institutional training			JOP-OJT [1]		
	Enrollments	Completions	Posttraining employment	Enrollments	Completions	Posttraining employment	Enrollments	Completions	Posttraining employment
1963	34.1	20.1	16.1	32.0	19.2	15.3	2.1	0.9	0.8
1964	77.6	51.3	39.4	68.6	46.0	34.8	9.0	5.3	4.6
1965	156.9	96.3	73.4	145.3	88.8	66.9	11.6	7.5	6.5
1966	235.8	155.7	124.0	177.5	117.7	89.8	58.3	38.0	34.2
1967	265.0	192.6	158.7	169.0	109.0	80.0	115.0	83.6	78.7
1968	241.0	184.2	127.5	140.0	91.0	64.5	101.0	73.2	63.0
1969	220.0	160.0	124.0	135.0	95.0	71.0	85.0	65.0	53.0
1970	221.0	147.0	115.3	130.0	85.0	62.0	91.0	62.0	53.3
1971	203.4	117.1	88.9	155.6	90.3	65.9	[2]47.8	26.8	23.0
1972	232.7	162.7	132.6	150.6	111.4	81.5	82.1	51.3	51.3
1973	185.2	155.1	128.1	119.6	104.5	77.5	73.6	50.6	50.6

[1] Data for the Construction Outreach Program are not included.
[2] The decline reflects the termination of the OJT program in 1970 except for national contracts, and the slow upstart of the JOBS-Optional Program (JOP).

NOTE: Completions do not include dropouts. Posttraining employment includes persons employed at the time of the last followup. (There are two followups, with the second occurring 6 months after completion of training.)

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F–5. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Programs, Fiscal Years 1963–73 *

(Percent distribution)

Characteristic	All years	Fiscal year of enrollment										
		1973	1972	1971	1970	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963
Total Number (thousands)	1,401.2	119.6	140.6	155.6	130.0	135.0	140.0	130.0	177.5	145.2	98.6	32.0
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex												
Male	59.5	67.3	63.2	58.5	59.4	55.6	53.4	56.8	58.2	60.9	59.7	63.8
Female	40.5	32.7	36.8	41.5	40.6	44.4	44.6	43.2	41.7	39.1	40.3	36.2
Age												
Under 19 years	13.6	9.1	10.8	13.8	9.1	12.5	14.9	16.4	15.9	14.3	10.6	6.3
19 to 21 years	21.7	20.9	17.3	25.1	25.0	25.0	23.6	23.6	22.2	24.3	20.7	19.1
22 to 34 years	37.9	41.9	41.8	40.2	42.3	34.2	35.5	34.3	33.3	32.4	35.4	42.9
35 to 44 years	14.9	11.6	11.6	11.4	11.9	11.0	15.2	14.7	15.6	14.9	17.5	20.3
45 years and over	11.8	7.5	7.7	8.5	8.8	10.3	10.8	11.0	11.0	10.1	15.8	10.4
Race												
White	61.0	65.6	61.7	55.6	59.2	55.9	50.8	59.1	63.5	67.7	69.9	78.5
Negro	35.4	30.1	33.1	39.3	36.9	39.7	45.4	38.0	33.2	30.1	29.3	21.4
Other	3.6	4.3	5.7	5.1	4.8	4.4	3.8	2.9	3.3	2.2	1.8	2.1
Spanish speaking, Total	12.1	9.9	12.4	12.8	13.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mexican American	54.7	55.4	53.7	52.0	56.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Puerto Rican	20.4	15.0	20.4	22.4	25.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other	24.9	29.6	25.9	25.6	18.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Years of school completed												
Under 8 years	8.5	3.1	4.0	5.4	6.4	9.8	9.2	7.5	6.7	8.1	5.7	3.1
8 years	8.5	4.7	5.7	7.0	8.2	9.4	10.9	10.7	9.6	10.2	8.4	7.6
9 to 11 years	35.6	28.6	32.0	38.2	39.1	36.4	40.6	34.9	35.7	31.1	33.3	30.9
12 years	43.1	53.6	50.4	43.4	42.7	37.9	34.7	36.0	42.0	41.8	45.2	50.4
Over 12 years	4.3	10.0	7.9	6.0	4.5	4.5	5.5	4.9	6.0	5.8	7.4	8.0
Family status												
Head of family or household	56.0	63.4	59.6	58.1	58.0	56.5	54.6	53.6	53.5	51.8	53.3	62.1
Other	44.0	36.6	40.4	41.9	42.0	43.5	45.4	46.4	46.5	48.2	46.7	37.9
Work experience status												
Primary	70.2	82.5	78.8	73.3	73.2	74.3	72.2	68.7	65.5	56.5	59.3	68.0
Other	29.8	17.5	21.2	26.7	26.8	25.7	27.8	31.3	34.5	43.5	40.7	32.0
Family income												
Below $1,000	10.5	11.4	11.6	9.6	9.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$1,000 to $1,999	18.1	18.4	18.8	18.0	18.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$2,000 to $2,999	17.3	16.5	17.1	17.9	19.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$3,000 to $3,999	15.7	13.3	16.0	16.5	16.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$4,000 to $4,999	11.6	13.1	11.1	11.3	11.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$5,000 to $5,999	7.6	7.5	7.1	7.6	7.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$6,000 to $6,999	5.4	6.0	5.3	5.4	5.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
$7,000 and over	14.0	17.8	13.0	13.7	11.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Years of gainful employment												
Under 3 years	41.0	39.7	43.1	46.1	45.6	45.4	45.3	43.1	39.1	42.8	32.5	22.7
3 to 9 years	39.4	43.2	39.4	35.2	35.0	33.5	32.8	34.4	37.0	34.7	41.3	45.6
10 years or more	21.6	18.1	17.4	18.7	19.5	21.1	21.9	22.5	23.9	23.5	26.2	31.7
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Prior employment status												
Employed	71.2	65.4	72.2	72.7	73.8	79.6	79.7	80.3	82.8	87.8	90.5	92.1
Unemployed	13.6	13.6	12.2	13.5	15.2	16.9	16.5	15.6	12.7	7.3	7.8	6.7
Not in labor force	11.5	11.4	8.3	6.1	4.7	3.5	3.8	3.9	4.5	4.9	1.7	1.2
Other	3.7	9.6	7.3	7.7	6.3							
Duration of unemployment												
Under 5 weeks	30.9	38.1	29.8	26.4	31.4	32.3	31.0	35.9	35.5	32.9	28.5	24.0
5 to 14 weeks	23.4	21.6	21.7	23.5	25.9	21.6	24.1	23.6	22.9	23.2	23.6	28.2
15 to 26 weeks	16.8	15.7	16.6	17.5	17.1	14.4	15.5	13.5	12.6	13.1	14.1	17.6
27 to 52 weeks	17.9	21.7	24.2	30.9	24.0	15.9	11.5	9.6	10.2	10.6	12.1	13.1
Over 52 weeks	13.0	2.9	2.7	1.8	1.6	12.8	17.9	17.4	18.8	20.2	21.7	19.1
Disadvantaged	65.3	54.0	64.4	66.3	65.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Poverty status	62.6	59.5	65.3	63.4	61.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Public assistance recipient	12.5	12.9	14.8	15.4	12.9	13.4	12.6	12.1	11.2	10.5	9.7	8.
Unemployed	17.3	9.6	11.7	9.9	9.1	7.3	8.8	10.9	13.2	16.5	23.0	31.5
Handicapped	9.8	12.4	12.1	11.1	12.1	10.6	9.3	10.0	8.4	7.4	6.7	7.4
Eligible for allowance	77.6	78.9	82.3	79.6	87.9	80.1	82.1	82.0	78.6	67.3	57.7	66.9
Prior military service												
Veteran	24.0	20.2	21.0	23.1	19.6	17.2	17.5	20.5	25.1	27.6	16.3	22.5
Reservee	3.8	1.7	2.5	3.9	5.2	5.3	5.4	7.8	4.6	3.0	1	.1
Other nonveteran	72.2	78.1	76.4	73.9	75.2	77.5	77.1	73.7	70.3	69.4	83.6	77.4

1 Average based on data for fiscal years 1970-73 only.

* Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F–6. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Programs, by Sex, Race, and Years of School Completed, Fiscal Year 1973 *

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	All enrollees			Race			Years of school completed			
	Total	Male	Female	White	Negro	Other	Under 8 years	8 years	9 to 11 years	12 years or more
Total: Number (thousands)	119.6	89.4	30.3	78.7	36.1	4.8	3.7	5.6	34.2	76.1
Percent	100.0	67.3	32.7	65.8	30.1	4.1	3.1	4.7	28.6	63.6
Sex:										
Male	67.3	100.0	.....	70.9	60.1	69.4	72.7	73.6	67.3	66.5
Female	32.7	.....	100.0	29.1	40.9	30.6	27.3	26.4	32.7	33.5
Age:										
Under 19 years	9.1	7.4	12.5	8.7	10.1	8.6	7.3	11.3	15.1	6.3
19 to 21 years	26.9	27.1	26.4	26.0	29.3	23.2	12.4	19.6	30.0	26.5
22 to 34 years	44.9	46.2	39.4	44.2	46.6	46.9	39.1	49.1	43.4	47.7
35 to 44 years	11.6	11.3	12.3	12.5	9.7	13.1	20.4	15.0	8.3	12.4
45 years and over	7.5	5.9	10.4	8.6	4.3	8.2	20.9	14.0	3.7	7.1
Race:										
White	65.8	69.3	58.4	100.0	.....	.....	66.6	71.5	57.5	68.9
Negro	30.1	26.5	37.6	.....	100.0	.....	28.9	21.7	37.6	27.9
Other	4.1	4.2	3.9	.....	.....	100.0	10.4	6.9	4.6	3.2
Spanish speaking: Total	9.9	8.3	10.5	11.4	2.6	28.1	38.7	16.4	11.5	7.0
Mexican American	55.4	58.3	49.7	60.4	8.9	65.6	70.5	60.5	50.4	52.4
Puerto Rican	15.0	16.5	11.1	11.5	19.9	14.1	8.9	13.2	21.5	11.3
Other	29.6	25.1	39.1	28.1	71.2	20.4	14.6	26.3	28.2	36.3
Years of school completed:										
Under 8 years	3.1	3.3	2.5	2.2	2.1	7.9	100.0	.....	.....	.....
8 years	4.7	5.1	3.6	3.1	3.4	8.0	.....	100.0	.....	.....
9 to 11 years	28.6	28.6	28.6	25.0	35.8	22.9	.....	.....	100.0	.....
12 years	52.6	52.3	54.2	55.0	52.2	42.5	.....	.....	.....	84.2
Over 12 years	10.0	10.6	8.9	11.7	6.5	8.5	.....	.....	.....	15.8
Family status:										
Head of family or household	63.4	67.1	55.7	65.9	58.4	50.2	67.9	65.5	58.6	64.7
Other	36.6	32.9	44.3	34.1	41.6	49.8	32.1	34.5	40.4	35.3
Wage earner status:										
Primary	82.5	88.6	70.1	84.3	78.9	81.8	81.8	81.5	80.3	83.6
Other	17.5	11.4	29.9	15.7	21.1	18.2	18.2	18.5	19.7	16.4
Family income:										
Poverty	11.4	9.6	14.7	10.1	13.8	15.7	14.2	14.7	15.9	9.1
$1,000 to $1,999	16.4	14.9	21.0	14.9	19.3	20.9	22.9	20.3	21.4	13.7
$2,000 to $2,999	14.5	12.9	17.8	12.7	18.3	16.8	22.5	17.2	17.2	12.9
$3,000 to $3,999	13.3	13.1	13.7	12.9	14.3	12.7	15.7	15.7	13.5	13.0
$4,000 to $4,999	13.1	15.2	9.0	13.5	12.1	13.1	10.1	12.3	10.6	14.4
$5,000 to $5,999	7.5	8.2	6.2	7.6	7.5	6.9	5.0	5.7	6.4	8.2
$6,000 to $6,999	6.0	6.9	4.2	6.4	5.2	5.4	3.5	4.3	4.5	6.9
$7,000 and over	17.8	20.0	13.4	20.9	11.6	9.5	6.0	9.8	10.5	21.9
Years of gainful employment:										
Under 3 years	29.7	32.8	54.1	35.2	49.0	43.1	27.8	35.7	49.1	26.5
3 to 9 years	42.2	46.5	33.4	44.4	37.8	40.1	24.7	36.0	37.2	45.3
10 years or more	28.1	20.7	12.4	20.4	13.2	16.7	37.5	28.3	13.7	28.3
Prior employment status:										
Unemployed	65.4	59.2	77.9	60.3	75.2	73.1	76.4	74.2	77.3	58.9
Underemployed	13.6	13.5	13.8	15.9	9.0	10.8	7.8	9.1	9.3	16.2
Not in labor force	11.4	15.6	3.0	12.3	10.2	7.1	9.9	10.7	8.6	12.8
Other	9.6	11.7	5.4	11.5	5.6	9.0	7.9	6.0	4.9	12.3
Duration of unemployment:										
Under 5 weeks	28.1	32.4	21.2	31.8	21.4	27.8	24.4	28.7	28.1	28.8
5 to 14 weeks	21.6	24.0	17.9	22.3	20.1	22.8	17.6	20.1	22.7	21.4
15 to 26 weeks	15.7	16.6	14.2	15.4	16.2	14.8	14.2	13.6	15.9	15.9
27 to 52 weeks	31.7	24.1	42.4	27.5	39.4	30.3	23.8	23.6	32.5	31.1
Over 52 weeks	2.9	2.0	4.3	2.9	2.8	4.3	3.7	4.0	2.9	2.7
Disadvantaged	58.9	51.4	71.5	48.9	78.7	74.6	88.0	78.8	77.3	46.5
Poverty status	36.5	32.0	74.3	32.4	73.2	72.3	83.9	76.7	74.9	30.0
Public assistance recipient	12.9	8.0	26.8	9.3	20.6	11.6	16.1	16.3	17.3	10.4
UI claimant	9.8	11.3	6.1	10.8	7.8	5.7	3.3	6.4	9.4	9.9
Handicapped	12.4	14.8	7.6	14.0	9.2	10.1	21.7	22.5	13.7	10.4
Eligible for allowance	78.9	72.8	91.6	75.5	88.3	82.0	88.1	88.7	80.3	72.7
Prior military service:										
Veteran	38.2	55.3	1.9	42.7	29.4	29.1	38.1	30.1	28.4	44.1
Rejectee	1.7	2.5	.1	1.7	1.8	1.5	4.3	3.4	2.4	1.2
Other nonveteran	60.1	42.3	98.0	55.6	68.8	69.4	57.6	66.4	69.2	54.7

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F-7. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Programs, by State, Fiscal Year 1973*

State	Number of enrollees (thousands)	Percent of total: Male	White	Age: Under 22 years	22 to 44 years	45 years and over	Years of school completed: 8 years or less	9 to 11 years	12 years or more
United States	119.6	67.5	65.9	35.9	56.6	7.5	7.9	28.6	63.6
Alabama	2.0	41.6	45.8	34.5	53.3	12.2	11.3	25.4	63.3
Alaska	.5	63.5	78.2	21.6	61.2	17.1	11.8	24.5	63.7
Arizona	1.0	65.4	64.1	28.8	64.7	6.5	6.4	21.2	72.4
Arkansas	1.1	63.8	64.2	38.0	55.9	6.1	8.4	30.8	60.8
American Samoa	(1)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
California	10.6	70.6	67.2	31.1	60.3	8.6	7.8	29.7	62.5
Colorado	2.0	72.5	84.8	33.6	59.7	6.7	4.6	14.8	80.6
Connecticut	3.1	60.1	56.7	34.6	51.4	10.0	11.4	22.6	66.0
Delaware	.3	73.4	38.6	34.7	58.2	8.1	6.7	41.5	51.8
District of Columbia	1.0	46.2	42.6	30.6	64.2	5.2	4.4	29.0	66.6
Florida	1.8	61.3	49.9	45.2	48.5	6.3	5.4	31.7	62.9
Georgia	2.6	68.9	60.8	35.5	56.3	8.2	5.4	21.9	72.7
Guam	.2	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hawaii	1.5	95.6	18.6	47.8	49.8	2.4	1.6	11.1	87.3
Idaho	.7	78.0	88.9	34.7	58.9	6.4	15.2	32.4	52.4
Illinois	3.2	58.0	43.6	37.6	57.5	4.9	6.4	31.8	36.8
Indiana	1.6	65.7	56.8	45.2	48.9	5.9	11.3	43.8	44.9
Iowa	1.0	58.0	89.4	42.7	48.9	8.4	7.0	30.6	62.4
Kansas	4.1	86.3	78.6	25.1	71.5	3.4	3.7	12.9	83.8
Kentucky	1.9	62.9	77.4	42.9	51.5	5.6	8.1	19.3	72.6
Louisiana	1.2	53.5	66.0	37.6	56.4	6.1	8.6	28.6	62.8
Maine	.6	50.5	99.8	43.6	49.5	6.9	6.4	26.1	67.5
Maryland	2.3	50.2	52.2	32.3	57.5	10.2	8.3	27.0	64.7
Massachusetts	2.5	49.5	76.2	28.4	56.8	14.8	14.9	32.6	52.5
Michigan	4.2	44.7	68.9	33.0	54.3	12.7	5.5	23.3	71.2
Minnesota	2.0	68.1	94.2	38.5	54.5	7.0	4.9	34.8	60.6
Mississippi	1.0	60.3	64.5	28.0	62.2	9.8	10.0	23.7	66.3
Missouri	2.5	63.0	60.1	31.6	62.9	5.5	6.7	24.5	68.8
Montana	.6	58.9	86.9	33.0	61.9	5.1	8.7	32.9	58.4
Nebraska	.7	51.6	79.4	38.0	54.1	7.9	7.2	37.4	55.4
Nevada	.2	51.5	68.1	24.0	63.3	12.7	.3	25.1	74.4
New Hampshire	.5	52.9	98.1	32.9	57.2	10.0	11.9	28.4	59.7
New Jersey	8.0	62.3	47.8	37.8	52.7	9.5	9.1	37.0	53.9
New Mexico	.8	39.6	65.2	11.8	62.3	25.9	14.6	21.9	63.6
New York	6.2	64.4	49.5	36.9	55.9	7.2	9.3	44.6	46.1
North Carolina	4.6	81.7	65.0	50.5	46.5	3.0	4.8	20.2	75.0
North Dakota	.4	56.9	76.9	38.3	49.5	12.2	22.0	38.0	39.0
Ohio	7.2	64.0	52.6	40.0	56.1	3.9	5.7	36.7	57.6
Oklahoma	2.9	64.4	69.4	32.4	59.0	8.6	7.8	29.2	63.0
Oregon	1.3	64.4	85.1	36.3	57.0	6.7	11.4	33.0	55.6
Pennsylvania	4.5	73.4	63.9	38.4	56.7	5.9	4.4	28.9	66.7
Puerto Rico	1.8	73.7	(2)	38.1	50.0	12.3	8.8	33.3	57.9
Rhode Island	.5	66.4	81.6	35.6	55.5	8.9	33.2	31.1	36.7
South Carolina	1.1	62.5	54.8	33.9	61.7	4.4	8.9	22.5	68.6
South Dakota	.2	57.7	86.1	37.5	56.5	6.0	10.3	16.1	73.6
Tennessee	2.1	81.5	62.1	40.7	55.4	3.9	6.2	30.1	63.7
Texas	7.5	70.6	75.1	31.5	60.1	8.4	8.4	20.0	71.6
Trust Territory	(1)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Utah	.9	80.7	72.2	30.2	60.0	9.8	9.6	32.2	58.2
Vermont	.5	33.1	99.3	39.3	50.1	9.8	16.8	34.9	47.3
Virginia	2.0	77.6	74.4	33.7	58.6	7.7	10.8	19.1	70.3
Virgin Islands	(1)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Washington	3.3	73.8	75.2	27.7	59.8	12.5	8.6	20.2	67.2
West Virginia	.5	66.0	94.6	23.6	71.1	5.3	9.1	21.1	69.8
Wisconsin	2.0	68.8	86.8	50.4	45.2	4.3	6.2	37.1	56.7
Wyoming	.4	69.4	81.9	32.5	62.4	5.1	12.5	42.3	45.2

[1] Less than 50.

[2] Not available.

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F–8. Characteristics of Selected Groups of Trainees Enrolled in MDTA Institutional Training Programs, Fiscal Year 1973 *

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	Total	Spanish speaking	Inmates	Transition Program trainees	Veterans	Individual referrals	Skills centers trainees	Part time	Redevelopment area residents
Total. Number (thousands)	119.6	11.8	3.7	17.1	45.7	12.1	32.3	7.3	6.1
Percent	100.0	9.9	3.1	14.3	38.2	10.1	27.0	6.1	5.1
Sex									
Male	67.3	64.9	95.3	98.2	98.4	60.8	62.6	66.3	70.3
Female	32.7	35.1	4.7	1.8	1.6	39.7	37.4	33.7	29.7
Age									
Under 19 years	9.1	11.1	6.6	1.2	1.2	9.9	11.0	2.7	11.5
19 to 21 years	25.9	27.8	26.4	33.7	18.6	21.9	28.6	14.7	23.7
22 to 34 years	44.9	44.0	56.4	44.4	56.8	46.7	45.4	43.4	45.1
35 to 44 years	11.6	10.9	7.2	17.3	15.6	12.9	8.9	20.3	11.3
45 years and over	7.5	6.3	3.4	3.5	7.8	8.5	6.1	18.9	8.4
Race									
White	65.8	79.2	52.1	78.1	73.7	79.8	82.5	84.6	65.8
Negro	30.1	8.4	45.8	18.5	23.2	15.4	14.6	12.8	21.2
Other	4.1	12.4	2.1	3.3	3.0	4.9	2.8	2.6	13.0
Spanish speaking. Total	9.9	100.0	8.3	5.4	6.7	10.3	8.3	8.6	10.7
Mexican American	55.4	.....	80.9	66.2	53.0	48.5	38.9	55.4	68.3
Puerto Rican	15.0	.....	13.8	15.8	20.8	9.7	27.9	5.3	5.6
Other	29.6	.....	55.2	18.0	26.2	41.7	33.3	39.3	26.2
Years of school completed									
Under 8 years	3.1	12.2	7.7	.5	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.5	4.7
8 years	4.7	7.9	11.8	1.4	3.7	3.6	5.2	2.9	6.6
9 to 11 years	28.6	34.1	49.1	9.4	21.2	20.9	39.0	13.9	29.5
12 years	53.6	39.7	27.4	74.1	61.8	60.6	48.4	54.8	50.4
Over 12 years	10.0	6.1	3.9	14.6	11.8	13.1	5.1	26.0	8.8
Family status									
Head of family or household	63.4	61.1	58.7	76.6	73.9	69.4	58.8	66.6	62.4
Other	36.6	38.9	41.3	23.4	26.1	30.6	41.2	33.4	37.6
Wage earner status									
Primary	82.5	77.9	76.8	97.2	94.0	82.4	81.8	77.1	73.4
Other	17.5	22.1	23.2	2.8	6.0	17.6	18.2	22.9	26.6
Family income									
Below $1,000	11.4	12.7	32.0	.9	6.6	11.6	15.7	2.1	11.6
$1,000 to $1,999	16.4	19.7	20.1	1.1	11.3	17.6	22.7	3.7	16.4
$2,000 to $2,999	14.5	17.6	16.5	4.7	11.4	16.4	17.3	4.8	16.6
$3,000 to $3,999	13.3	15.3	9.3	11.3	12.4	14.9	13.3	7.3	16.1
$4,000 to $4,999	13.1	12.0	5.8	28.4	17.2	11.3	9.7	15.0	10.8
$5,000 to $5,999	7.5	6.9	5.2	11.9	9.5	7.1	7.0	8.9	7.9
$6,000 to $6,999	6.0	5.0	2.9	12.5	8.2	6.0	4.5	7.4	5.8
$7,000 and over	17.8	10.8	8.2	29.3	23.3	15.0	9.8	50.9	14.5
Years of gainful employment									
Under 3 years	39.7	42.0	50.6	24.7	18.5	36.1	46.3	18.9	40.7
3 to 9 years	42.2	40.3	36.5	54.8	54.4	42.6	40.0	40.0	40.2
10 years or more	18.1	17.8	12.8	20.5	27.0	21.3	13.7	42.0	19.1
Prior employment status									
Unemployed	65.4	74.0	17.8	4.1	56.7	71.6	88.5	15.0	79.6
Underemployed	13.6	12.4	.8	19.1	13.7	18.7	8.5	38.3	11.1
Not in labor force	11.4	6.8	81.3	44.4	17.9	5.6	1.8	1.0	3.4
Other	9.6	6.8	.....	32.3	11.6	4.7	1.3	47.7	5.8
Duration of unemployment									
Under 5 weeks	28.1	32.1	11.9	37.1	32.7	28.4	25.4	30.7	37.0
5 to 14 weeks	21.6	21.7	7.8	20.0	25.0	21.0	22.7	20.0	21.7
15 to 26 weeks	15.7	15.5	17.4	14.6	17.5	16.1	16.8	14.2	14.5
27 to 52 weeks	31.7	28.2	57.3	27.5	22.8	31.0	32.9	29.5	24.3
Over 52 weeks	2.9	2.4	5.6	.7	1.9	3.5	2.3	5.6	2.4
Disadvantaged	58.0	74.3	90.4	9.6	41.0	60.0	76.4	15.6	63.7
Poverty status	59.5	72.6	89.6	11.5	41.9	65.4	75.9	14.9	64.2
Public assistance recipient	12.9	14.8	2.3	.6	4.5	13.2	19.6	4.1	9.8
UI claimant	9.6	9.9	.7	1.0	15.2	13.7	11.9	3.9	11.2
Handicapped	12.4	7.9	64.4	2.4	13.3	14.8	12.0	3.5	10.5
Eligible for allowance	78.9	87.2	78.7	4.4	67.3	92.2	97.9	65.3	90.9
Prior military service									
Veteran	38.2	26.3	26.1	67.2	100.0	39.1	34.7	41.4	36.7
Rejectee	1.7	1.1	10.5	.3	.....	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.9
Other nonveteran	60.1	72.5	63.4	32.5	.....	59.3	64.0	57.0	61.3

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F-9. Occupational Training of Enrollees in MDTA Training Programs, by Type of Program, Fiscal Year 1973 *

[Numbers in thousands]

Major occupation group and selected [1] occupations	Institutional		JOP-OJT [2]	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	119.6		75.6	
Basic education and other nonoccupational training	24.4			
Occupational training	95.2	100.0	75.6	100.0
Professional, technical, managerial	11.1	11.6	3.7	4.9
Architecture and engineering	1.8	1.9		
Occupations in medicine and health	7.1	7.5		
Managerial occupations in miscellaneous industries			1.1	1.5
Clerical and sales	19.1	20.0	8.7	11.5
Stenography, typing, filing, and related	11.8	12.4	2.0	2.6
Computing and account recording	5.3	5.6	1.6	2.1
Material and production recording			2.0	2.6
Sales, commodities			1.0	1.3
Merchandising occupations, except salespersons			1.1	1.4
Service	11.1	11.7	5.0	6.6
Food and beverage preparation and service	3.1	3.3	1.9	2.5
Barbering, cosmetology, and related services	1.0	1.1		
Miscellaneous personal services	4.7	4.9		
Protective service	1.2	1.3		
Building and related services			.8	1.0
Farming, fishery, forestry, and related	1.0	1.1	.6	.8
Processing	.4	.4	5.1	6.7
Processing of food, tobacco, and related products			1.3	1.7
Processing of chemicals, plastics, synthetics, rubber, paint, and related products			1.6	2.1
Processing of stone, clay, glass, and related products			.8	1.0
Machine trades	20.3	21.3	18.2	24.1
Metal machining	4.7	4.9	3.3	4.4
Metalworking, n.e.c.			2.3	3.0
Mechanics and machinery repairmen	14.5	15.2	6.7	8.8
[illegible]			2.0	2.7
Printing occupations			2.2	2.9
Machine work, n.e.c.			1.1	1.5
Benchwork	3.6	3.8	10.6	14.0
Fabrication, assembly, and repair of metal products, n.e.c.			1.4	1.8
Assembly and repair of electrical equipment	1.7	1.8	2.9	3.8
Fabrication and repair of scientific and medical equipment			.8	1.0
Fabrication and repair of textile, leather, and related			3.0	4.0
Structural work	25.3	26.6	18.8	24.9
Metal fabricating, n.e.c.	4.5	4.7	5.3	7.0
Welding, flame cutting, and related	9.5	10.0	2.4	3.2
Electrical assembling, installing, and repairing	2.9	3.0	1.9	2.5
Painting, plastering, waterproofing, and cementing	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.7
Excavating, grading, paving, and related occupations			1.1	1.4
Construction work occupations, n.e.c.	5.6	5.9	6.0	8.0
Miscellaneous	3.3	3.5	4.9	6.5
Motor freight occupations	1.7	1.8	.8	1.0
Packaging and materials handling			1.7	2.2
Production and distribution of utilities			1.0	1.3
Transportation occupations			1.4	1.8

[1] Data are shown separately only for those occupations in each major group with 1 percent or more of the trainees in each program.

[2] See footnote 2, table F-1. Does not include Construction Outreach enrollments, which are included in table F-1.

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

Table F–10. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in Selected Training Programs Administered by the Department of Labor, Fiscal Year 1973 [1] *

[Percent distribution]

Characteristic	JOP-OJT [2]	Neighborhood Youth Corps		Operation Mainstream	Concentrated Employment Program	JOBS (federally financed)	Work Incentive Program	Job Corps	Public Employment Program
		In school [3]	Out of school						
Total: Number (thousands)	75.6	553.7	74.7	37.5	68.8	51.5	238.5	43.4	177.9
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex:									
Male	77.2	53.1	46.3	65.6	54.7	69.6	30.0	73.6	72.3
Female	22.8	46.9	53.7	34.4	45.3	30.4	70.0	26.4	27.7
Age:									
Under 19 years	7.4	97.8	93.3	.6	14.9	15.7	18.0	[4] 78.7	17.1
19 to 21 years	25.1	2.2	4.9	1.6	31.2	38.9		[4] 21.3	16.8
22 to 34 years	50.4	.....	1.8	33.7	41.1	50.6	74.1	.....	60.8
35 to 44 years	9.9	.....	.....	12.0	7.5			.....	
45 years and over	7.2	.....	.....	52.3	5.3	4.8	7.9	.....	9.3
Race:									
White	73.1	42.9	47.6	70.7	35.9	49.1	52.1	36.7	65.9
Negro	21.9	48.4	44.3	19.7	58.0	40.5	44.6	59.2	28.1
Other	5.0	8.7	8.2	9.6	6.1	10.4	3.3	4.1	5.9
Spanish speaking: Total	14.4	14.0	17.6	14.4	16.3	16.6	9.7	12.0	14.2
Mexican American	40.5	.....	59.7	55.6	50.6	44.9	86.7	65.2	53.6
Puerto Rican	22.4	.....	12.1	1.5	16.9	21.4	6.6	34.8	10.2
Other	37.1	.....	28.2	42.9	32.5	33.7	6.7	.....	36.2
Years of school completed:									
Under 8 years	4.7	4.8	7.4	23.3	4.9	7.8	10.4	9.1	8.0
8 years	5.8	14.0	17.1	19.0	6.8	7.1	9.0	18.9	26.1
9 to 11 years	29.1	75.8	74.9	27.9	41.5	38.8	38.8	62.6	
12 years	48.2	5.7	.6	25.6	42.4	41.0	34.4	9.3	41.5
Over 12 years	12.2	.....	.....	4.1	4.4	5.6	7.4	.1	29.4
Family status:									
Head of family or household	[5] 62.2	1.1	12.2	62.7	62.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other	[5] 37.8	98.9	87.8	17.3	37.8	.....	.....	.....	.....
Wage earner status:									
Primary	[6] 73.9	.....	13.4	88.0	70.3	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other	[6] 26.1	.....	86.6	12.0	29.7	.....	.....	.....	.....
Family income:									
Below $1,(illegible)	8.9	5.8	7.2	13.6	19.5	17.9	.....	[7] 3.7	.....
$1,(illegible) to $1,(illegible)	17.6	10.5	17.3	30.7	27.6	30.9		[7] 8.8	.....
$2,(illegible) to $2,(illegible)	17.2	16.6	21.0	28.4	21.3	21.4	.....	[7] 13.6	.....
$3,(illegible) to $3,(illegible)	15.5	23.3	21.0	12.5	15.4	15.4		[7] 21.5	.....
$4,000 to $4,(illegible)	11.4	22.4	16.0	5.2	8.8		.....	[7] 21.8	.....
$5,000 to $5,(illegible)	7.5		8.5	2.0	4.0	14.4		[7] 14.7	.....
$6,000 to $6,(illegible)	5.0	21.4	4.2	.8	1.6		.....	[7] 7.6	.....
$7,000 and over	16.9		3.0	.8	1.4		.....	[7] 7.3	.....
Years of gainful employment:									
Under 3 years	[8] 38.6	.....	98.8	27.5	58.6	.....	.....	.....	.....
3 to 9 years	[8] 35.4	.....	1.2	29.0	30.9	.....	.....	.....	.....
10 years or more	[8] 26.9	.....	.....	40.5	10.5	.....	.....	.....	.....
Prior employment status:									
Unemployed	[9] 48.3	.....	83.8	85.3	94.3	.....	.....	.....	91.2
Underemployed	[9] 12.9	.....	3.0	7.2	3.5	.....	.....	.....	5.5
Not in labor force	[9] 6.3	.....	12.2	6.6	1.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other	[9] 32.5	.....	1.0	1.5	1.0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Duration of unemployment:									
Under 5 weeks	[10] 31.0	.....	15.2	12.5	21.5	10.6	.....	.....	33.5
5 to 14 weeks	[10] 24.0	.....	18.7	12.4	24.2	20.0	.....	.....	23.1
15 to 26 weeks	[10] 14.9	.....	11.0	19.4	16.0	22.0	.....	.....	
27 to 52 weeks	[10] 28.8	.....	52.8	38.7	36.9	.....	.....	.....	43.6
Over 52 weeks	[10] 1.3	.....	2.3	9.7	1.4	.....	.....	.....	
Disadvantaged	68.4	100.0	97.5	93.7	99.0	100.0	87.4	100.0	37.5
Poverty status	[11] 36.0	100.0	98.9	98.2	99.0	100.0	.....	100.0	.....
Public assistance recipient	8.6	37.3	34.6	19.9	15.7	17.0	100.0	39.5	14.2
UI claimant	[12] 7.2	.....	8.5	10.5	3.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Handicapped	[13] 11.7	.....	2.6	14.3	8.1	4.4	.....	.....	4.2
Eligible for allowance	20.2	.....	82.2	71.9	90.2	.....	100.0	.....	.....
Prior military service:									
Veteran	29.0	.....	.7	29.7	16.8	23.9	8.1	1.0	.....
Reservist	7.2	.....	.5	8.7	1.9	.....	.....	4.1	.....
Other nonveteran	63.8	.....	98.8	61.6	81.3	76.1	.....	94.9	.....

[1] Characteristics of enrollees in these programs in years prior to 1973 were published in the *1973 Manpower Report*. 1973 data were published in the *1974 Report*. 1972 data were published in the *1973 Report*.

[2] See footnote 2, table F–1. Enrollees in the Construction Outreach Program are not included.

[3] Includes enrollees in summer programs.

[4] Consists of 37 percent, under 17 years old; 25 percent, 17 years old; and 16 percent, 18 years old.

[5] Consists of 11 percent, 19 years old, and 10 percent, 20 and 21 years old.

[6] Characteristic relates to OJT component only.

[7] Job Corps income information does not include data on income levels of welfare recipients, who comprise nearly 40 percent of the total enrollees.

*Source: Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to Congress April 1974.

APPENDIX B

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U. S. CONGRESS - SENATE AND HOUSE REPORTS

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APPENDIX D

EVALUATION, RESEARCH, AND RELATED STUDIES

EVALUATION, RESEARCH, AND RELATED STUDIES

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF THE AUTHOR

In spanning a career of forty years, Dr. Brandon has served vocational and practical arts education in the roles of local teacher, high school vice principal, State department supervisor, university teacher-educator, and administrator in the States of Ohio, Michigan and Pennsylvania. His preparation was obtained at Miami University and Ohio State University. Since 1947 his work has been concentrated in personnel preparation, and research and curriculum development at Ohio State University, Michigan State University, and Pennsylvania State University.

He has been active as a part and full-time consultant to the U.S. Office of Education in numerous roles related to Vocational and Technical Education, research, personnel preparation and administrative aspects of legislation. He served in numerous studies of Vocational Education at the National level, particularly as Deputy Director of the President's Panel of Consultants, under President John F. Kennedy, and special consultant for Title VIII of the National Defense Education Act. He has also assisted numerous State departments of education, colleges, universities, research corporations, and publishers in their interests and evaluation of Vocational Education.

Dr. Brandon's publications are many and varied but concentrated in articles for professional journals for which he has served as special and full-time editor. A considerable portion of his writing reflects his interest and activity in research related to technicians and curriculum for their preparation, evaluation and accreditation of Vocational Education, and the reporting of research results for utilization by professional personnel. A side interest of international Vocational Education led to his study of technician preparation in countries of Western Europe.

He is currently Professor of Vocational Education at Pennsylvania State University and a Captain, United States Naval Reserve, Retired.

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