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AUTHOR Seidenstat, Paul
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ABSTRACT

The study develops a labor market success model of young male inner-city Hispanics and examines several variables influencing labor market success. A sample of inner-city Puerto Ricans who attended the eighth grade in two schools in Wilmington, Delaware, in the 1966-1971 period was chosen and interviewed. Small control groups of blacks and whites were used also. Two multiple regression models of success are developed; one uses highest wage and the other uses the wage adjusted for job stability and type of job as dependent variables. The significant major determinants of success are years of school, number of children, and race. Attitude toward work, extent of career planning, and years lived in Puerto Rico also can influence success. Puerto Rican young men do worse than blacks and much worse than whites in the labor market. Other forms of human capital investment, including job training, do not seem to matter. Unemployment is high but is voluntary. The young man sees racial discrimination hindering his labor market progress. To raise the success level, public policy should focus on making schools and job training more effective, provide better counseling and market information, and expand the availability of "good jobs." Present macro-economic job programs are of little value. (Author)

A Labor Market Success Model of Young Male Hispanic Americans

by

Paul Seidenstat

Latin American Community Center
1202 West 4th Street
Wilmington, Delaware 19805

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April 1978

Summary of Report

The objectives of the study were to develop a labor market success model of the young male inner-city Hispanic and to examine this worker in terms of his family background, investment behavior, attitudes, and personal characteristics.

To control for environmental factors and socio-economic elements a sample of Puerto Ricans who attended the eighth grade in two schools in inner-city Wilmington, Delaware in the 1966-1971 period were chosen and interviewed. Two small control groups of blacks and whites from the same schools also were interviewed.

Two multiple regression models of success were developed. One model used highest wage earned as the dependent variable and the other used a success index which adjusts for stability of employment and type of job. The major independent variables are years of schooling, family status (in terms of having children), and race. Attitude toward work and career planning can have limited impact as can number of years lived in Puerto Rico (a direct relationship). Other forms of human capital investment including job training have little effect on success just as skill in using English is insignificant.

The Puerto Rican young adult is a relative newcomer to the mainland, highly mobile among residences, comes from a large family, and has parents with little education or job skills. He acquires less schooling than other races. Being work oriented, he nevertheless does a poor job of career planning, job searching, and choosing the appropriate job training.

Although a high rate of unemployment among inner-city Puerto Ricans is present, it is primarily voluntary in the face of low pay levels and marginal type of jobs. He does not receive unemployment compensation nor use the State Employment Service very often. His use of government sponsored job training is ineffective and he perceives his job situation to be adversely affected by racial discrimination.

To raise the level of success for the young male Puerto Rican, public policy should concentrate on making schooling and job training more effective, provide better counseling and market information, and seek to expand the availability of "good jobs" within commuting distance. Present macro-economic job programs are of little value.

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Of course, the ultimate responsibility for the study and for any errors or shortcomings is mine.

Paul Seidenstat
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16. Abstracts

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Two multiple regression models of success are developed; one uses highest wage and the other uses the wage adjusted for job stability and type of job as dependent variables. The significant major determinants of success are years of school, number of children, and race. Attitude toward work, extent of career planning, and years lived in Puerto Rico also can influence success.

Puerto Rican young men do worse than blacks and much worse than whites in the labor market. Other forms of human capital investment, including job training, do not seem to matter. (cont. on attached page)

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction

Youth unemployment continues to be a major problem in the U.S. economy, especially in urban areas. In 1976 while the overall unemployment rate was 7.7%, the rate for persons between 16 and 19 years old was 19.0%; however for poverty areas in metropolitan places it was 33.2% and for black and Hispanics in these areas it was 43.3%.[1]

Much research has been initiated to explore the causes and potential solutions to this massive level of urban minority youth unemployment. An interesting facet of this situation centers on the question as to why some young people are more successful than others in obtaining and keeping "good jobs." Increasing recognition is being given to the intensity of the problem for Hispanics,[2] especially among young males.

In attempting to understand what determines labor market success it would be helpful to simplify the complexity of the labor market situation as much as possible. Part of this simplification process is to hold as many variables constant as possible while examining statistically the effects of other variables. Another device is to focus attention on certain sub-groups of the population and to compare results.

This study will attempt to control for certain environmental factors potentially influencing success and to focus on young male inner-city Hispanics in comparison with blacks and whites in the same environment. A number of fundamental questions can be posed in terms of young male Hispanics:

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[1] U.S. Department of Labor. Employment and Training Report of the President. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977, pp. 19 and 153.

[2] See Wilber, George, et al. Minorities in the Labor Market. Vol. I: Spanish Americans and Indians in the Labor Market. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, ETA, 1976.

1. To what extent do socio-economic variables affect labor market outcomes?
2. How important is the level of human capital investment?
3. Does parental labor market background make any difference?
4. How do such labor market practices as job search methods and market perceptions affect outcomes?
5. Does post-school job training make any difference?
6. What role does job discrimination play?

Background and Objectives of the Study

There are a few studies relating to the labor market experience of male youth. The Parnes studies[3] present detailed national data on job educational and labor market experience of male youth over a period of years. Some emphasis was placed on comparing black with white youth. Kohen and others[4] investigated the effects of labor market information, race, and sex discrimination on earnings. The major national studies do not thoroughly examine these factors as they pertain to Hispanic Americans.

The primary objective of this study is to determine the relationship of certain socio-economic and labor market variables to the labor market success of young male Hispanic American labor market participants when basic environmental conditions are controlled. A quantitative model of labor market success will be developed.

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[3] Parnes, Herbert S., Miljas, R.C., Spitz, R.S., et al. Career Thresholds: A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Experience of Male Youth. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, ETA, Manpower Research Monographs, No. 16, Volumes 1-5, 1970-1975.

[4] Kohen, Andrew I. and Brenich, Susan C. Knowledge of the World of Work: A Test of Occupational Information for Young Men. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research, 1974. And Kohen, Andrew I. and Roderick, Roger D. The Effects of Race and Sex Discrimination on Early Career Earnings. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, 1975.

The physical environment will be controlled for by tracking the attendees of two schools during the period of 1967-1970. The schools are the Bayard Middle School (grades K to 8) and the St. Paul's Parochial School (grades 1-8). Both schools are located in a low income area of Wilmington, Delaware, heavily populated by Hispanics and blacks; the general characteristics of a "slum" area are present.

The Neighborhood Environment

Although the family and the school are key institutions affecting labor market behavior of young males, the environment of the neighborhood must be considered as well. Consideration should be given the demographic, social, family structure, labor market and housing characteristics of the area in which they live during their formative school years.

The setting of this study is a section of the city of Wilmington, which is an older central city of 80,000 located in a prosperous metropolitan area of 400,000. As is common in most of the older cities of the Northeast, the Hispanic population of Wilmington is a minority within a minority; it is concentrated in predominantly black areas in central cities of larger SMSA's (except for rural farm working communities). The Hispanic origin residents in the Wilmington SMSA are concentrated in the city within a few census tracts. Table 1 shows this concentration.

With slightly less than 5,000 persons of Spanish language in the county in 1970, over 1700 or 36% were in Wilmington. Within Wilmington, 40.8% were in one census tract, 0022, (see Map I) and another 20% were in two adjoining census tracts (0015 and 0023). However, the Spanish origin population is not homogeneous; one major difference is that the city group is overwhelmingly of Puerto Rican origin whereas the suburban group is of various national origins. Table 1 shows over 90% Puerto Rican origin in key city census tracts and 84% city-wide compared to 14.4% in the rest of the county.

TABLE 1 -1

Persons of Spanish Language in Wilmington Area, 1970

	New Castle County	% Total Pop.	Wilm.	% Total Pop.	Census Tract 0022	% Total Pop.
Total Population	4,819	1.2	1,745	1.1	713	18.6
Males	2,360		873		379	
Males, ages 10-14	196	0.9	123	3.1	82	30.3
Females	2,459		872		334	
% Puerto Rican birth or parentage	52%		84%		93%	

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1970.

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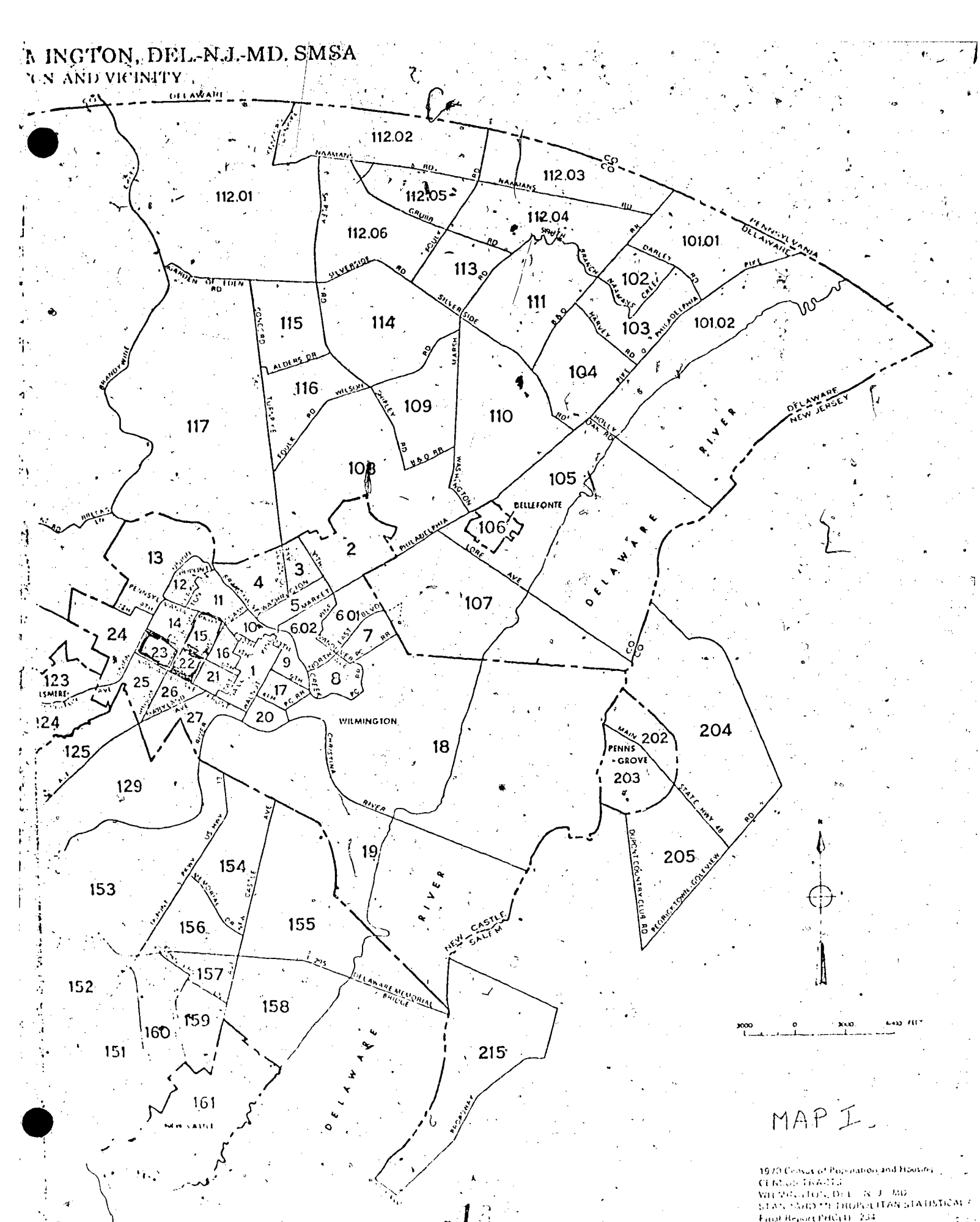

Table 2 shows the heavy concentration of blacks in Wilmington compared to the rest of the county. Within Wilmington the major Spanish origin peoples are in predominantly black areas as illustrated by census tract 0022.

Differences in the age distribution of the various population segments also are illustrated by Table 2. Using the proportion of males of ages 10 to 14 as the proxy for age distribution, it appears that the county has a greater proportion of youngsters than does the city; however, the minority populations in the city have a very large proportion of youngsters as illustrated by the data from census tract 0022. The city's Puerto Ricans have the largest share of young males--many more than their black counterparts.

One likely reason for the relative youthfulness of the city's Puerto Ricans is the presence of large families. Census tract 0022 shows this; although the tractwide average is 3.74 persons per household and the black average is 4.64, the average Hispanic household has 6.18 persons. Another way of showing youthfulness of families is by examining the percentage of families with children under 18. Although data are lacking in this respect for Hispanics, nevertheless the indirect evidence of a 59.7% of young families in census tract 0022 compared to the citywide 47% suggests a large proportion of young families. Thus the Puerto Rican inner-city family is of relatively large size with many young children.

In addition to being large and young, the Puerto Rican family is traditional in the sense of being male-headed. In census tract 0022, for example, although over one-quarter of all families had female heads and 22.6% of the black families did as well, no Hispanic families were recorded to have been female-headed. Even when compared to the Spanish origin families of the county as a whole, the inner-city Puerto Ricans have a more traditional family structure.

TABLE 1-2

Population Comparisons of Spanish Speaking With Others, By Area 1970

Characteristic	New Castle County	Spanish in County	Wilm.	Total Tract 0022	Spanish In Tract 0022	Black In Tract 0022
% Blacks	12.7	--	43.6	59.2	--	--
% Males, ages 10-14	11.4	8.3	10.6	14.4	21.6	13.5
Persons per household	3.25	4.16	2.87	3.74	6.18	4.64
% Families with Children under 18 Years	58.7	--	47.0	59.7	-	-
% Families with female head	10.5	7.6	23.6	25.5	0	22.6

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1970

More striking in terms of differences between the inner city Hispanics and the rest of the area's population are some educational and social characteristics as given in Table 3. Educational attainment is limited compared with the rest of the population; Tract 0022 Hispanics between 16 and 21 years of age were mostly school dropouts in 1970, with 88% neither high school graduates nor enrolled in school, compared to an overall 33.9% for the census tract, 20.7% for the city, 12.3% for the county, and even 12.1% for the overall area-wide Hispanic population. Among adults, 25 years or older, the same disparity of formal education is present for the inner city Puerto Ricans with the median years of school completed of 7.2 (census tract 0022) which is far below the attainment of other groups. Another way of saying it is that among the in-city Puerto Rican group there is a very small percentage of high school graduates (15%) compared to others; at the same time the overall county Hispanic proportion of high school graduates, 53.7%, is very close to overall population's 57.6%.

Part of this educational attainment discrepancy might be related to the high mobility of the Puerto Rican family. This geographic instability is illustrated by the fact that only 22.8% of the Hispanic population in tract 0022 were in the same house just five years before. The overall tract figure was 45.7% and even the county-wide Hispanic figure, 31.9%, was much higher.

This low educational attainment and geographic instability of the inner-city Hispanic family is reflected in the labor market and economic characteristics data shown in Table 4. For males, aged 16 or over, no data is available for the inner-city Hispanic; however, the city rates of unemployment and not in the labor force are higher than the rest of the county so the city Hispanics would no doubt be in the higher city categories. Hispanics were employed in lower level jobs to a greater extent than workers countywide or even city wide; over 1/3 of the tract 0022 Hispanic males were laborers or service workers compared to 1/4 of all city males and 15% of all county males or even 18% of countywide Hispanics. Similarly, inner-city Hispanics were more likely to be employed as operatives than any other group

TABLE 1-3

Educational and Social Characteristics of Population, 1970

Characteristic	County	Hispanic Total County	Wilm.	Tract 0022	Black 0022	Hispanic 0022
% 16-21 Yr. olds, not H.S. graduates and not enrolled in school	12.9	39.4	20.7	33.9	22.4	88.0
Median school yrs. persons 25 yrs & Older	12.2	12.1	10.9	9.3	10.0	7.2
% High School graduates, persons 25 yrs. & Older	57.6	53.7	39.7	22.1	26.1	15.0
% of those over 5 yrs. with same house as in 1965	55.1	31.9	56.9	45.7	40.2	22.8

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1970

TABLE 1-4

Labor Force and Economic Characteristics of Population, 1970

Characteristic	County	Hispanic County	Wilm.	Tract 0022	Hispanic 0022
(for males, 16 or over)					
% of labor force unemployed	3.1	2.1	5.8	5.8	--
% Unemployed or not in labor force	4.9	16.9	9.8	9.4	--
% employed as laborers, farm or service workers	14.7	18.0	24.3	38.5	34.6
% employed as operatives (including transport equip.)	12.8	20.5	16.8	21.9	38.7
1969 median family income - $	9,257	8,914	6,103	5,115	5,897
% families below poverty	6.6	13.1	16.0	22.3	36.8
% housing units owner occupied	71.2	-	47.7		
% housing lacking some or all plumbing facilities					
Persons per room median all occupied units	3.1	2.9	3.1		

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1970

of males. The tract 0022 Puerto Rican men had a 73% chance of working as an operative, laborer, or service worker.

The higher unemployment rate and lower level jobs held by the inner city Hispanic was reflected in lower median income and a greater chance of the family being in poverty. Although the tract 0022 Hispanic family income was higher than the tract-wide figure ($5,897 compared to $5,115) it was lower than the city-wide average, and much lower than the countywide average, $9,257. Due partly to these relatively modest earnings but coupled with large families and higher unemployment rates, over 1/3 of the tract 0022 Hispanic families were in poverty compared to 22% for the entire tract and only 16% city-wide.

The Sample

The sample consists of 97 young males with the following characteristics:

Race	Number in Sample	Per Cent of Total in Sample
Hispanic	63	64.9
White	15	15.5
Black	19	19.6
Total	97	100.0

Their school affiliation is as follows:

Race	Percentage of Those In:		Number In:	
	Bayard	St. Paul's	Bayard	St. Paul's
Hispanic	61.8	76.2	47	16
White	13.2	23.8	10	5
Black	25.0	-0-	19	-0-
Total	100.0	100.0	76	21

The Hispanics consist of all those students who attended the schools who could be found currently. The white and black students represent less than 1% of the number who were enrolled in the schools during the study period; they were chosen at random from the school records.

The age (Fall 1977) distribution of the respondees is as follows:

Age	Percentage in Age Group		
	Hispanics	Black and White	All Races
17-20	34.5	8.8	25.0
21-25	55.2	82.4	65.2
26-28	10.3	8.8	9.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median Age	21	22	21

The Hispanic age distribution is somewhat wider than the other groups and the median Hispanic young man is slightly younger. Only 3 Hispanics are 18 compared to 1 black and only 3 Hispanics are over 26 compared to 1 for the other races.

These young men were interviewed by staff of the Latin American Community Center trained for this purpose. The survey instrument is reproduced in the appendix.

Outline of Study

Based on the data collected from the sample, a labor market success model for young "ghetto" males is developed utilizing a multiple regression format. The model attempts to identify those factors which are keys to success for Hispanics, using blacks and whites as control groups.

The following chapter presents an in depth look at the young worker in terms of his background, school experience, personal characteristics, and labor market behavior and outcomes. This examination is followed by a close look at the unemployed worker with a comparison of his background and characteristics with his more successful counterpart. A similar look is also taken at the job trainee and the consequences of job training. The effects of job discrimination are explored as well.

Based on this analysis, a review of young male Hispanic labor market experience will be used as a basis for comments on present public policy measures and for suggested directions of research.

Chapter 2: A Model of Hispanic Labor Market Success

Our survey provides data on a sample of young males in the 18 to 28 year age group. All of the respondees attended one of two junior high schools and were brought up in the same neighborhood. The survey sheds some light on their post school labor market experience. With that data this chapter attempts to develop a model of labor market success with special emphasis on the young male Hispanic.

A growing number of studies point to the important role that human capital plays in affecting productivity and earnings.[1] In this chapter we shall develop measures of labor market success and then develop an explanatory model using these measures as dependent variables. Then we shall examine some of the implications of the model.

Measures of Labor Market Success

There can be several ways of measuring success in the labor market. The most common method is to focus on labor earnings. This is probably the single best measure of success since a young man's status and living style are determined largely by his earnings. Moreover, in low income neighborhoods, one's income can be translated into a tangible and conspicuous measure of success—i.e., it allows possession of a car, nice clothes, and other physical possessions.

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[1] Becker, G.S. Human Capital. New York: Columbia University Press, 1975 (second edition).

Hansen, W.L., Weisbrod, B.A., and Scanlon, W.J. "Schooling and Earnings of Low Achievers," American Economic Review, June 1970, pp. 409.

Juster, F.T. (ed.) Education, Income, and Human Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.

Kiker, B.F. (ed.) Investment in Human Capital. Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1971.

Kohen, A.I., Grasso, J.T., Myers, S.C., and Shields, P.M. A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Market Experience of Young Men. R + D. Monograph 16. Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, 1977.

Wkystra, R.A. (ed.) Education and the Economics of Human Capital. New York: The Free Press, 1971.

However, labor economists recognize that a single gage wage measure can offer too narrow a view of success.[2] Certainly not all returns to capital are work related. Furthermore, non-monetary aspects of the job and the type of work performed are ignored. Young people, moreover, may take a longer view of the investment-job process and opt for lower earnings now while more investment in human capital is undertaken in the hopes of higher future earnings.

To consider some other aspects of the job, we have developed a broader labor market success index (LMSI). This index includes earnings, type of job, and degree of job stability. In this way, an attempt is made to deal with the issue of some non-monetary aspects of the job and the stability of the job.[3]

The Models

Consequently two different dependent variables will be used: Highest wage (W) and Labor Market Success Index (LMSI). The former uses hourly wages and the latter an adjusted weekly dollar amount of earnings.

To explain these measures of success, a group of independent variables will be used. These explanatory variables include: education, training, job experience, personal characteristics, environmental factors, and attitude.

The Explanatory Variables

The independent or explanatory variables can be divided into two broad categories. There are those variables which attempt to measure the investment in human captial and there are those that relate to the individual and his behavior-influencing forces. (See Table 1)

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[2] See Kohn, A.I., et. al., op. cit. p. 60.

[3] The procedure is as follows: Take the highest weekly earnings of the worker. Take the type of job (where professional technical=1; skilled=2; semi-skilled=3; unskilled=4). Multiply type of job by 10 and subtract this product from earnings. Then compute the average length of job tenure; take its reciprocal and multiply it by 100. Subtract this product from earnings adjusted by type of job.

TABLE 2-1

Variables in Success Models

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	
Education	W (Highest Wage)	LMSI (Success Index)
S=years of schooling	+	+
SP=type of school program[4]	?	?
GPA=grade point average[5]	-	-
BTS=behavior toward school[6]	+	+
Training		
CMT=months of civilian and military training[7]	+	+
Job Experience		
T=months of tenure on present job	+	+
WE=general experience in months worked since school	+	+
SW=working during school years[8]	-	-
Personal Characteristics		
SES=socio-economic status[9]	-	-
ES=English skill	-	-
FS=family status-number of children	+	+
R=race[10]	-	-
Environment		
NR=number of residences since 8th grade	-	-
PR=years lived in Puerto Rico	?	?
Attitude		
CA=career aspirations during school[11]	-	-
AIW=attitude toward work[12]	-	-

TABLE 2-1 (cont.)

+ = direct relationship postulated

- = inverse relationship postulated

? = uncertain relationship

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[4] academic = 1 commercial = 2 vocational = 3

[5] in last year of school; A = 1 B = 2 C = 3 Below C = 4

[6] absent and late often = 2 either absent or late often = 3 not absent or late often = 4

[7] military training beyond basic training

[8] yes = 1 no = 2

[9] This is an index computed as follows:

Add

highest grade father completed — Where 0 = 0-3 years, 1 = 4-6 years, 2 = 7 years, 8 = some college, 9 = college graduate

highest grade mother completed

father's work stability — 1 = out or work most of the time, 2 = sometimes, 3 = rarely, if ever, out of work

Subtract

father's occupation — 1 = professional or technical, 2 = skilled, 3 = semi-skilled, 4 = unskilled

parent's marital status — 1 = married living together, 2 = separated, 3 = divorced, 4 = one or both missing

reading materials gotten at home — 3 = get magazines, newspaper and have library card, 4 = didn't get one of the above, 5 = didn't get two of the above, 6 = got none of the above

[10] white = 1 black = 2 Hispanic = 3

[11] professional or technical = 1 skilled = 2 semi-skilled = 3 unskilled = 4

[12] favorable toward work = 1 unfavorable = 2

The human capital variables include education, t[redacted]ng, and job experience. Included in educational factors are years of schooling, type of school program, grade point average in the last year of school, and behavior toward school. It can be hypothesized that years in school should be directly related to level of labor market success. The relationship to success of the type of school program is uncertain, however, below the college level.

The quality of the investment is as important as the number of years spent in school. To account for this aspect of education the grade point average in the last year of school is utilized. We would expect to find that the higher it is, the more likelihood of success. However, given the way our questionnaire results are coded on this question, an inverse relationship should be demonstrated.

Another qualitative element in the human capital investment is the student's attitude toward school reflected in behavior. Although this attitudinal factor probably is related to years of school longevity and grades, it might be significant in its own right. Measuring attitude by extent of absenteeism and tardiness, we can postulate that there should be a direct relationship between positive behavior and job success.

Another important type of human investment is job training and this study uses the months of training beyond formal schooling. The training includes both civilian and military with the latter including only training beyond basic. One would hypothesize a direct relationship between training and job success.

Job experience represents another dimension to the investment process. Working often provides the opportunity for training, both general and specific. In addition, conditioning to the discipline and rhythm of work is provided. This study uses several types of job experience: months on present job, months worked since leaving school, and whether the student worked during his school years.

Tenure on the present job should be positively related to success since some progression in pay and training often accompanies the staying on a particular job. More generally, the length of the total work experience should aid the worker in his job market pursuits as should the experience of working during school; however, owing to the way the answer to the school work question was coded, the results suggest a negative relationship

to success.

In addition to the investment in human capital, several other factors would seem to affect the degree of job success. These factors involve the qualities of the worker himself. They include some personal characteristics, environmental factors, and attitude toward the job market.

Personal characteristics include the socio-economic status of the young man, the degree of skill in using English, the number of children, and race. The usual assertion about socio-economic status is that the higher the status, the more likely job market success will be obtained; that is the hypothesis here. Our status variable attributes positive influence to the education level of the parents, the father's occupation, the stability of the parent's mariatal status, and the degree to which the parents use reading materials at home. Owing to the way the index is computed its mean value is negative in this study; therefore an inverse relationship between it and success would be predicted.

Another characteristic important for job success is the ability to communicate in English. This skill is especially relevant when surveying Hispanic labor market success. The study used a combination of measures of understanding and speaking ability; the interviewee rated his own skill and the interviewer also rated it.[13] Since the coding scheme worked such that the higher the score the lower the skill rating, there should be an inverse relationship between the skill rating and success.

Another revealing personal variable is a young man's family status as measured by the number of children. It is argued that the more settled he is in terms of marriage and children, the more likely he is to be more serious minded and aggressive in the job market. Consequently we have postulated a direct relationship between the number of children and success. Of course, this relationship may mask another related variable--age--so that factor probably is incorporated in the family status variable.

It further is asserted that race will matter in terms of job success since there may be a degree of job discrimination or differential job performance. Using race as a dummy variable with Hispanics as higher numbers, we would predict an inverse relationship with job success.

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[13] The separate ratings were coded as follows and then summed.
1=excellent 2=good 3=fair 4=poor

A young man's environmental situation while growing up likely can affect his subsequent job career; therefore this study examines a couple of environmental variables: number of residences since the 8th grade and the number of years lived in Puerto Rico. The more commonly used explanatory environmental variables such as type of neighborhood, economic status, school, etc. have been controlled for in the choice of the sample initially. The number of residences reflect the degree of neighborhood stability whereas the years lived in Puerto Rico can point to some potential adjustment problems in custom and culture. We would assume that the number of residences would be inversely related to success but the Puerto Rican relationship is unclear in effect since adjustment problems could be offset by a greater degree of economic aggressiveness of families with long Puerto Rican tenure; moreover if a family had a stable situation during a young man's very early years in Puerto Rico the child may be more successful than one whose family was here but moved frequently and even shutttled back to Puerto Rico often during the formative years.

Finally, a young man's attitude can affect his labor market experience. This study uses the student's job career aspirations and present attitude toward work as attitudinal elements. In the former case a dummy variable is used for career goal during school and in the latter case the dummy variable relates to the answer to the question, "If by some chance you were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think you would work anyway?" Given the way the coding is accomplished for both elements, we would suspect an inverse relationship with job success.

Table 2 gives the mean values and standard deviations for all these variables. Only the socio-economic status variable's mean value is negative. The mean highest wage for all participants is $4.50 per hour and the mean value of the LMSI is $132.82 (per week).

The Regression Results

Table 3 shows the results of the multiple regression W model and Table 4 gives the results of the LMSI model.

Table 2- 2 - Statistics on Independent Variables *

Independent Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
S	6.29	1.47
SP	1.44	.75
GPA	2.50	.73
ATS	3.46	.75
CMT	2.25	1.56
T	20.24	24.31
WE	39.67	34.33
SW	1.41	.70
SES	-2.00	6.46
ES	4.27	1.49
FS	.68	1.09
R	2.41	.81
NR	3.48	2.36
PR	1.79	2.24
CA	2.55	1.98
ATW	1.41	.59
Dependent Variables		
LMSI	132.82	81.38
W	4.50	1.77

* For 58 cases

Table 3 Regression Results - Model W

Independent Variables	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error
S	.5175*	.1527
SP	-.1176	.3049
GPA	.3548	.2766
BTS	.1472	.2784
CMT	.1160	.1478
T	.0051	.0102
WE	.0142**	.0081
SW	-.3352	.2556
SES	-.0497	.0388
ES	.0753	.1401
FS	.5530 *	.2410
R	-.5465**	.3240
NR	-.0469	.0997
PR	.0920	.1168
CA	-.2006**	.1044
ATW	.5739**	.3190
CONSTANT	-.2189	
R^2	.6331	
F	4.4217	

N = 58

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .10 level

Table 2-4 Regression Results - Model LMSI

Independent Variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error
S	20.4056*	6.9224
SP	-12.1492	13.8193
GPA	6.6382	12.5369
BTS	3.0484	12.6218
CMT	4.2759	6.6998
T	.3725	.4637
WE	.3779	.3677
SW	-8.1935	11.5856
SES	1.2930	1.7603
ES	7.7479	6.3498
FS	32.9607*	10.9250
R	-33.6937*	14.6875
NR	- .7783	4.5219
PR	8.4813 **	5.2956
CA	-6.8441	4.7315
ATW	10.0465	14.4604
CONSTANT	-12.1193	
R^2	.6420	
F	4.5965	
N	58	

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .10 level

All of the signs of the coefficients are as expected except for grade point average, skill in English, and attitude toward work although none is significant at the .05 level and only work attitude is significant at the .10 level in the W model. The first two variables may be important only at the extremes of grades and English skill and very few participants were at the extremes. Moreover, for most entry level jobs, these factors may make little difference. The question relating to attitude toward work may not be revealing enough or answered honestly by many to shed much reliable light on work habits and attitude.

In the W model the significant variables (at the .05 level) are years of schooling (S) and family status (FS). At the .10 level work experience (WE), race (R), career aspirations (CA), and attitude toward work (ATW) are significant. For every year completed beyond the 7th grade, hourly earnings would rise by 52 cents and each additional child would be associated with 55 cents in higher earnings. Those with a negative attitude toward work would earn 57 cents more per hour while, on the average, a black would earn 55 cents less per hour than a white and a Hispanic would receive $1.09 per hour less than a white young male worker. One whose occupational goal was to be a professional or technical worker would earn 60 cents more than one whose goal was a semi-skilled type job. The other variables are not significant at the .10 level and would affect earnings relatively little.

When a broader view of labor market success is considered--the LSMI model--fewer variables are significant at the .10 level but race plays a much more prominent role at the .05 level. Here, a Hispanic worker would have an adjusted weekly wage of $67.38 less than his white counterpart. An extra year of school would add $20.40 and an extra child $32.96 in adjusted weekly earnings. At the .10 level of significance years spent in Puerto Rico play a role but the other variables in the W model are not significant.

Table 5 gives the elasticities of these significant variables for both models. All determinants are relatively inelastic but years of schooling in both models and race in the LMSI model have modest elasticities. Thus for every 10% increase in years of school completed, wages would rise by 7.2%.

Table 2-5 Elasticities of Significant Variables

Variable	Model LMSI	Model W
S	.966	.722
WE	-	.125
FS	.171	.084
R	-.612	-.292
PR	.114	-
CA	-	-.113
ATW	-	-.179

Comparison With the Kohen Findings[14]

Using a large national sample of young men, the Kohen study found that labor market success was strongly influenced by investment in human capital and race. The major elements of capital investment were schooling, formal training, on-the-job training, and learnig. The bulk of its sample was composed of whites with a much smaller number of blacks; it covered all parts of the country with respondees coming from all socio-economic groups and diverse neighborhoods.

This study differs from Kohen's since it focuses on Hispanics and he included virtually none and we control for evironment and for most of the socio-economic factors. For our "ghetto" group dominated by Puerto Ricans, years of schooling loom far more important in labor market success than for Kohen's group below college level and we found family status to be more important as well. We found more significant differences between white, black, and Hispanic success levels when other factors are controlled for. Only in our narrow W model did we find general work experience and career planning to be significant. As compared to Kohen's findings, we discovered job training and most work experience to have relatively little effect on success.

Conclusions

A multiple regression analyses using wage levels and labor market success index as dependent variables are developed and explain 64% of wage and success variations. The significant determinants of success are years of schooling, family status, and race. Additional years of school and numbers of children are associated with higher earnings. Additionally at a lower level of significance, general work experience, years spent in Puerto Rico, and higher career aspiration are positively related to labor market success.

Other elements of human capital investment including training, tenure on present job, and work experience in school are not significant. Neither are grade point average nor school behavior significant. English skills seem to have little effect on success.

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14 See Kohen, A.I., et. al., op.cit., pp. 60-85

Using a broad measure of success which includes job stability and type of job as well as wages, Hispanic young men do relatively poorly in the labor market compared to their white and black classmates from the same neighborhood. Additional years of schooling and having more family responsibilities adds significantly to their chances of job success. Most other factors relating to the school, family background, and training seem unimportant as to their effect on labor market success.

Chapter 3: The Hispanic Worker - A Background Profile

The results of the interview process allows us to take an in depth look at the young Hispanic male in terms of those factors affecting his labor market activities and success. We shall examine his locational stability and mobility, his family background, the human capital investment in him, his career aspirations, and some selected personal characteristics. Since our survey also collected data on two control groups of similar ages and general neighborhood and educational background, some comparisons with Hispanics are possible.

When referring to Hispanics, as mentioned above, in this study, we are referring almost exclusively to Puerto Ricans. Consequently to the extent that other Hispanic groups differ in their labor market activities and success, some of the aspects of this profile may not apply to the more general population of young Hispanic males.

Locational Instability

One group of factors potentially affecting the labor market behavior and success of workers is their locational environment. Answers to such questions as to whether young men move frequently, length of time in the area, and the frequency of neighborhood and residence change can furnish some insight into the possible knowledge of the job market, labor market ties, and the effect on personal behavior and outlook. Tables 1, 2, and 3 provide some answers to these questions.

Table 1 shows the relative newness of arrival of many Puerto Ricans; 40% have lived in the Wilmington area for 10 years or less. By comparison all the whites lived there in excess of 10 years and only about 15% of the blacks are relative newcomers. Associated with newness to the area can also be the number of years lived at the present address as shown in Table 2.

Almost 1/3 of the Hispanics have lived at their present address less than 2 years and 70% have lived there fewer than 6 years. Overall, in this "depressed area" of the city there is a lot of moving among housing units; the majority of families sampled lived at their present address for less than 5 years. White families tend to be less mobile than blacks but both are less mobile than Hispanic families.

Another way of looking at locational instability is to examine the number of residents lived in since the 8th grade as shown in Table 3. Again we see that Hispanics moved a great deal, with the median stay per residence about 4 years.

TABLE 3-1

Years Lived in Wilmington Area By Race — Percent Within Race

Years	Hispanic	White	Black
1 - 5	8.1	-	5.3
6 - 10	32.3	-	10.5
11 - 15	22.6	13.3	5.3
16 or more	37.0	86.7	78.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-2

Years Lived At Present Address, By Race — Percent Within Race

Years	Hispanic	White	Black
2 or less	32.3	20.0	15.8
3 - 5	38.7	20.0	31.6
6 - 10	16.1	13.3	21.1
11 - 15	11.3	13.3	21.1
16 or more	1.6	33.4	10.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-3

Number of Different Residences Since 8th Grade, By Race — Percent Within Race

Number of Residences	Hispanic	White	Black
1	18.3	46.7	31.6
2	18.3	13.3	10.5
3 - 5	31.7	40.0	52.6
6 or more	31.7	-0-	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

By contrast 46% of the white families had only one residence and none had more than 5; blacks shift more with a median number of residences in the 3 to 5 range.

Among the Puerto Ricans one major reason for this instability either in terms of the short span of stay in the area or at the present address is the Puerto Rico - mainland "connection". 59.7% of the Puerto Rican young men lived in Puerto Rico and among those that lived there the median period of stay was 6 to 10 years.

Family Background

This instability of locational mobility can be reinforced or partially offset by family background factors. The stability of the family structure, the level of education of the parents, the occupation of the father, the regularity of employment of the breadwinner, and the family size can affect the attitudes, skills, and the behavior toward work exhibited by the young male.

One measure of the family's structural stability is the marital relationship of the parents. In the Hispanic case, approximately 2/3's of the young males' families had parents married and living together. The white family had 87% of their parents together while only 63% of black respondents had a complete family.

The presence of the father also had an influence in terms of his labor market experience influencing the son. Table 4 shows that the Hispanic father tended to be in the relatively lower skilled occupations with 60% in semi- or unskilled jobs. White and black fathers both had more skilled jobs (although the large number of non-respondent blacks cast some doubt on that data). Within the professional - technical category, the white father was by far the most likely to be found.

In additional to what the father did in the labor market, his continuity of employment might influence the son as well. Table 5 gives a picture of this work experience. About 2/3's of the Puerto Rican fathers were rarely out of work but 16% were either occasionally or frequently out of work. Table 6 relates to the age of the father which might impact on continuity as well. The Hispanic father is relatively old, with 17% over 61 years and only 25% under 50. Black fathers, by contrast, were much younger with 42% under 50 and none over 61.

Much of this male parental background is tied to the level of formal education of the father. Table 7 gives this data. The typical Puerto Rican father had little formal education, with 58% with 3 years of school or less 14.5% were high school graduates. White fathers clustered in the 9-11 year range of school-

TABLE 3-4

Occupation of the Father, By Race of Son

Father's Occupational Group	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
Professional-Technical	32	26.7	5.3
Skilled	14.5	26.7	15.8
Semi-skilled	37.1	26.7	10.5
Laborer or Service	22.6	6.6	15.8
No father or unknown	22.6	13.3	52.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-5

Continuity of Father's Work Experience by Race of Son

Continuity of Father's Work Experience	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
Out of work a great deal of time	6.5	6.7	-
Out of work occasionally	9.7	20.0	5.3
Rarely out of work	66.1	60.0	57.9
No answer or other (or no father present)	17.7	13.3	36.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-6

Age of Father, By Race of Son

Age of Father (years)	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
41 - 50	25.8	26.7	42.1
51 - 60	38.7	46.7	21.1
61 and over	17.7	13.3	- 0 -
Not given	17.8	13.3	36.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-7

Education of Father, By Race of Son

Years of School Completed by father	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
0 - 3	58.1	33.3	42.1
4 - 8	20.9	- 0 -	21.1
9 - 11	6.5	46.7	15.8
12 and over	14.5	20.0	21.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-8

Education of Mother, By Race of Son

Years of School completed by mother	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
Skilled	1.6	6.7	5.3
Semi-skilled	30.6	46.7	36.8
Service	19.4	20.0	26.3
Did not work or don't know	48.4	26.6	31.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-9

Mother's Occupation By Race of Son

Mother's Occupational Group	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
Skilled	1.6	6.7	5.3
Semi-skilled	30.6	46.7	36.8
Service	19.4	20.0	26.3
Did not work or don't know	48.4	26.6	31.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

ing but only 20% were high school graduates. The black father was between the other groups with 42% having had 3 years or less of education and with 21% high school graduates. Of course as table 7 shows, educational attainment was relatively low in this poverty environment among all fathers regardless of race.

Another facet of the parental influence is the work and educational characteristics of the mother. Tables 8, 9 and 10 demonstrate a selection of these factors. Hispanic mothers tended to have less formal education than whites or blacks with 40% of them with fewer than 3 years of school and only 11% high school graduates. In comparison with Table 7 it is interesting to note that mothers tend to have substantially more education than fathers regardless of race; this is in contrast to the educational pattern in the general U.S. society wherein husbands tend to have more formal education than their wives.

Tables 9 and 10 shows that the Puerto Rican Mother was far less likely to be employed outside the home than either white or black women. Among working mothers, the Puerto Ricans tended to have less skilled jobs. Black mothers tended to work the most regulary while white women were more likely to work only some fo the time.

Another strong family influence on a youngster growing us is family size. Table 11 gives the extraordinarly large Puerto Rican and black families. Even the white family is large considering that the 1970 U.S. Census shows for the Wilmington SMSA a median houshold of 3.26 people - implying only slightly more than one child present.

Human Capital Investment

Given the influence of family background and family mobility, the young worker himself can influence his own labor market success by the investment in himself that he or his parents make. This investment can take the form of education and training to develop and hone those skills which bear on his ability to perform in a job.

During the school years the young man can be influenced by the extent to which reading material is present in the home and is used. It can be asserted that if the family gets printed material it will be used and that the children will be encouraged to use it. Table 12 shows the availability of some common types of reading material. Newspapers are the most likely to be used and library books the least likely.

TABLE 3-10

Work Experience of Mother, By Race of Son

Work Experience	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
Worked regulary	33.9	26.7	57.9
Worked on-and-off	14.5	20.0	10.5
Worked very little	4.8	20.0	-0-
Did not work	46.8	20.0	31.6
No answer	- 0 -	13.3	-0-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-11

Family Size, By Race

Number of Brothers & Sisters	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
0 - 1	6.4	33.3	26.3
2 - 4	22.6	46.6	26.3
5 or more	71.0	20.1	68.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-12

Selected Measures of Human Capital Investment in Family While Growing Up By Race

Families Getting or Having:	Percentage of: Hispanic	White	Black
Newspaper	32.3	86.7	73.7
Magazine	22.6	53.3	36.8
Library Card	6.5	20.0	5.3

On all counts, the Hispanic family provided relatively little background for its young sons with only 1/3 of the families getting newspapers and less than 1/4 receiving magazines. Black families actively used newspapers but few had more sophisticated reading material available.

The major investment made for all was in formal education as given in Table 13. The Hispanic male tended to drop out of school sooner than his white and black counterparts; only 41% graduated from high school. However, among those graduating high school a high percentage went on to attempt higher education. (However, very few went on to complete college.)

The "quality" of that educational experience may be as important as the time actually spent in school. Tables 14 and 15 indicate some measures of "quality". Table 14 is based upon the respondent's recollection of his grade average in his last year of high school (or junior high where applicable). The typical Hispanic was a "C" student; however, there were a significant number of "B" students. Black students had a higher standard deviation of grades with more "A"'s and fewer "C"'s than their Hispanic classmates. The average white tended to outperform either group.

Table 15 gives the academic program thrust of the student. Hispanics tended to follow the white pattern with almost 60% of them following an academic program with the balance in commercial and vocational programs. On the other hand, blacks were split equally between the two major career tracks.

School also can provide some experiences or information beyond that of formal course work which could be useful in the world of work. For example, Table 16 shows the extent of participation in extracurricular activities or sports and the availability of guidance. About 1/4 of the Puerto Rican students participated in non-academic affairs; this rate was half-way between the higher black student rate and the lower white student one. In terms of the recollection of a guidance counselor, the Hispanic student indicated a much lower rate, 60% compared to the 80% indicated by blacks.

What one gets out of school can be affected also by his attitude toward it. Table 17 gives some measures of attitude. Being absent and/or late to school often is indicative frequently of some degree of disenchantment with school. On both counts, some Hispanic youths were "turned off" by school.

TABLE 3-13

Education of Interviewees, By Race

Years of School Completed	Hispanic	White	Black
	Percentage		
8 - 11	58.1	40.0	15.8
12	24.2	40.0	63.2
More than 12	17.7	20.0	21.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-14

Grade Average in Last Year of School, By Race

Grade Average	Hispanic	White	Black
	Percentage		
A	4.8	36.7	10.5
B	37.1	26.7	21.1
C	40.3	33.3	36.8
below C	9.7	-	26.3
No answer	8.1	13.3	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-15

Type of High School Program, By Race

Program	Hispanic	White	Black
	Percentage		
Academic	54.8	66.7	47.4
Commercial	17.7	26.7	47.4
Vocational	9.7	-	5.3
No Answer	17.8	6.6	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-16

Selected Measures of School Activities, By Race — Percentage

Measures of School Activities	Hispanic	White	Black
Engaged in Extra curricular activities or sports	53.2	33.3	73.7
Had Guidance Counselor	58.1	66.7	78.9

TABLE 3-17

Attitude Toward School, By Race — Percentage

Measure of Attitude	Hispanic	White	Black
Absent from School a lot	43.5	26.7	26.3
Late to School often	24.2	13.3	21.1

TABLE 3-18

Post School Training, By Race — Percentage

	Hispanic	White	Black
Training in Armed Forces (Beyond Basic Training)	15.6	6.7	26.3
Civilian Training	37.1	40.0	26.3
Total	52.7	46.7	52.6

TABLE 3-19

Type of Post-School Civilian Training, By Race — Percentage

Type of Training	Hispanic	White	Black
Professional-Technical	8.1	13.3	-
Skilled	16.1	26.7	10.5
Semi-skilled	11.3	13.3	15.8
No Training	64.5	46.7	73.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Over 40% of Hispanics were absent a lot and almost 25% were late often. The white and black proportions were lower; however, the black youths' degree of lateness was much higher than their white classmates' level.

Beyond formal schooling, the extent to which success is achieved in the labor market may be related to other formal training. Table 18 shows the extent of participation in military and civilian training programs. Puerto Rican young man had limited military experience compared to blacks but had much more formal civilian training which was comparable to the 40% rate of white men. The civilian training of Hispanics was concentrated in skilled and to a lesser extent, semi-skilled job training; only about 20% of the trainees were engaged in professional technical type training compared to a white rate of over 30%. Black men tended to concentrate in the semi-skilled level of training.

A certain degree of training can be associated with working while attending school as well. Tables 20, 21 and 22 present some data on the school-working experience. Fewer than 50% of Hispanics held school jobs compared to 60% of whites and 40% of blacks. Of those holding jobs, Hispanics tended to gravitate more toward laborer or service jobs compared to those held by non-Hispanics. Of the jobs held, most jobs were for both the summer and part-time while attending school in the case of both Hispanics and Blacks. For those working, Hispanics and blacks worked a median period of 3 to 5 years compared to the shorter 1-2 year median of their white classmates. Hispanics also had the longest period of work experience with almost 10% of them working 6 years or more.

Job Mobility

Another feature of the job market behavior of young males is their mobility among jobs - either in the immediate area or on a broader geographical basis. Tables 23 and 24 give an indication of this mobility. The tables show Hispanics and blacks willing to shift jobs for lower wages than white workers but about 1/3 of them would not shift at all. On a geographical basis, over 2/3's of the Puerto Rican youth and whites would not move compared to 1/2 of blacks. Of those Hispanics willing to shift jobs, it would take a substantially higher wage rate to move geographically than to move within the existing labor market.

TABLE 3-20

Type of Job Held While in School, By Race

Type of Job Held	Percentage		
	Hispanic	White	Black
Semi-skilled	19.4	33.3	31.6
Laborer or Service	29.0	26.7	10.5
None	51.6	40.0	57.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-21

Nature of School Job, By Race

Nature of Job	Percentage		
	Hispanic	White	Black
Part-time	4.8	26.7	5.3
Summer	9.7	6.7	5.3
Both Part-time and Summer	33.9	26.7	31.6
None	51.6	39.9	57.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-22

Years Worked While in School, By Race

Years Worked	Percentage		
	Hispanic	White	Black
0 or less than 1	53.2	46.7	63.2
1 - 2	17.7	46.7	15.8
3 - 5	19.4	6.6	21.0
6 or more	9.7	-0-	-0-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-23

A Measure of Job Mobility in Terms of Wage Offer, By Race — Percentage

The wage offer that would induce worker to leave present job (in $ per hour)	Hispanic	White	Black
$ 2 -$2.99	6.4	-0-	5.3
3 - 3.99	11.3	6.7	26.3
4 - 4.99	22.6	20.0	15.8
5 - 6.99	21.0	26.7	10.5
7 -10.00	6.5	13.3	10.5
Wouldn't take any job or no answer	32.2	33.3	31.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-24

A Measure of Job and Geographical Mobility in Terms of Wage Offer, By Race — Percentage

The wage offer that would induce worker to leave the area for another job ($ per hour)	Hispanic	White	Black
$ 3 -$3.99	1.6	-0-	26.3
4 - 4.99	4.8	6.7	5.3
5 - 6.99	8.1	6.7	15.8
7 -10.00	16.1	20.0	5.3
Wouldn't move	69.4	66.6	47.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

English Language Skill

A special factor affecting the Hispanic worker is language. 93% of the sampled Puerto Rican males had Spanish spoken at home during their school years. Even today 72% of the young men use Spanish as the major language or co-major one at home. It can be asserted that the ability to use English would have an effect on job seeking and job success and heavy reliance on Spanish at home may adversely affect English competence.

Table 25 gives a dual evaluation of English skill. There is a self evaluation by the young man and that is contrasted with the interviewer's evaluation. Hispanics tend to rate themselves lower than the interviewer does; the same is true for whites; blacks tend to be overestimate their skill except among the excellent group.

Based on self evaluation, young Puerto Ricans tend to have trouble with English with almost 1/4 rating themselves fair or poor; however, a significant number of the other races also rate themselves as fair or poor. On the basis of the interviewer's evaluation, blacks are given a low rating, with over 1/3 being placed in the fair category.

Career Aspirations

Since personal career planning and attitudes toward one's working future can have an impact on labor market success, a series of questions were asked the young men about career planning. They were asked about the occupational goals they set while still in school, the goals suggested to them by the school guidance counselor, and the goal they have currently set for themselves at age 35 years. Tables 26,27, and 28 give their responses.

While in school, as shown in Table 26, Hispanics and blacks both set very high goals, with almost half opting for a professional or technical career; white youth set their sights significantly lower, with 20% planning on low level occupational activities. A significant proportion, about 1/3 , of all groups had no clearly defined occupational goals.

Also during the school period, the students were undoubtedly influenced by the guidance counselor. The young men recalled having a counselor in the following proportions:

TABLE 3-25

English Language Skill, By Race

-Group-	Percentage -Rating-									
	Excellent		Good		Fair		Poor		No answer	
	Self*	Inter**	Self	Inter	Self	Inter	Self	Inter	Self	Inter
Hispanic	30.6	38.7	45.2	46.8	14.5	12.9	8.1	1.6	1.6	-0-
White	26.7	40.0	26.7	60.0	26.7	-0-	-0-	-0-	19.9	-0-
Black	21.1	31.6	52.6	31.6	21.0	36.8	5.3	-0-	-0-	-0-

* Rated by interviewee himself

** Rated by interviewer

TABLE 3-26

Occupational Goal Set While in School, By Race

Occupational Goal	Percentage		
	Hispanic	White	Black
Professional-technical	45.2	20.0	42.1
Skilled	12.9	26.7	10.5
Semi-skilled	9.7	13.3	10.5
Laborer or Service	-0-	6.7	-0-
None or didn't know	32.2	33.3	36.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-27

Comparison of Career Goals of Student and Those Suggested By Guidance Counselor in School, By Race For Professional-Technical or Skilled Occupation

Race	Percentage of Students	Percent suggested by counselor	Difference
Hispanic	58.1	47.1	11.0
White	46.7	46.7	-0-
Black	52.6	64.3	11.7

TABLE 3-28

Current Occupational Goal for Age 35, By Race

Occupational Goal at 35	Percentage Hispanic	White	Black
Professional-Technical	24.2	33.3	15.8
Skilled	30.6	33.3	26.3
Semi-skilled	25.8	13.3	26.3
Don't know	19.4	20.1	31.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 3-29

Marital Status, By Race

Marital Status	Percentage Hispanic	White	Black
Married	19.3	40.0	15.8
Separated	3.2	-0-	5.3
Never Married	58.1	53.3	68.4
Not Married living together	17.7	-0-	5.3
Other	1.7	6.7	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Hispanic	58.1%
White	66.7
Black	78.9

Table 27 then compares the counselor's recommendations of a professional-technical skilled occupation with the student's desire for the same occupational level. It appears that counselor's advised a significant proportion of Hispanics to set their sights lower while they advised blacks to set more ambitions goals.

After leaving school and experiencing the world of work, the young men often revised their career aspirations. As shown in Table 28, occupational sights were lowered for Hispanics and blacks but whites upgraded their aspirations. The differences between goals set while in school and those subsequently set after working for a while were:

Occupational Group	In Percent Absolute Differences; Work vs. School Period		
	Hispanic	White	Black
Professional-technical	- 21.0	13.3	- 26.3
Skilled	17.7	6.6	15.8
Semi-skilled	16.1	-0-	15.8

It appears that as time goes on in the career of the young men, occupational aspirations conform more to reality.

Personal Characteristics

Other personal characteristics of the young men also can have a breaking on their job market success. Tables 29, 30 and 31 present a few of their characteristics. Whites tend to be married to a much greater extent than the other groups--at about double the rate.

About 1/3 of the Hispanics and blacks are home owners, while 1/2 of whites are home owners. Finally, the "puritan work ethic" seems very strong among Hispanic youth, with about 3/4's of them saying that they would continue to work even if they were wealthy enough to avoid it; only 1/2 of the blacks and 1/3 of the whites seem so inclined.

TABLE 3-30

Home Ownership, By Race

Race	Percentage Owning Home
Hispanic	37.1
White	53.3
Black	31.6

TABLE 3-31

Attitude Toward Work, By Race

Race	Percentage Who Would Work If Income Was High Enough Not To Work
Hispanic	72.6
White	33.3
Black	52.6

Summary

The survey shows several distinct characteristics of Hispanic young males differentiating them from their black and white neighbors and former school classmates. Hispanics are more recent in their entry into the area and move arcund much more rapidly among residences. Hispanic fathers are lower on the occupational-educational rung as are mothers. The Hispanic mother was less likely to work and produced many more children. Although the Hispanic family was relatively close knit, with the father much more likely to be present than in the black family, the family made a small investment in human capital. Consequently, Hispanic youth tended to receive a lower level of formal education and got lower grades in school.

Related to this family and human capital investment background was the Puerto Rican more negative attitude toward school; however, the extent of post school training was on a par with his contemporaries. About 1/2 of Hispanic youngsters worked while in school, mostly year round and for several years.

In the job market, the Hispanic male was more ready to move to another job in the area, but not very willing to move to another job if outside the area. The work ethic was very strong among young Puerto Rican males. One major problem in the job market was some difficulty with English; however some blacks had the same problem.

Hispanic students did not seem to receive much value from school counseling and tended to overshoot in terms of occupational aspirations. After some labor market experience, career aspirations were downgraded significantly.

In their personal life, young Hispanic males generally were not married and rented their living quarters. However, in spite of downgraded career aspirations and some problems in the labor market, 2/3 of the Hispanics are optimistic about the future and this optimism was much more pronounced than in the case of blacks and whites. (See Table 32)

TABLE 3-32

Attitude Toward The Future, By Race

Race	Percentage Optimistic About Future
Hispanic	66.1
White	46.7
Black	57.9

TABLE 3-33

Attitude Toward Wife Working, By Race

Race	% Believing Wife Should Work	% Believing Wife Should Work Changing Mind If Children Were Present
Hispanic	58.1	43.2
White	73.3	90.9
Black	73.7	21.4

Table 33 gives the young man's view toward working wives. Hispanics are more traditional in that only 58% believe that the wife should work compared to 73% of their classmates. Even among the Hispanics accepting a working wife, only 43% would stick to that position if the couple had children. The coming of children would affect the black youths' view very little but would dramatically alter the opinion of white males.

Chapter 4: An Economic Profile of Job Seekers and Job Seeking

One aspect of labor market success is unemployment. This chapter will attempt to examine the extent of unemployment of the young men of the sample and attempt to explain why the extent of duration differs. In addition, an in depth look is taken at job searching behavior since this behavior can also affect labor market success.

The Unemployed

As is true in the cities, especially in the Northeast, unemployment among young males in "ghetto" areas is high in comparison with the overall national unemployment rate. At the time of this survey, October - November 1977, the following were the rates of unemployment:

Hispanics	33.9%
Whites	20.0%
Blacks	18.7%

Clearly Hispanics had a substantially higher unemployment rate.

Even more important is the recent history of unemployment since the current rate of unemployment is a snapshot at a moment of time and can mislead as to the duration and severity of unemployment over a period of time. To explore this issue the survey provided data for the 12 months preceding the study (Fall 1976-Fall 1977) as follows:

Weeks Unemployed in Last Year

	0	1-4	5-20	21-44	45-52	Total
% of Total	48.5	12.4	14.4	11.3	13.4	100.0

This one year picture of unemployment can also be shown by racial grouping as follows:

Percentage in Each Category of Unemployment by Race

Weeks Unemployed	Hispanic	White	Black	Total
0	59.6	14.9	25.5	100.0
1-12	71.4	23.8	4.8	100.0
13-30	81.8	9.1	9.1	100.0
31-52	58.8	11.8	29.4	100.0
Total	64.6	15.6	19.8	100.0

This data show a wide incidence of unemployment during the year with over half the young men experiencing at least some joblessness. The most serious problem was the existence of unemployment for over 45 weeks of 13.4% of the sampled labor force. Broken out by race, the data show that Hispanics accounted for about 2/3 of the sample but were overrepresented in the 1-30 week unemployment groups but slightly underrepresented in the long-term and zero unemployment groups. Whites who accounted for 15.6% of the sample were less likely to be in the long-term group while blacks who accounted for 19.8% of the sample were overrepresented in the extreme categories of zero and long-term unemployed.

Closely tied to the issue of labor market success is the question of the differences of the long-term unemployed from the other groups of young men. Additionally, the issue arises as to whether the Hispanic long-termers differ from those of the other races. An exploration of the data from this study reveal some differences between the long-term unemployed and others and differences within that group.

Table 1 gives some family background characteristics of the sampled young men and compares the characteristics for those who experienced no unemployment in the last year with those who were out of work in excess of 31 weeks. The overall group is also compared to the Hispanic portion of the sample.

Practically all the characteristics of the long-term unemployed in comparison with the fully employed are contrary to what would be expected on the surface. The only fully anticipated characteristic is the fact that the unemployed have mothers with significantly less education than the employed; the Hispanics show this pattern as well.

The unexpected appears in the case of the variables of years of residence in the Wilmington area, years at the present residence, and number of residences since the 8th grade. It would be expected that the newcomer to the area more likely would be unemployed and that stability in terms of longevity at the present residence and fewer living places was greater; however, the opposite is true. The unemployed are twice as likely to be long-term residents, more likely to have lived at

TABLE -4-1

Some Family Background Characteristics of Young Men By Duration of Unemployment

Characteristics	Percentage Possessing Characteristic			
	All Fully Employed	All Long-Term Unemployed	Hispanic Fully Employed	Hispanic Long-Term Unemployed
Lived in Wilmington area over 20 years	29.8	52.9	-	-
Lived at present address 2 years or less	27.7	-0-	22.7	-0-
5 or more residences since 8th grade	38.3	11.8	43.5	20.0
Father's occupation as unskilled or none	32.2	18.2	41.1	14.3
Mother with 6th grade education or less	38.3	64.7	52.2	80.0
Mother who did not work	34.0	47.1	-	-
Family getting magazines at home	23.4	23.5	13.0	30.0

the present residence longer, and much less likely to have moved a lot. Similarly one would expect the father of the unemployed to have a less skilled occupation but the opposite is true.

Two other family characteristics are unexpected as well. It appears that there is a much better chance of the unemployed having a non-working mother than the employed young men. Furthermore, the investment in human capital by the family is about even for both groups but within the Hispanic group there was a much greater investment among the families of the unemployed if investment is measured by getting magazines at home.

The conclusions reached by examining this pattern of family background can only be tentative. However, one hypothesis may be that in the case of Puerto Rican young men the newcomer, often coming directly from Puerto Rico, is more ambitious and aggressive and less inclined to accept failure in the labor market. We have discovered that in spite of the family's mobility, the father's low skilled occupation and the family's smaller investment in human capital, the young newcomer compared to the long-term resident is more willing to invest in himself and is more ambitious in seeking work.

More insight into this hypothesis is provided in Table 2 which gives some personal characteristics of the unemployed compared to those who experienced no unemployment. It appears that the employed group has gotten more formal education, did better in school, is better in English, and was likely to have held a job while in school. The employed individual was more likely to be married and, in the case of Hispanics, much less likely to use Spanish as the major language at home. Few, if any, of last year's long-term unemployed was able to find employment currently.

Another way of viewing the two groups is to compare their aspirations and attitudes. Table 3 offers some insight into these factors.

While in school the employed group had higher labor market aspirations than their unemployed brethren, especially among Hispanics where 59% aspired to a professional-technical career compared to 37% for the unemployed. Even after considerable

TABLE 4-2

Some Personal Characteristics of Young Men By Duration of Unemployment

Characteristic	Percentage Possessing Characteristic			
	All Fully Employed	All Long-Term Unemployed	Hispanic Fully Employed	Hispanic Long-Term Unemployed
Less than 12 years of education	38.3	52.9	43.5	70.0
Grade average of C or less	56.8	60.0	50.0	55.6
English skill--self rated as fair or poor	23.4	29.4	21.7	40.0
English skill--objectively rated as fair	14.9	31.2	8.7	22.3
Holding a job while in school	65.9	33.3	65.2	40.0
Married	23.4	17.6	34.8	-0-
Using Spanish as major language at home	-	-	13.6	40.0
Currently unemployed	9.1	84.6	8.7	100.0

TABLE 4-3

Goals and Attitudinal Factors By Duration of Unemployment

Characteristic	Percentage Possessing Characteristic			
	All Fully Employed	All Long-Term Unemployed	Hispanic Fully Employed	Hispanic Long-Term Unemployed
Desiring professional-technical career while in school	47.6	42.9	59.1	37.5
Absent from school often	27.7	47.1	26.1	40.0
Late to school often	14.9	41.2	4.3	50.0
Desiring professional-technical career at age 35	27.7	23.5	40.9	12.5
Unwilling to move to get better job	61.7	70.6	40.0	25.0
Would return to school to take training if lost job	34.0	-0-	39.1	-0-
Optimistic about the future	57.4	47.1	60.9	50.0
Would move if income rose	55.3	47.1	45.5	50.0
Would work even if could afford not to work	68.1	58.8	82.6	70.0

downgrading by both groups, career aspirations (based on the present goal for age 35) still were much more ambitious for the employed group.

Attitudes differed sharply between the two groups as well. Using frequent absence from and lateness to school as measures of attitude reveals that the unemployed were very negative toward school with an almost 50% absence and lateness rate. Differing attitude toward education is also reflected in the willingness to return to school or take other training if they were without a job. Over a third of the employed group would take this course of action to improve their job situation whereas none of the long-term unemployed would be so inclined.

Attitudinal factors are associated with various aspects of mobility as well. The unemployed blacks and whites are less willing to move even if it meant getting a job or a better job than their employed neighbors; however, the opposite is true for Hispanics where the more successful job market members feel a strong pull to stay in their current neighborhood. This Hispanic - non-Hispanic difference also appears in terms of the willingness to move if the family income were to rise substantially. In this case over half of all blacks and whites who are employed would move compared to less than half of the unemployed, but 50% of the Hispanic unemployed would move compared to 40% of the employed.

Attitude toward work and life in general also differs between the groups of employed and unemployed. A substantial proportion of all groups indicate a desire to work even if financial events make it unnecessary, but the feeling was stronger among the employed. It should be noted that the inclination to work was stronger among the Hispanic even though this difference between groups was similar.

Optimism levels regarding the future ranged from 47 to 57% of all young men and higher levels for Puerto Ricans. The differences between the employed and unemployed groups in optimism were substantial with 10% more of the employed taking an optimistic view.

Another way of looking at the unemployed is to examine their job history in relation to their more successful counterparts.

TABLE 4-4

Some Job History Characteristics By Duration of Unemployment

Characteristic	Percentage Possessing Characteristic			
	All Fully Employed	All Long-Term Unemployed	Hispanic Fully Employed	Hispanic Long-Term Unemployed
1st job, held less than 1 year	45.9	75.0	21.7	80.0
1st job, as unskilled	53.8	42.9	56.5	50.0
1st job, quit	35.7	42.9	33.3	50.0
2nd job, held less than 1 year	56.0	60.0	-	-
2nd job, as unskilled	59.3	-0-	-	-

For the unemployed (who held jobs during their working career) there was a much greater shift among jobs; 3/4 of the unemployed held their first job for less than 1 year compared to 45% of the currently employed. Even though the employed had a greater tendency to start at the unskilled job level, they were far less likely to quit. This same pattern of behavior seemed to follow as well for the subsequent job. For example, on the second job the duration of that job was longer for the employed group and was likely to be for an unskilled job. Apparently the employed group was more willing to work and to hold on to their job even if it meant a less desirable job. That stronger motivation to work seems to be the overriding difference between the fully employed and the long-term unemployed.

Job Searching

Upon entering the labor market, the young man embarks on a search process. The nature and the methodology of the search may have some effect on the subsequent job market results.

A national study was accomplished in 1976 showing the job searching behavior of the unemployed. This behavior is shown on Table 5. The method used most frequently by both whites and blacks was in contacting potential employers directly and very little use was made of working through friends or relatives or of private employment agencies. The major differences between races was a greater reliance on newspaper ads for whites and more reliance on public employment agencies by blacks.

Our survey asked the young male respondent to mention the major method used in seeking employment. Table 6 gives the results of the survey. Similar to the national picture was the heavier reliance on dealing with the employer by the white male and the much greater emphasis on using public employment agencies by blacks. On the other hand, significant differences from the national survey involved the much heavier emphasis on the use of friends or relatives by blacks and their non-use of the newspaper.

The national survey did not isolate the Hispanic male for attention whereas our data shed some light on his job search

TABLE 4-5

Job Search Method Used By Unemployed Job Seekers in U.S., 1976

Per Cent Using Method	White Male	Black and Other Males
Public Employment Agency	28.9	36.8
Private Employment Agency	6.5	6.5
Employer Directly	73.9	69.9
Placed or Answered Ads	29.9	22.2
Friends or Relatives	17.3	17.9
Other	8.6	6.7
Average Number of Methods Used	1.65	1.50

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977, p. 175.

TABLE 4-6

Job Search Method Used by Young Men, By, Race

Primary Method Used	Per Cent White	Per Cent Black	Per Cent Hispanic
Public Employment Agency	14.3	57.1	19.3
Private Employment Agency	0	0	3.5
Employer Directly	42.9	7.1	19.3
Friends or Relatives	14.3	35.8	45.6
Placed or Answered Ads	28.5	0	7.0
Other	0	0	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

behavior. Hispanic behavior differs from both white and black behavior. Almost half of the Hispanic young males use friends or relatives as their primary job source. At the same time, they put relatively little reliance on the public employment agency, direct contacts with potential employers, or newpaper ads.

This job search behavior can be associated with some basic characteristics of the young man. Tables 7 and 8 relate to the locational stability of the young man's family. It appears that the newcomers rely mostly on the web of friends and relations to get jobs while the long-term residents tend to exploit their familiarity with employers or newspapers. Similarly, using employers and employment agencies is more characteristic of those whose families changed residences rarely. The greater reliance on friends or relatives occurred in the case of residentially more unstable families.

Family background factors also seem to influence the type of job search behavior. Tables 9, 10 and 11 reflect these factors. In Table 9, the young men relying upon friends or relatives for job leads tend to come from families with a greater tendency to have a father working in an unskilled job and with less than a high school education. In addition, such young men have mothers with relatively little formal education and come from very large families.

Table 10 gives some aspects of the human capital investment behavior by the family. In general those using direct employer or newspaper ads tended to come from families who placed greater stress on getting reading materials at home, whereas those using friends or relatives got fewer reading items at home. It is not surprising that 68% of those concentrating on employer or newspaper contacts came from families who got a newspaper at home.

Those using Spanish as the major language at home, as shown in Table 11, tended to rely more on friends or relatives for job assistance. This group of young men still using Spanish now as their major language continue to rely more on this web of friends in job seeking.

Those respondents who have made a more substantial educational investment tended to use more formal job information sources rather

TABLE 4-7

Years Lived in Wilmington Area By Job Search Method

Job Search Method	Per Cent By Years Lived In Wilmington Area		
	1-5	6-15	16 or more
Employment Agencies	20.0	21.6	31.8
Employer and Newspaper	20.0	40.5	37.9
Friends and Relatives	60.0	37.9	38.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE4-8

Number of Residences By Job Search Method

Job Search Method	Per Cent By Number of Residences			
	1-3	4-6	7 or more	Total
Employment Agencies	69.6	17.4	13.0	100.0
Employer and Newspaper	66.6	29.2	4.2	100.0
Friends and Relatives	47.1	35.3	17.6	100.0

TABLE4-9

Job Search Methods By Family Background Factors

Factors	Per Cent of Job Search Method: Employment Agencies	Employer or Newspaper	Friends or Relatives
Father in unskilled job	26.6	27.3	31.1
Father as high school graduate	17.4	19.2	11.8
Mother as high school graduate	30.5	19.2	14.7
Median number of brothers and sisters	5	4	6

TABLE 4-10

Job Search Methods By Human Capital Investment By Family

Type of Investment	Per Cent By Job Search Method: Employment Agencies	Employer or Newspaper	Friends or Relatives
Got magazine	39.1	38.5	20.6
Got newspaper	56.5	68.0	26.5
Had library card	-0-	7.7	14.7

TABLE 4-11

Job Search Methods By Use of Spanish as Major Language at Home

Use of Spanish	Per Cent of Job Search Method: Employment Agencies	Employer or Newspaper	Friends or Relatives
During school year	40.9	50.0	76.5
	15.0	16.0	36.4

than friends or relatives as shown on Table 12. This job market behavior is as typical of Hispanic young men as others. Those individuals using employer or newspaper contacts tended to do well in school and were more likely to have pursued an academic program. Those using employment agencies, especially the state-run one, tended to do poorly in school and to have pursued a commercial or vocational program.

Table 13 demonstrates other job search relationships in terms of other forms of human capital investment. Veterans are more likely to use employment agencies but those who took post high school training were found to a greater extent among the young men relying upon direct employer contacts for jobs; this latter method of job hunting seems to be favored by those who worked during school. Table 14 further points out that the long-term (and currently) unemployed men stressed using friends or relatives to seek employment but that those fully employed last year had used a wide variety of job search methods.

Behavior once in the labor market also varies by job search method as illustrated in Table 15. Those using employer contacts and newspaper ads tend to hold jobs a relatively short period of time but make higher wages, at least for the first job, than others. The men relying on employment agencies held on to jobs longer but started at a lower skill level, whereas those depending upon friends or relatives for jobs started mainly at the unskilled level and continued there for subsequent jobs.

Differences among job searchers also are presented in Table 16 which looks at attitudinal factors. Those relying on employment agencies are more likely to like school and like their present job; on the other hand they are the most geographically mobile group but have the weakest work ethic. The group utilizing direct employer contact and newspaper ads had a strong dislike for their job but were the most optimistic about the future. Relying on friends or relatives for job leads is associated with dislike of school, strong loyalty to their present location, a strong work ethic, but the least optimistic view of the future of all other groups.

TABLE 4-12

Job Search Method By Educational Background

Educational Background	Per Cent of Those Using: Employment Agencies	Employer and Newspaper	Friends or Relatives
Finished High School (All Races)	65.2	55.2	29.4
Finished High School (Hispanics)	46.2	59.3	30.8
Grade Average of C or Less	60.9	27.6	61.7
In Academic School Program	39.1	65.5	55.9

TABLE 4-13

Job Search Method By Human Capital Investment Other Than Formal Education

Type of Investment	Per Cent of Those Using: Employment Agencies	Employer and Newspaper	Friends or Relations
Served in Armed Forces	34.8	20.7	20.6
Post High School Training	24.2	45.5	30.3
Worked During School	39.1	65.5	47.1

TABLE 4-14

Employment Status of Young Men By Job Search Method

Job Search Method	Per Cent Who: Were Employed All of Last Year	Unemployed More than 45 Weeks	Currently Unemployed
Employment Agencies	33.3	27.3	21.7
Employer and Newspaper	30.8	9.1	21.7
Friends or Relatives	35.9	63.6	56.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 4-15

Job Market Behavior and Job Search Methods

Per Cent By Job Market Behavior

Job Search Method	1st Job: Held Less Than 1 Yr.	1st Job: Unskilled	1st Job: $2.50 or More Per Hour	2nd Job: Held Less Than 1 Yr.	2nd Job: Unskilled	2nd Job: $2.50 or More Per Hour
Employment Agency	40.0	62.5	40.0	50.0	36.4	72.7
Employer and Newspaper	61.9	34.6	60.9	62.5	36.8	66.7
Friends or Relatives	56.7	62.1	44.4	54.2	52.2	60.9

TABLE 4-16

Attitudinal Factors and Job Search Methods

Factor	Per Cent By Job Search Method		
	Employment Agencies	Employer and Newspaper	Friends or Relative
Absent from school a lot	26.1	34.5	44.1
Dislike present job	28.6	42.8	28.6
Would not move regardless of wage	23.2	28.6	48.2
Would work even if did not have to (All men)	22.2	33.3	44.5
Would work even if did not have to (Hispanics)	69.2	73.3	80.8
Optimistic view of future	68.2	69.2	60.6

Chapter 5 Job Training and Job Market Discrimination

Investment in one's own human capital is considered often as an important ingredient in the success formula. Our labor market success model reflects clearly that education is a key variable. Job training on the other hand, does not seem to contribute much to job success in the short run. However, the long-run effects are not clear.

This chapter will take a closer look at job training of young men in terms of the background and attributes of trainees and some evidence of the labor market results of training.

In spite of education and job preparation a shortfall in job market progress may occur owing to racial discrimination in job markets. That aspect of the operations of job market will be examined as well.

Variables Influencing Job Training

Job training beyond the high school program was taken by 35.1% of the young men in the sample. The type of training was as follows:

Business college or technical school	41.2%
Company training	17.6%
Correspondence and other training	41.2%
Total	100.0%

Therefore, the training other than business college, techinical school, or company type engaged in by the young men involves 12.4% of them.

Whites and Hispanics undertook more training than Blacks as follows:

Race	Percentage Taking Training
White	40.0
Black	26.3
Hispanic	37.1

The type of training taken is shown as follows:

Type of training	Percent of total
Professional-Technical	20.6
Skilled	41.2
Semi-skilled or other	38.2

As might be expected, skilled and semi skilled training were the predominant levels of training.

Some family background factors that might account for differences in training among young men are shown in Tables 1 and 2. Half of the respondents whose fathers worked in semi-skilled type jobs took training whereas those with fathers with higher skilled jobs participated in training to a far lesser extent. Consistent with this relationship as to the father's job is the level of parental education. Training participation by the off-spring of fathers with 9 to 11 years of formal schooling is considerably higher than those whose fathers were high school graduates and those whose fathers had less than a 9th grade education. In the case of the mother, the young man's participation rate only dropped significantly for the those whose mothers were high school graduates.

A working mother was also associated with a higher training rate as was family size. It seems that the participation rate for those that had 0 to 3 brothers or sisters was 43% and with 7 or more was 47%; Among the Puerto Rican youth, the participation rate was 50% for those with both small and very large families. Table 3 also shows an inverse relationship of training rate to years at present residence.

The young man's training participation can be related also to his characteristics, his investment behaviour, and his school experience. Surprisingly, training is not related to the level of education; the participation rate of high school graduate is not significantly different from the non graduate. However, those who finished school before 1974 had double the participation rate of the more recent graduates.

Success in school seems to have a major bearing on the extent of post-school training. Table 4 shows that the training rate is almost double for good students compared to weaker performers. The same difference in training rate is found among those who rated education as being extremely or somewhat useful (45%) compared to those who rated it as of little or no use (25%)

TABLE 5-1

Job Training Related to Fathers Occupation

Father's occupation	Percent with Background who took Training
Professional-Technical, Skilled	21.7
Semi-skilled	50.0
Laborer or Service	38.0

TABLE 5-2

Job Training Related to Parent's Education

Years of Education	Percent with Background who took Training	
	Father	Mother
0-3	30.6	46.7
4-8	38.9	32.3
9-11	64.3	43.8
12 or more	18.8	15.0

TABLE 5-3

Job Training by Years Lived at Present Address, by Race

	Percent Taking Training	
Years lived at present address	All	Hispanics
less than 1 year	55.6	57.1
1-5	42.5	36.1
6-15	30.0	35.3
16 or more	37.5	- 0 -

TABLE 5-4

Job Training Related to Grade Average in School

	Percent Taking Training by Race	
Grade Average	All	Hispanic
A and B	46.3	50.0
C or less	25.0	22.6

TABLE 5-5

Job Training Related to Type of School Program by Race

	Percent Taking Training	
Type of Program	All	Hispanic
Academic	31.5	32.2
Commercial or Vocational	38.7	47.1

The type of school program pursued and the degree of career planning also was related to the training rate. Table 5 shows that those taking the commercial or vocational program, especially Hispanics, were more likely to take training than the academic enrollees. Those students who remembered having guidance counselors had a much higher participation rate than other students (40% compared to 24%) Moreover, the type of counselor advice itself was related to participation rate with half of those who were recommended to undertake a professional, technical, or skilled occupation taking training compared to a 20% rate for those for whom a semi-skilled career was recommended. Table 6 also shows that the student's own career goal while in school seemed to be highly correlated with training. Those with a semi-skilled or modest career plan participated very heavily in post school training.

The reasons for ending formal education also can be associated with the training participation rate. Table 7 shows that the subsequent training rate will be higher when the student stops for financial reasons or family responsibilities rather than because of lack of ability or interest in school; these differences are more pronounced among Hispanics.

A background in having previous military training exposure surely positively affects the willingness to undertake training. 47% veterans take training compared to 32 % of non-veterans. Of these veterans, 60% of those who had military training beyond basic took subsequent civilian training compared to 16% of those veterans who only had basic training.

Training interest can also be associated with attitudinal factors as shown in tables 8,9,10, and 11. Table 8 demonstrates that the participation rate is much higher for those planning for skilled occupations at age 35; apparently they perceive that training will help fulfill this dream. Table 9 also shows that those who like their job are much more likely to have had job training than those who dislike their job.

Table 10 shows that the mostly like to take training are those who don't have or can't say whether their future will be favorable or unfavorable. Those most likely to have taken training

TABLE 5-6

Job Training by Occupational Goal While in School, by Race

Type of Program	Percent Taking Training	
	All	Hispanic
Professional-Technical	32.5	32.1
Skilled	21.4	12.5
Semi-skilled	70.0	83.3
Laborer	- 0 -	- 0 -

TABLE 5-7

Job Training by Obstacles to Further Formal Education, by Race

Major Obstacle to Further Education	Percent Taking Training	
	All	Hispanic
Financial problems	39.5	50.0
Family responsibilities	33.3	44.4
Lack of ability or interest	30.8	20.0

TABLE 5-8

Job Training Related to Job Goal at Age 35, By Race

Job Goal at 35	Percent taking Training	
	All	Hispanics
Professional-Technical	33.3	33.3
Skilled	44.8	52.6
Semi-skilled	39.1	31.3

TABLE 5-9

Job Training Related to Opinion of Present Job, By Race

Opinion of present job	Percent Taking Training	
	All	Hispanics
Like very much or fairly well	37.5	41.4
Dislike very much or somewhat	26.7	12.5

TABLE 5-10

Job Training by View of Future, by Race

View of future	Percent taking training: All	Hispanics
Optimistic	37.3	36.6
Pessimistic	18.8	25.0
Don't know or can't say	45.0	46.2

TABLE 5-11

Job Training by Willingness to work If Did Not Have to Work, By Race

Willingness to work	Percent Taking Training: All	Hispanic
Would work	45.0	40.0
Would not work	25.0	35.7

TABLE 5-12

Job Training by Marital Status By Race

Marital status	Percent taking Training: All	Hispanic
Married	55.0	63.6
Not married	28.6	27.8

are those who would prefer to work as illustrated in Table 11.

Some personal characteristics seem to be related to the propersity to take training. Table 12 shows that married men participate in training to a much greater extent than the unmarried by a two-to one margin. English language skill is very strongly correlated with training as clearly shown in Table 13. Half or more of those with excellent skill took training whereas only a handful of those with weak English ability undertook training.

Government Sponsorship and Nature of Programs

Job training is often asserted to be one major solution path to solving the problems of unemployment and low labor market achievement of "ghetto" youth. Although investigation of this issue was not the major thrust of this study, our data will allow making some comments on the question.

Of those who took training, 55% reported that they were in government sponsored programs; thus 17.5% of all men sampled took a government financed program as follows:

Professional-technical	15.0
Skilled	45.0
Semi-skilled	40.0
Total	100.0

Some of the characteristics of the training courses are shown in Table 14. Most of the courses were of 6 months or less in duration and lasted 10 hours a week or less. However, a significant minority of the courses were "full time"; ie, 31 hours or more per week. Slightly over half of the trainees completed the first course they took and almost 3/4's finished a course if it were their second one.

The major reason given for not completing a course was a loss of interest as given in Table 15. Another 21% indicated a problem of adequate time to spend in the program. Thus it can be suggested that almost 60% of the dropouts were misplaced in the program in term of interest or ability to fit the training in their schedule.

TABLE 5-13

Job Training by English Skill, by Race

Rating	Percent taking Training Objectively Rated	
	All	Hispanics
Excellent	52.8	50.0
Good	31.8	34.5
Fair or Poor	6.7	12.5

TABLE 5-14

Some Characteristic of Job Training Programs

Characteristic	Percentage with Characteristic		
	1st Course	2nd course	3rd course
6 months or less in duration	66.7	85.7	75.0
10 hours a week or less	40.7	57.1	-
31 hours a week or more	33.3	42.9	-
Completed course	53.6	71.4	-

TABLE 5-15

Reason for Not Completing Training Course

Reason	Percent Giving this Reason
Found job	21.4
Lost interest	42.9
Too much time	21.4
Other	14.3
Total	100.0

TABLE 5-16

Reason for Taking Training

Reason	Percent Giving this Reason
To obtain work	17.3
To get a better job	37.9
To improve current job situation	37.9
Other	6.9
Total	100.0

Most young men took the training to either get a better job than the one they had or to improve their earnings or promotion possibility in terms of their present employer. Only 17% sought training to change their unemployment status. (see Table 16).

Effects of Job Training

The limited extent of the questions on training and the statistical problems associated with small size samples, makes definitive statements about the effectiveness of training in terms of labor market results highly questionable. However, some tentative conclusions may be hinted at by examining some limited bits of data.

For one thing, Table 17 shows that training does not seem to make much difference in terms of finding a job. If anything, the unemployed tend to have participated more in training than the fully employed; this is especially true among young Hispanic males. What is disappointing is that 42% of the currently unemployed Hispanics had taken job training. Of course, Table 16 would suggest that while taking training most of the young men were employed by that subsequently unemployment often resulted; training did not prevent that from happening.

Table 18 goes on to show that having taken training is not necessarily associated with low job turnover. Of course, the higher turnover of the first job for trainees may have resulted from the training in terms of seeking a better job since the table shows that the trainees tend to hold on to their second job longer than non-trainees. However, the overall turnover rate is still absolutely high.

Training seems to be related to a shorter work week and to a higher quit rate to take another job as shown in Table 19. However, the skill level of the job and the earnings level of the job do not seem be significantly different as between trainees and non-trainees. Over time differences may appear but the labor market success model does not show job training to be significant factor in success at this stage of the career.

On a subjective level, the training programs have a resonably

TABLE 5-17

Job Training Related to Unemployment Status by Race

Unemployment Status	Percent Taking Training	
	All	Hispanics
Fully employed last year	31.9	30.4
Unemployed 1-12 weeks last year	31.8	46.7
Unemployed 13-44 weeks last year	46.7	41.7
Unemployed 45 or more weeks last year	38.5	57.1
Currently unemployed	37.5	42.1

TABLE 5-18

Duration of Job by participation in Job Training by Race

Training Status	Percent Holding Job less than one year			
	1st job		2nd job	
	All	Hispanic	All	Hispanics
Took Training	55.6	47.1	43.5	40.0
Did not take Training	48.8	43.3	60.0	61.9

TABLE 5-19

Job Behavior by Participation in Job Training, by Race

	Percent Who (on job)			
	Worked 40 hours per week or more		Quit to take another job	
Training Status	All	Hispanics	All	Hispanics
Took Training	65.5	78.9	83.3	86.7
Did not take training	85.7	86.2	60.6	72.7

TABLE 5-20

Assessment of Government Sponsored Job Training Programs by Participation, by Race

Training Status	Percentage Who Disagree That Training Programs Are Valuable	
	All	Hispanics
Trainees	12.1	9.0
Non-Trainees	13.5	11.7

TABLE 5-21

Perceived Effects of Job Discrimination According to Hispanics

Nature of effects	Percentage believing
Kept from getting a job	53.3
Kept from getting a promotion	16.7
Kept wages lower	3.3
Total	100.0

good rating. 44% of the trainees say that they use their training on their present jobs. Most trainees agree that government sponsored training programs are valuable. However, as Table 20 demonstrates most non-trainees hold the same belief.

In general, therefore, we can say that on an objective basis the net benefits of training are not clear. Subjectively, there is a strong feeling that training is worth it. More extensive data for young males might shed more light on this issue including such questions as

"Why don't more young men take training, especially since they agree that it can be valuable?"

"Do trainees actually do better in the job market?"

"Is the mix and types of training program optional?"

"How could more young Hispanics be induced to take training?"

"What can be done to reduce the high drop out rate?"

"Why can't unemployed trainees benefit from their training in term of obtaining acceptable employment?"

These and many related questions would require additional research.

Job Discrimination

It might be argued that job training may not have its desired payoff in terms of lablr market success if discrimination is practiced agaisnt minority group members. More generally, of course, discrimination can affect adversily the job market success of young men.

As might be expected, the young man's belief is to having experienced job discrimination differed by race as shown below:

Race	Percent Believed Having Experienced Discrimination
Hispanics	57.9
White	21.4
Black	55.6

The effects of the perceived discrimination as seen by Hispanics are given in Table 21. Over half felt that they were denied from getting a job. To a lesser extent it was felt that discrimination

resulted in depressed wages or denial of job advancement.

The extent to which discrimination is practiced against Hispanics according to all young men is indicated in Table 22. Only about 1/3 of those experiencing discrimination felt that job discrimination against Hispanics was isolated or non-existent whereas 61% felt that it was widespread.

Although in many respects it is not possible to develop a socio-economic profile of a discrimination- prone young man of a given race, there are some interesting characteristics of the discriminated. Those who are newcomers, poor students, and negative concerning their labor market participation are more likely to charge discrimination.

As Table 23 shows those young men who lived in the area less than 5 years (primarily Hispanics) have the unanimous opinion that they have been discriminated against. Table 24 clearly shows that the poorer students perceive more discrimination. Those that did not take job training are twice as likely to claim discrimination than non-trainees. (Table 25). Hispanics who tended to rely on speaking English at home felt discrimination more than those using primarily Spanish. (Table 26)

Adding to the evidence that the less well adjusted and less successful young man tended to see more discrimination is Table 27. Those believing that discrimination has affected them are more likely to dislike their job, be more willing to move, and to be generally pessimistic about their future.

Discrimination and Job Market Success

On a subjective basis those young men who have experienced less scholastic and personal success and who look disappointly to their job experience argue that discrimination has been widely practiced against them. As verification against that charge some objective measures of labor market success might be useful. However, the results are clouded in trying to use various labor market measures.

There does not seem to be serious differences in earnings between those claiming discrimination and those not claiming it. The major differences in labor market experience between the two groups is shown in Table 28 below.

TABLE 5-22

Belief as to the Degree of ob Discrimination Against Hispanics

Degree of Discrimination	Percent Believing
Widespread	61.5
Occasional	45.9
Isolated or non-existent	35.3

TABLE 23

Discrimination by Years Lived in Wilmington Area

Years lived	Percent Experiencing Discrimination
1-5	100.0
6-15	45.9
16 or more	48.9

TABLE 5-24

Discrimination by Grade Average in School

Grade average	Percent Experiencing Discrimination
A or B	42.5
C or below C	65.1

TABLE 5-25

Discrimination by Taking Training Beyond High School, by Race

Training Background	Percent Experiencing Discrimination	
	All	Hispanics
Took Training	27.3	36.4
Did not Take Training	68.6	71.9

TABLE 5-26

Discrimination by Language Used Now, by Hispanics

Major language used	Percent Experiencing Discrimination
English	71.4
Spanish	50.0

TABLE 5-27

Discrimination by Various Measures of Attitude Toward Jobs and Work

Percentage Experiencing Discrimination by					
View of present job		Willingness to move to Get Better job		View of Future	
Like	Dislike	Unwilling	Willing	Optimistic	Pessimistic
42.5	60.0	58.9	38.2	46.4	71.4

TABLE 5-28

Measures of JMb Market Experience by Those Perceiving Discrimination

Percent Perceiving Discrimination by:					
Years Held 1st Job		Hours worked 1st Job		Reason for quitting 1st Job	
Greater than 1	3-10	Less than 40	40 or more	Quit	Laid off or Job Ended
34.2	66.7	33.3	62.2	75.0	15.4

It appears that those claiming discrimination are more likely to have held their first job longer, worked 40 hours more a week, and quit their job. No significant differences were found in earnings or extent of unemployment last year.

We can conclude that many Hispanics (and Blacks) perceive a significant extent of discrimination in job markets and that discrimination has kept them from getting a job or moving up the job ladder. However, some probing shows that those less successful in their personal or scholastic lives and more unhappy about their job market status are more prove to see discrimination. There is no clear objective evidence that discrimination has resulted in major job market penalties except that those seeing discrimination are more likely to quit their job rather than to be involuntarily severed from it.

Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The objective of this study was to develop a labor market success model for young male Hispanics in an urban setting and to analyse this young male worker in terms of his background, investment behavior, attitudes and personal characteristics. A close look was also taken of the unemployed and the young worker in terms of his job search techniques, his experience in job training, and his perception of job discrimination.

To control for environmental factors and socio-economic elements a sample of Hispanic men, all of whom were Puerto Rican in this inner-city area, who attended the eighth grade in two schools in a "ghetto" area of Wilmington, Delaware in the 1966-1971 period was chosen and interviewed. Two small control groups of blacks and whites from the same schools were chosen and similarly interviewed. The survey instrument is reproduced in the appendix.

Using the data from the survey, two multiple regression models of labor market success were developed. One has as its dependent variable the highest wage earned and the other uses a success index which consists of the highest wage adjusted for stability of employment and type of job. In the wage model, years of formal schooling beyond the 8th grade and the number of children are the major variables positively related to success.* Secondarely, positive attitude toward work and one's career is positively related to success.**

In the success index model the key independent variables are, as in the wage model, years of schooling* and number of children* as well as years lived in Puerto Rico;** all are positively related to success. The last variable is explainable in terms of the greater drive to succeed of newcomers and the lesser chance of developing negative attitudes toward success and work that long-term residents may have.

In both models race makes a difference but is more important in the more comprehensive success index model. On a strictly wage basis, being Hispanic is associated with earning .55¢ per hour less than blacks and $1.10 per hour less than whites.

* at the .05 level of significance

** at the .10 level of significance

Other than formal schooling, the level and quality of human capital investment seems to make little difference in success other than a weak relationship to general work experience. Grades in school, type of school program, attitude toward school, time on present job, and working during the school year do not seem to matter. Months of past-school job training does not matter either. Socio-economic status and skilled in using English seem equally unimportant.

Consequently, considering the age level involved in this group of young men and controlling for socio-economic status and environment, one can relate success to education level and being settled down (married with a family). However, within that context Hispanics do worse than blacks and especially worse than whites from the same schools and neighborhoods. Compared to the broader national young male job market as studied by Kohen, the Hispanic-Puerto Rican-inner city market rewards job training and experience very little.

An in-depth look at the inner-city Puerto Rican shows him to be a relative newcomer-often coming directly from Puerto Rico- whose family moves around frequently. He comes from a very large family with limited parental educational attainment and with a father who has not done well in the job market. The family has made very limited investment in human capital. Although the young man has acquired many more years of schooling than his parents, he has invested less in his education than his white and black classmates.

The Puerto Rican job seeker has a strong work ethic and often worked while in school. He is readily prepared to take a more promising job in the area. However, his close family and cultural ties mitigate against his moving from the area to exploit a job opportunity.

Hispanic students seem to have gotten little out of school counseling and tend to do a poor job of labor career planning. In spite of some disappointment in his job market experience, the young Purto Rican is work oriented and optimistic about his future.

Part of the reflection of limited success is the young man's unemployment experience. The prevailing high unemployment rate among inner-city young men is reflected in our sample; Hispanics had the highest rate of all groups-about 33%. The present unemployed usually had extensive spells of unemployment in the previous year.

The new resident from Puerto Rico appears better motivated to work and less likely to be unemployed. In terms of motivation as well, the employed

young Puerto Rican male has invested more in himself--higher school grades, working while in school, and better English skills. He also has higher aspirations than the unemployed person, a greater respect for education, and a higher priority attached to work.

In short, unemployment seems to relate directly to the motivation to work. Most of the unemployed had worked and had voluntarily quit their jobs. This "voluntary" status of the unemployed is borne out by the absence of unemployment compensation received by any of the currently unemployed.

The problem seems to be that the jobs available to the unemployed young man are not desirable in terms of earnings or type of work.

Part of the problem in finding suitable employment among Hispanics is lack of skill in the job search process. The newcomers, those with a more unstable residential location pattern, those with poorer socio-economic backgrounds, and those with a poor grasp of English rely more on family or friends to find jobs. Many of these young men are disappointed in the results of the job hunt and consequently are more likely to change jobs and to be unemployed.

The State Employment Service tends to be used by blacks but not utilized much by Hispanics or whites. Those that use that service tend to be less successful in finding employment than those who find jobs by direct contact with employers.

Another way to improve one's employment status might be to acquire additional training after completion of school. However, in the case of the young men of our sample, job training benefits seemed limited, especially if measured in terms of earnings or job stability.

Even though a respectable percentage of young men undertook training, especially at the skilled and semi-skilled level, many dropped out or did not use it in their job subsequently. Moreover, many young men did not participate in training even though they thought it would be helpful.

Discrimination against Hispanics based on race may complicate the struggle toward job success. A high percentage of young Puerto Rican males perceive widespread job discrimination against them; they assert that such discrimination leads to lower earnings or poorer jobs rather than being denied a job. Those with less success in the job market are more likely to claim discrimination than their more successful neighbors. Although the evidence is that Hispanics have lower earnings than other groups it

is not clear that overt discrimination is involved and, if it is, how it operates.

Conclusions and Public Policy Recommendations

This study sheds some light on those factors which are associated with job market success of young male Hispanics. This research evidence suggests some possible changes in public policy if the objective of policy is to raise the level of job market performance.

These policy recommendations center around the role of the school, job training, the Employment Service, and the nature of macro-economic employment policy. The unifying theme is that most "ghetto" unemployment is voluntary--i.e., frictional, and that all policy packages should keep this fact in mind. The conclusions and related recommendations are:

1. The starting place to further the success rate is in the school. Many Hispanics are "turned off" by school, do poorly, and drop out. Career counseling seems uneven in quality; a number of young men even could not remember having a counselor. Ability to use English often was not at a level that would enhance the chances of job success.

   This poor school performance is especially discouraging for young Puerto Rican males since most consider education important and helpful in one's career. Furthermore, education holds an esteemed place in the Puerto Rican culture.

   Consequently, a careful look should be given to the Hispanic, inner-city student and what distinguishes the successful from the unsuccesful. The effects of bilingual classes should be assessed. The role and performance of the school counselor should be investigated and his ability to successfully advise Hispanics could be probed.

2. Manpower training programs do not seem to have much job market impact. We should find out why that is true. Further, investigation should be undertaken of the high training drop-out rate and why young men do not start programs when so many programs are available--especially in view of the fact that young men believe training would help them in their job careers. We should ask if the right kind of training is being provided and if graduates get good jobs.

In short, a complete examination of the Hispanic experience with job training would be extremely valuable. Our data indicate that there is a good chance that the present CETA training programs for Hispanics are ineffective and shunned by many. A substancial revamping and revision of such programs as they relate to Hispanics should be investigated.

3. Many Hispanics are not very knowledgeable or sophisticated about the job search. This fumbling may lead to a less successful pattern of job market activity than is possible.

   More importantly, the State Employment agency seems to be ignored by Hispanics. More aggresive outreach activities of this agency coupled with a more effective employer relationship in placing applicants would seem desirable. More intensive job and training counseling should be stressed for Hispanics.

4. Public employment, public works, and other "job creating" macro-economic programs appear to impact very little on "ghetto" young workers since the availability of jobs is not the basic problem. The difficulty is the availability of "good" jobs of a permanent nature and the inability of many young men to fill them. Suitable job counseling and revelant training would help. At the same time policies which would encourage the expansion of jobs at the semi-skilled and skilled levels within commuting distance would have a high payoff.

5. Unemployment compensation offers little help for young men since they typically are voluntary job leavers. To the extent that some young men are eligible the compensation plan may lead to more unemployment as the young man is not encouraged to find work quickly or to take one of a variety of marginal jobs. Reducing the duration of payments probably would reduce the duration of unemployment.

Suggested Areas for Further Research

In order to formulate the optional mix of employment policies, we need to know more about the inner-city Puerto Rican and other Hispanic workers. As indicated above, that research would involve investigation of the role of the school, CETA training programs, job search, and present macro-employment policies.

Much useful information would flow from an examination of the impact of

school on Hispanics as it relates to future job success. Questions as to why some students do poorly, why some drop-out, and why some cannot handle English satisfactorily are pertinent. The formation of a useful career planning style and attitude toward work can be examined. The impact of bilingual education on subsequent job success might be explored.

Even more importance might be attached to assessing the effectiveness of job training porgrams for Hispanics. Answers to such questions as to whether recruitment, type of training offered, and follow up job placement are effective would be helpful in structuring the best taxpayer financed job training operation.

A close look at how the various macro-economic employment policies affect inner-city Hispanics would shed work light on the value of these high cost programs. Examination of the role of job discrimination against Hispanics would help structure public policy in this area as well.

Substancial resources are being expended to aid the inner-city worker in his quest for job success. Some programs work and others do not work. Much effort has been exerted to find out what does work and why it works. In the case of the Hispanic worker, there are some gaps in our understanding and it would probably pay to find out more about this segment of our labor force and how public policy can assist most effectively.

APPENDIX

LABOR MARKET QUESTIONNAIRE

_____ID#

This interview is part of a study on the labor market experiences of young males. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and not identified with you".

FAMILY BACKGROUND:

1. How long have you lived in the Wilmington area?
   ____years.

2. How long have you lived at your present address?
   ____years.

3. In how many different homes or apartments have you lived since the 8th grade?
   _____years.

4. Have you ever lived in Puerto Rico?
   ____(Yes No___.

5. (If yes in #4), for how long altogether did you live there?
   ____years.

6. What would best describe your parent's marital status during the period of time that you were in school?

   ____Married, living together
   ____Separated
   ____Divorced
   ____one or both parents dead
   ____other

The next few questions relate to some information about your father (or, if father was dead or away during school period).

7. What is (or was) the occupation of your father?
   _____.

8. When you were growing up, was your father:

   ____Out of work much of the time.
   ____Out of work occassionally.
   ____Rarely, if ever, out of work.

9. What was the highest grade in school your father achieved?
   ____.

10. How old is your father?
    ____years.

The next few questions pertain to your mother:
(skip if mother was dead or away during school period).

11. What was the highest grade in school your mother achieved?
_____.

12. When you were growing up, did your mother ever work outside the home?
____Yes ___No.

13. (If yes to #12) What kind of work did she do:
_____Work regularly
_____work on-and-off
_____Work very little

14. (If yes to #12) What kind of work did she do:
_____.

15. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
_____.

When you were in school did your parents regularly:

16. Get any magazines?
____Yes ___No.

17. Get a newspaper?
____Yes ___No.

18. Have a library card?
____Yes ___No.

19. What was the most common language use around home when you were in school?

_____Spanish
_____English
_____Other (Specify)
_____Equal Spanish and English

II. EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

20. What is the highest grade of school you completed:
_____.

21. Why would you say you decided to end your education at that time?
_____Had to go to work
_____Couldn't afford College
_____Lack of ability
__disliked school
__went into military service
__no particular reason

22. To what high school did you go?
_____.

23. Did you complete high school?
_____Yes _____No.

24. (If yes to #23), what year did you graduate?
_____.

25. What was your overall grade average in your last year in school?
____A, ____B, ____C, ____Below C.

26. Were you active in extra curricular activities or sports?
____Yes ____No.

27. How would you rate your skill in using English to communicate when you finished school? (Read Choices)

____excellent
____good
____poor
____fair

28. What kind of program did you pursue in high school? (Read Choices
____Academic
____Commercial
____Vocational
____did not attend high school
____Other, Specify

29. Did you have a guidance counselor?
____Yes ____No.

30. (If yes #29) what occupation or career did the counselor suggest? _____.

31. What career or occupation were you planning to follow when you were still in school? _____.

32. In terms of your subsequent job experience, do you feel that your education was: (Read Choices)

_____extremely useful
_____of little use
_____somewhat useful
_____no use at all.

33. Were you absent from school a lot?
____Yes. ____No.

34. Were you late for school often?
____Yes ____No.

35. What was lacking in your school program in terms of helping you achieve success in the job market?

_____
_____
_____.

36. What aspect of school was the most helpful to you in your working career?

_____
_____
_____
_____.

37. Do you think the average teacher understands Hispanic students?
_____Yes _____No.

38. (If no to #37) what didn't the teacher understand?

_____
_____.

39. Do you feel that further education could help you in improving yourself in the job market?
_____Yes _____No.

40. (If yes to #39), what are the obstacles to getting more education?

_____Financial problems
_____Family responsibilities
_____lack of ability
_____no interest
_____Other, Specify_____.

III. JOB TRAINING EXPERIENCE

(If interviewer had no military service skip to #48.)

41. Did you serve in the armed forces on active duty?
_____Yes _____No.

42. (If yes to #41) when did you serve?

_____Month _____Month
_____Year To _____Year

43. (If yes #41) how did you enter the armed forces? (Read Choices)
_____drafted
_____enlisted
_____Other, Specify

44. (If yes #41 what was the highest rank achieved?
_____.

45. (If yes to #41) did you receive any training beyond basic training?
_____Yes _____No.

46. (If yes to #44) what was the nature of this training?
_____.

47. (If yes to #41) what was you major job or MOS?
_____.

48. Other than military training since finishing school, have you taken any training courses or educational programs of any kind, either on the job or elsewhere?
_____yes _____no If "no" skip to question #59.

49. (If yes to #48)
What kind of training or program did you take?
_____.

50. Where did you take this training course?
_____Business College or Technical Institute
_____Company training school or course
_____Correspondence course
_____Regular school
_____Other, Specify

51. To your knowledge, were any of the courses or programs sponsored by the county, city, state or federal goverments.
_____Yes _____No _____don't know

52. (If yes to #51), which courses were so sponsored?
_____
_____.

53. How long did you attend this course(s) or program (s)?
Course #1_____Months
Course #2_____Months
Course #3_____Months

54. How many hours per week did you spend on this training?
Course #1_____Months
Course #2_____Months
Course #3_____Months

55. Did you complete the course or program?
Course #1 ____Yes ___No
2 ____Yes ___No
3 ____Yes ___No

56. (If no to #55).
Why did you not complete the course or program?
____Found a job ____too difficult
____Lost interest ____Other, Specify
____Too much time

57. Why did you decide to get more training?
____To obtain work
____To get a better job
____To improve current job situation
____Other, Specify

58. Do you use any of this training on your present job?
_____Yes _____No.

IV. JOB MARKET EXPERIENCES

59. Would you give me information on all the jobs you have held since leaving school?

Job Since leaving school	Mon./yr. from	Mon..yr. to	Title	Earnings $/hr.	Average No. of hrs. worked per wk.	Months layed off (while holding job	Reason for leaving
1st							
2nd							
3rd							
4th							
5th							
6th							
7th							
8th							

60. Do you have any health problems that limit in any way the amount or kind of work you can do?
_____Yes _____No. (If no skip to #63)

61. (If yes to #60).
How long have you been limited in this way?
_____years.

62. (If yes to #60)
In what way are you limited?
_____.

63. Did you hold a job while attending school?
_____Yes _____NO. (If no, skip to #67)

64. (If yes to #63 what did you do?
_____.

65. (If yes to #63) Was it part-time during school or summer?
_____part-time _____Summer _____Both

66. (If yes to #63) For how many years did you work while in school.
_____years.

67. After leaving school, in looking for a job what was the usual method you used?
_____State employment agency
_____Checked directly with employer
_____Friends or relative
_____Private employment agency
_____Newspaper ads
_____Other, specify

68. During the past 12 months, in how many weeks did you not work at all (ie, were unemployed)?
_____weeks.

69. Have you received any unemployment compensation in the last 12 months?
_____yes _____No.

70. How do you feel about the job you have now? (Read Choices)
_____like it very much
_____like it fairly well
_____dislike it somewhat
_____dislike it very much
_____unemployed

71. What kind of work would you like to be doing when you are 35 years old?
_____.

72. Suppose someone in this area offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?
$____ per____ or____ would not take it regardless of wage.

73. What if this job were in some other part of the country? What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?

$_____ per_____
_____would not take it regardless of
_____don't know.

74. If for some reason you were permanently to lose your present job tomorrow, what would you do?

____Return to school; get training
____Take another job I know about
____Go into business
____Look for work
____Enter armed forces
____Other, Specify

75. Have you experienced any job discrimination based on race or national origin since you started to work?
_____Yes _____No.

76. (If yes to #75) Do you think that discrimination: (Read Choices)
____Kept you from getting a job
____Kept you from getting a job promotion or advancement
____Kept your wages lower than those of other workers
____Other, Specify

V. GENERAL OPINIONS

77. Do you believe that job discrimination against Hispanics is:
____ Widespread
____ occasionally practiced in some industries and occupations
____ isolated in a few companies or occupations
____ does not exist or is insignificient

Indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

78. School officials and teachers are sensitive to the problems of Hispanics students.

79. Labor unions strongly discriminate against Hispanics.

80. Government sponsored training programs are very valuable for the average young worker.

81. School counselors offer very little useful information about careers and job market choices.

82. The Wilmington Public Schools do a good job in preparing students for the world of work.

83. The Catholic parochial schools do a good job in preparing students for the world of work.

84. Very few, if any, Hispanics males of my age have had much success in getting good jobs.

AS - Agree Strongly
A - Agree
DS - Disagree Strongly
DIS - Disagree
DK - Don't Know

	AS	A	DIS	DS	DON'T KNOW
78.					
79.					
80.					
81.					
82.					
83.					
84.					

VI. PERSONAL QUESTIONS

85. In what month and year were you born?
Month_____ _____Year.

86. What is your marital status?
___Married, living together
___Married, living apart
___Separated
___Divorced
___never married
___Widowed
___Not married, but living together

87. How many children do you have?
_____.

88. (If married) does wife work outside the home?
___Yes ___No. (If no, skip to #91)

89. (If yes to #88) what is he occupation?
_____.

90. (If married) what is the highest grade in school your wife achieved?
_____.

91. Is your present living quarters?
___Owned or being purchased
___Rented
___Other, Specify.

92. What is the language most frequently used by you at home?
English___, Spanish_____ Other, Specify

93. Should wives work outside the home?
____Yes _____No. (If no, skip to #95)

94. (If yes to #93) would your answer change if there are were small children at home?
____Yes ____No.

95. If you (or have) a son, what kind of occupation or career would you hope he would follow?
_____.

96. (If wife works) how much did your wife earn last year?
$_____.

97. In what income bracket would you say you were in last year (including your wife's earnings).

___Below $5,000
___Between $5,000 and $10,00
___Between $10,00 and $15,000
___Between $15,00 and $25,000
___over $25,000

98. Would you say you are optimistic or persimistic about attaining a comfortable standard of living in the future?

____Optimistic ____Persimistic ____Don't know or can't say

99. Would you move from your present neighborhood if your income suddenly increased substantially?

____Yes ____No.

100. If by some chance, you were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think that you would work anyway?

____Yes ____NO ____undecided

OBSERVATIONS BY INTERVIEWER

Check one:

White____ Black____ Hispanic____

Command of English: (Could understand questions and give answers).

____Excellent ____Good ____Fair ____Poor

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