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Manpower programs : government's response to the occupational needs of the poor.

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MANPOWER PROGRAMS:
GOVERNMENT'S RESPONSE TO THE OCCUPATIONAL NEEDS OF THE POOR

A Thesis Presented

By

PHILIP D. LERNER

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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MANPOWER PROGRAMS:
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1970-1971
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C H A P T E R I

SOCIAL PROGRAMS IN POST-WORLD WAR II USA

This study will focus on one federally financed approach to aid the poor, and minority and disadvantaged persons - namely employment concepts embodied in the manpower programs and War on Poverty.

Additionally, this study will attempt to concentrate on Massachusetts state government bureaucracy and its mechanisms which were badly prepared to meet the challenge and the difficulties created by Manpower Employment and "War on Poverty" programs.

The final chapter discusses one politically rational planned approach to Manpower programs in which: (1) "the decision-maker considers all of the courses of action open to him, i.e. courses of action are considered which are possible within the conditions of a situation and in the light of the ends needed to be attained; (2) identification and evaluation of all the consequences which would follow from the adoption of each potential course of action... (3) the final selection of that alternative, the probable consequences of which would be preferable in terms of most valued ends."¹

This rational political approach would employ many of the existing federal, state and local bureaucratic structures. Such a proposal will demonstrate that well-conceived programs with appropriate planning could have been effective in fulfilling the hope and spirit of MDTA in the

¹Edward Banfield and Martin Myerson, Politics, Planning and the Public Interest (New York: The Free Press, 1966), p. 314.

manpower process if the decision-makers and bureaucrats had the will to do so.

Excessive preoccupation with the internal machinations of the Manpower-Job Placement programs (i.e., who got the money, the staffing patterns), and faulty program design and absurd restrictive guidelines have consistently disappointed and discouraged would-be clients from participating in Manpower programs. Manpower has impressed potential program participants with its consistently "undistinguished" record. The following will be an examination of this record.

A. Civil Rights Movement

It has been said that political pluralism, many different groups representing a diversity of interests, is a source of this country's strength and greatness.² Groups, representing specific vested interests, are said to be catalysts in social, economic, cultural and technological progress. This pluralist society, the argument continues, makes possible the transmitting of collective desires into appropriate governmental action, the logical presentation of needs and specialized information to policy makers, and the maintaining of scrutiny over policy makers to insure the protection of the interests of the various pressure groups.³ Additionally, interest group theory suggests that groups, lobbyists and other united parties can be active and successful before the Federal,

²H. R. Mahood, Pressure Groups in American Politics (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967), p. 27.

³Ibid.

state and local governments to shape them into responsible and responsive activity.⁴

Yet the traumas experienced in the 1960s, outlined, in part, by Jerry Avorn in Up Against the Wall, make this theory seem hollow indeed. Prestigious Columbia University bordered New York's largest black ghetto and Columbia would not or could not hear the cries for help from the ocean of poverty that surrounded it. Middle class suburban philosophy differs sharply from ghetto-minded inner city life styles. Sadly, the root of this dichotomy defines itself today more clearly than ever between Black and White. Desegregation, once the moral catchword of the affluent majority, is today a dirty word among rich and poor alike. Violence in the streets and invasion of one's home have become an all too common way of life in America. However, today's tension springs from roots established a quarter of a century ago.

After World War I, the United States retained a political posture of neo-isolationism - a policy of non-interference and non-participation in the affairs of states in the world community. Until 1941, the country publicly adopted a policy of neutrality with respect to the belligerents in World War II. However, in 1941 President Franklin D. Roosevelt, in a message to Congress, outlined this nation's position on the growing war - his reasons for potentially having the United States become embroiled in the conflict. "We look forward to a world founded on four essential freedoms," said the President. And these freedoms as outlined by President

⁴Ibid., p. 301.

Roosevelt were a) freedom of speech; b) freedom of worship; c) freedom from fear; and d) freedom from want.⁵ With this statement, Roosevelt shattered the United States illusion of neutrality and isolationism with respect to the World Community. This statement of the "Four Freedoms" was the first step in preparing the nation for war. It was also the first step in preparing the nation for the moral grounds upon which the conflict would be fought. The War, as stated by the President, would be fought by the U.S. on moral-ethical grounds. But, at the same time, this nation also served notice that it would, for the first time, have something to say about the Post-War World.⁶

The U.S. emerged from the moral war, World War II, not only the pre-eminent military force in the world, but also conceiving itself to be the gatekeeper of the globe's morality (through the Marshall Plan, the Atlantic Charter, N.A.T.O. and the creation of the United Nations) as well. Radio and television tied the nation as never before to news events around the world. Korea and the Cold War Communist threat fanned the continuing moral fervor concerning world and domestic politics in this country.⁷ The United States rebuilt Europe, it restored Japan, and created West Germany out of the rubble of defeat.⁸ This exercise of American world power settled in like a soothing salve on the American conscience. If we could create the

⁵Milton J. Belasco, Basic World History (New York: Cambridge Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 412.

⁶Ibid., p. 420.

⁷Ibid., p. 450.

⁸Ibid., p. 442.

world in our own image, what could prevent the United States from creating a better life for its impoverished and illiterate citizens at home? Out of the Post-World War II media explosion and general national self-righteousness there developed an atmosphere conducive to the existence of Southern Civil Rights marches and sit-ins of the late 1950s. To many in the North, during this era, civil disobedience became synonymous with courage of conviction. The Northern-Eastern Establishment looked with shock and righteous indignation at the attempts of the Southern Establishment to forcibly block a small coalition of clergymen, blacks and liberals from trying to win true equality - "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" - for the Negro, so long held in inferior status by, what was thought to be exclusively, the Southern society.

As outlined in the Kerner Commission report, action-oriented media, like television, coupled with a kind of "holy war" morality, gave disproportionate coverage and exposure to the first small efforts of the Civil Rights movement which began in 1949. In 1949, Arnold Aronson, Civil Rights pioneer and activist in the Anti-Defamation League, along with Roy Wilkins, national black spokesman for the NAACP, and others organized a coalition designed to move Congress to introduce and pass national Civil Rights legislation. This coalition became known as the Civil Rights Leadership Conference. The goal of the fledgling political movement was, through the political process, to focus the nation's attention on gaining increased minority access to equal educational opportunities, training, access to jobs and promotion once a job is secure. This nationwide political interest in the moral issue of "equality" manifested itself in the landmark Supreme

Court decision on integration in the famous Brown vs. the Topeka Board of Education case in 1954 - a decision which was, according to Aronson, geared toward the South, where segregation was legislatively mandated.⁹

Civil Rights and the Brown Decision. The Brown vs. Topeka Board of Education Supreme Court decision, decided May 17, 1954, declared that the doctrine of "separate but equal" established in Plessy vs. Ferguson has no place in the field of public education, since separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.¹⁰

The Supreme Court reflected Northern sentiment when it stated, "Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of Race, even though the physical facilities and other 'tangible' factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal educational opportunities? We believe that it does."¹¹

Newspaper accounts hailed the Brown decision. In January, 1955, Thurgood Marshall, then Director and Counsel of the Legal Defense and Educational Fund Inc. of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, called the Supreme Court decision "significant progress". "It will be recognized as one of the greatest steps toward the eradication of race and caste from American life."¹² The New York Times reported that

⁹Arnold Aronson, Roy Wilkins, The Today Show (New York: NBC-TV), 30 Jan. 1974.

¹⁰"Brown et al. V. Board of Education of Topeka," Supreme Court Reporter 74 (17 May 1954), p. 686.

¹¹Ibid., p. 691.

¹²"Anti-bias Record During '54 Hailed," New York Times (New York: 3 Jan. 1955), p. 17.

the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) believed that Civil Rights made "great gains" in 1954.¹³

Yet the attack on the South as the major abuser of civil rights to minorities became quite pointed. Roy Wilkins, the Executive Secretary of the NAACP, charged that in Mississippi "the guarantees of the Constitution mean what the local sheriff or newspaper, or leading town businessman or plantation owner wants them to mean. Their interpretations of the Bill of Rights are enforced with the pistol, the shotgun, the blackjack and, lately, through statewide citizens councils, with economic sanctions that deprive citizens of employment, credit and homes."¹⁴

January, 1956 records "anarchy" in the South. Clarence Mitchell of the Washington Bureau of NAACP declared that if the President and Congress took appropriate action "most of the present anarchy in the South will be halted." He warned that failure to act on pending Civil Rights legislation "will give the green light to trigger-happy hoodlums who are determined to stamp out all recent progress, especially in the field of voting for public officials." Mitchell further claimed that Mississippi elections were characteristically fraught with "fraud, violence, and intimidation."¹⁵

Southerners spoke of the return of the Carpetbagger to the South. Roy V. Harris, then a member of the Georgia State Board of Regents, said, "The

¹³"Civil Rights Gains in Year Extolled," New York Times (New York: 3 Jan. 1955), p. 17.

¹⁴"Abuses of Rights Told to Senators," New York Times (New York: 18 Sept. 1955), p. 29.

¹⁵"Speed Held Vital on Rights Bills," New York Times (New York: 4 Jan. 1956), p. 14.

Yankees freed the slaves, but they didn't feed them. They left them to go hungry along with the white people of the South.... Now...modern-day carpetbaggers are back 'with the same old promises'."¹⁶

A U.S. black singer was quoted in the Soviet Union, in 1957, as saying that "forces of Evil" were compelling Negroes to flee from the South.¹⁷

Via these and other accounts of violence, the Northern Establishment became morally outraged by the "prejudice, injustice, and inequality" in the South.¹⁸ The Northern rhetoric of "Equality" was the spark which flamed the moral issue and was the convenient device used to hide those Northern self-righteous zealots from identifying the same "moral" outrage in their own states, in their own communities. In February, 1958, a New York Times story recounted that Northern newspapers, magazines and the major TV and radio networks had biased the reporting of racial conflicts. It was stated that incidents in the South were exaggerated while "racial aspects of violence in Brooklyn and elsewhere in the North were deliberately concealed.... Interracial crimes appear to be the order of the day in strifetorn Brooklyn, but the great Northern press and other media of public communication have meticulously sought to hide the fact from the public."¹⁹

¹⁶"Carpetbaggers Are Back in South, Integration Foe Warns Negroes," New York Times (New York: 19 Feb. 1956), p. 50.

¹⁷"Robeson Greeted Soviet," New York Times (New York: 2 Jan. 1957), p. 6.

¹⁸"Hoffman is Cited for Brotherhood," New York Times (New York: 17 Feb. 1957), p. 61.

¹⁹"Cites Bias Censorship," New York Times (New York: 20 Feb. 1958), p. 27.

Northern anti-desegregation emotions were kept well hidden from public media scrutiny. Northern moral outrage through the media allowed the phrases "Integration" and "Equal Opportunity" to become acceptable to the American public at large (without giving the people a sense of what the impact of the decision might actually be on their own lives) in the years following the 1954 decision. At that time there existed a traditional tendency to look upon the Negro as a "helpless child".²⁰ The "protestant Ethic" would allow whites to stoop to help a child (the Negro) in need and the Supreme Court decision became the vehicle for the "morally upright" to give the Negro this helping hand. The Brown decision (following strong lobbying efforts by the American Jewish Congress and the NAACP) became a source of the theory that, in a politically pluralist state, majorities will "draw back in the face of the determined resistance of minorities"²¹ and that the minority, per capita, "has more power than members of the majority with respect to that particular issue."²² Ironically, the source of this theory is the articulate spokesman for states' rights and the preservation of slavery, John C. Calhoun. Calhoun believed that suffrage is not sufficient to guarantee liberty. With suffrage alone, reasoned Calhoun, misgovernment, tyranny, and oppression will continue to the same degree as without it. What was needed by each state in its righteous and legitimate fight against the Union was the weapon of "nullification, check,

²⁰ Abel Plenn, "Report on Montgomery A Year After," New York Times Magazine (New York: 29 Dec. 1957), p. 36.

²¹ Mahood, p. 11.

²² Ibid., p. 11.

veto, interposition." Nullification must somehow be placed in the hands of minorities or constituent interests.²³

Yet, as in the case of Calhoun's argument, the determined minority in a pluralist society can succeed only if there is acquiescence from the established "majority". Post-World War II morality plus a general "noblesse oblige" from the Northern media, as previously described in the Times article by former Mississippi Representative John Bell Williams,²⁴ built the equality of races issue into a widely shared opinion of general interest among the majority of the U.S. population from the mid-fifties through the mid-sixties. As then New York Governor Harriman had described in 1958, five years had passed and the United States moral leadership and the moral commitment to equality appeared to be only superficial. The pluralist can argue that the 1954 Supreme Court decision was minority inspired, perhaps, but powerful economic interests without doubt supported it. When pushed to actually implement the Court's decision, the power elite balked.

The world was focusing its attention on the new predominant power in the world, the United States. The racial equality issue, the moral issue, gave the U.S. a chance to demonstrate to the rest of the world that the world's biggest free power could be its moral leader as well. But New York's Governor Harriman told the Jewish Labor Committee in 1958 that America's "prestige in the world has had a precipitous decline during the past five

²³Gustavus M. Pinckney, Life of John C. Calhoun (Walker, Evans, and Cogswell Co., 1903), p. 234.

²⁴"Cites Bias Censorship," New York Times (20 Feb. 1958), p. 27.

years...the failure to carry out the historic Supreme Court decision on desegregation has had a profound influence in many countries. We cannot afford to temporize any longer. The peoples of Asia, Africa, and elsewhere won't wait for us. We cannot afford another Little Rock."²⁵ The Supreme Court decision itself was viewed to be in the Public Interest, but, apparently, general implementation was not.

Public Interest.

The...type of interest discriminated against in a system of many small constituencies is that for which support must inevitably be diffuse and which is not central or preoccupying for any groups - the kind of interest most commonly called 'The Public Interest'. Active support for such interest must come from relatively small numbers of people with some sense of cause and dedication. These numbers, like those of the minority interests, may have no effect in small constituencies and, if they are to succeed, must have the larger numbers of a big constituency from which to draw enough people with the time, money, and drive for a cause the benefits of which will be shared by all.²⁶

In other words, "those public interests which are established as public interests...become politically viable public interests only when there is considerable support for, or at least great acquiescence (among the general population) in their realization."²⁷

Today, as in 1954, "power in the United States...is dominated by a small class...and within this class, a very small elite controls...the major sector of our economy...and decisions that directly affect the entire

²⁵"Harriman Charges Failure to Support High Court on School Integration," New York Times (New York: 31 May 1958), p. 21.

²⁶Grant McConnell, Private Power and American Democracy (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1967), p. 109.

²⁷Mahood, p. 10.

nation. Inequality of income has not lessened...despite a generation of encroachments by laws around crises at home...."²⁸ Therefore, equality, the issue of the 1950s, as a theory, became acceptable rhetoric (not acceptable practice) because the majority of those in power accepted it, not because the minority intensively pursued their goal.

During the years from 1954 to 1964, intellectual morality and rhetoric seemed wholly more palatable to the American public and those who shape public opinion than the practical application of the "equality ethic" in the daily lives of each community. The courts were "lily white" in word, and the communities remained lily white in deed (i.e., court tests of the Supreme Court decision on Brown vs. Topeka Board of Education).

The Kerner Commission concluded that governmental or judicial bureaucracy did not move with dispatch in enforcing the Supreme Court decision. Neither did government move with alacrity to provide programs and opportunities to aid in the implementation of the "equality under the law" provision. However, once the ethic had become established, there were men of courage who would test the Constitution, and others in the media, in Congress and in the Executive branch who would keep the issue of "equality of opportunity under the law" alive. And, as each year went by, more and more minority "pressure" group members began to believe the message themselves. They became visible and cohesive enough, long enough to move the course of politics.²⁹

²⁸Gabriel Kolko, Wealth and Power in America (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1967), p. 127.

²⁹Mahood, p. 229.

The Public Interest vs. Public Mood. In the early 1960s, national morality and rising minority expectations came together in a common interest at a particular moment in time. Actions began to move from rhetoric on the "equality" issue into the decision-making apparatus of Congress and the Presidency. For the first time thoughts of real programs for the poor, black, and disadvantaged began to be tossed about (with the promise of substantial funding).

In all these events, there was the omnipresence of television - which supplied audiences with a continuous flow of relevant political information. And television, "through its presentation of events, shaped public images."³⁰

After a generation of anonymity, Appalachian poverty became appallingly visible again only this time the nation had to swallow it with their evening meal over the six o'clock news. Animal-like living conditions in Mississippi and the emergence of the Black Ghetto and national black spokesmen also were making the news.

Yet, as Leon Depres, gadfly Chicago alderman, has stated, (the system) "does the least that it can to appear to produce the most impact." Pictures of families in poverty on T.V. became unreal to viewers. People turned impassive over poverty and cries for change were tempered with the larger sound of silence and growing apathy in that area. The Vietnam War competed successfully for a place on the evening news. And the War became another different, easier moral cause for people to turn to - it was much more palatable because it was "far away from home." For students, the Vietnam

³⁰Kurt Lang and Gladys Lang, Politics and Television (Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1970), p. 298.

War became easy and convenient opposition. When "The War" became a priority, "it killed the priority of conscience."³¹

B. Anti-Poverty Programs

Whether one is discussing public housing, transportation, or programs of employment (Manpower programs) designed for the poor, the public relations and advertising techniques associated with the selling of these programs in the media during the 1960s were wholly more tangible and often more impressive than the actual programs themselves. While there had been built a mandate for the concept of "Equality under the Law" through court decisions, every anti-poverty employment program that the Federal government funded, in an effort to aid low income groups in achieving a more decent quality of life, was, from the outset, plagued by problems: (1) in the political arena, even a vocal minority carries less weight than the huge monied interests;³² (2) there was really only a superficial commitment, both verbally and financially, to the problems facing the elderly, poor, handicapped, and those without proper housing, schooling, jobs and the like; (3) there was insufficient, nearly non-existent, planning by governmental bodies for implementation of those programs initiated in conjunction with the poor.³³ A lack of appropriate, reasoned, well-financed planning to insure the efficient management and maximum positive results for programming

³¹Michael Harrington, The Today Show (New York: NBC-TV), 29 Jan. 1974.

³²Kolko, p. 6.

³³Banfield and Myerson, p. 315.

associated with the poor made the manpower-poverty approaches destined to fail even before they were statutorily enacted. (See Appendix I for identification of Manpower Programs.)

Poverty before the war stemmed primarily from the country's rural areas, particularly in the South, where it historically has been widespread and chronic. In the great migrations from rural to urban areas during the war and post-war periods, poverty migrated along with its people. Recognition grew that a subculture of poverty existed in urban areas. It was characterized by alienation from certain of the values and living patterns of middle-class America, difficulty in meeting middle-class educational standards, and failure to link advancement with personal effort and education. For blacks, Spanish-speaking Americans and other disadvantaged minorities, these cultural disabilities have been reinforced by widespread white prejudice and discrimination, which has helped keep disadvantaged groups in the inferior jobs, inferior housing and inferior schools.

In the early 1960s there were still 25.4 million persons in poverty, of whom about half lived in metropolitan areas.³⁴ Of the total, approximately two-thirds were whites and one-third non-whites, but the percentage of blacks in poverty...about 32 percent...was over three times that of whites, and the percentage for Spanish-Americans, who are mainly counted as whites, was even higher than for blacks. Out of the total number of poor, about 10.7 million were children under 18.³⁵ The Bureau of Census

³⁴Reference to the Social Security Administration's definition of poverty; the poverty threshold for an urban family of four in 1969 was an income of less than \$3,700.

³⁵U.S. Bureau of Census, Current Population Reports, Consumer Income Series, p. 60, No. 68, Dec. 31, 1969.

reports that in 1960, in the central cities of metropolitan areas, the number of poor whites (4.7 million) exceeded the number of poor blacks (3.5 million) by about 35 percent.

About 30 percent of poor white families, but only 11 percent of poor black families, were headed by persons over 64 years old. In the under 65 group, 60 percent of poor white families were headed by males and 40 percent by females; with black families the proportions were reversed -- 62 percent were headed by females and 38 percent by males. These figures suggest that a relatively high proportion of white poverty is associated with age, and a relatively high proportion of black poverty is associated with fatherless families.

The economic development patterns of the cities to which the poverty-prone came in the great post-war migrations compounded the difficulties of the migrants. As they were moving into the central cities (while middle-class whites moved to the suburbs), many of the jobs former in-migrants had filled were being moved to the suburbs or being eliminated by automation. The employment which is now expanding in central cities is in office jobs encompassing a wide variety of clerical occupations and of professional and managerial jobs, many of which require skills of a high order. From a large proportion of these jobs the in-migrant to the cities and his descendants are excluded for want of education and skills, by widespread though illegal discrimination, or by manifestations of prejudice, such as hostility of supervisors and fellow workers, with which no law can cope. A black janitor in Montgomery, Alabama said, "Negroes here are employed in mostly domestic or other service jobs."³⁶

³⁶Abel Plenn, "Report on Montgomery A Year After," New York Times Magazine (New York: 29 Dec. 1957), p. 36.

Manpower Legislation - History. With these facts creating an ever intensifying atmosphere in the country, manpower programs were given birth with the passage by Congress of the Area Redevelopment Act in 1961, the Trade Expansion Act in 1962, and, most important, the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) in the same year. The anti-poverty programs came into being after the passage of the Equal Opportunity Act (EOA) in 1964. "Apprehension 'over creeping inflation' in the early and middle 1950's had to make room for apprehension over the trend of 'creeping unemployment' in the late 1950's and the early 1960's."³⁷

"Concern over creeping unemployment was shared by a wide assortment of political interest groups. At one end of the spectrum were the economic conservatives, including those in the Federal Reserve Board and the Treasury, who opposed deficit spending and tax cut measures advocated by the 'new economists' in the Council of Economic Advisors and the academic community. The former argued that the unemployment was structural in nature and coexisted with job vacancies elsewhere in the economy; hence, expansion of aggregate demand would simply generate more inflation than employment."

At the other end of the spectrum were various groups including the Ad Hoc Committee on the Triple Revolution, that were extremely impressed by automation. They regarded automation as a "radical departure" from conventional technology which would cause an enormous jump in the rate of increase of goods produced in the economy. According to the Ad Hoc Committee, unemployment resulted from two properties of this phenomenon: "(a) (wide-spread technological displacement of labor); (b) (a growing satiety of

³⁷ Lloyd Ulman, "The U.S. Responses to 'Creeping Unemployment,'" The Public Interest, No. 34 (New York: National Affairs, Inc., Winter 1974), p. 87.

demand, caused by the economy's capacity to satisfy existing private consumer wants more rapidly than (employed) people were able to develop new wants."³⁸

Between these extremes, the more moderate approach in diagnosing the economy was outlined by labor market economists in the Department of Labor, the academic community, and the trade union movement. These moderates did believe in the efficacy of job creation in the public sector "but they did not particularly subscribe to the glut hypothesis, and they did believe in the unemployment-reducing potential of retraining programs. They were the champions of the Manpower Development and Training Act."³⁹

In 1963 resources were switched from unemployed family heads with work experience to programs designed to reduce unemployment among young people. As manpower policy became more focused on the poor, a torrent of administrative initiatives followed this redirection of resources. The war on poverty sponsored by the Johnson Administration became a legislative reality with the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act in 1964, the passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1964, and the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965.

Manpower programs were regarded by the "anti-poverty warriors" as part and parcel of a wider complex of approaches and activities directed to such areas as education (including pre-school and remedial education), legal aid, social services, anti-discrimination and affirmative action, welfare reform and income maintenance, and community action.

The inclusion of manpower programs in the general anti-poverty approaches tied manpower to the war on poverty and resulted in broadening and redirection

³⁸Ibid., p. 88.

³⁹Ibid., p. 88.

of manpower policy itself. The clientele of manpower training was broadened to include not only the young, but individuals from the most disadvantaged groups within a community, including the handicapped and those on welfare. The Federal Employment Service was instructed to redirect its efforts to service disadvantaged groups. "It was supposed to change over 'screen in', since two thirds of the training slots were reserved for the disadvantaged."

Because of this concentration on the disadvantaged, more resources had to be directed to subsistence allowances and to other subsidies to the trainees as well as to the private employers (as in the on-the-job program under MDTA and in Job Opportunities in the Business Sector). It became difficult to ascertain whether the main focus of manpower training was actually training for jobs or simply subsidy.

Additionally, the establishment of community action agencies was supposed to result through the war on poverty in the sharing of authority to design and administer programs with the manpower trainees or clients who participated in the community-based programs. "The multiplicity of legislative and administrative authorities, coupled with the absence of a clear notion of what everybody was supposed to be doing helped to produce a bewildering variety of programs. Many of these trod on one another's jurisdictional toes. Many die young only to be reincarnated in some different form. Some of the administrative disputes involved differing objectives and concepts as evidenced by bruising triangular struggle between the state based Employment Services, old-line bureaucracy with an undistinguished reputation for effectiveness, the Manpower Administration in the Department of Labor, which sought to divert funds to training the newer client groups

and the Office of Economic Opportunity, which represented the local community Action Agencies." Disputes involving federal agencies, state governors, and mayors and neighborhood organizations led to the establishment of still greater administrative and bureaucratic structures designed to coordinate the activities fragmented under each segment's jurisdiction. These administrative attempts were generally unsuccessful. "As a result, few programs were able to operate as efficiently as one might otherwise have expected; this was especially true where there were competing programs in the same locality with each being run on a small and inefficient scale."⁴⁰

Both the manpower and anti-poverty legislation were ill-conceived and hastily developed without appropriate planning or sufficient data to anticipate the potential political and social ramifications on the lives of the individuals to be served. MDTA and FOA demonstrate the systemic and bureaucratic failures built into the government that created them - whether consciously or unconsciously. In this instance, national morality, like beauty, was only skin deep.

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 93-95.

C H A P T E R II
FEDERAL INITIATIVES ON MANPOWER

A. Manpower Policy

Following the severe urban and racial disorders of the summer of '67, President Johnson, in his charge to the newly formed National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, stated:

"The only genuine, long-range solution for what has happened lies in an attack mounted at every level - upon the conditions that breed despair and violence. All of us know what these conditions are: ignorance, discrimination, slums, poverty, disease, not enough jobs. We should attack these conditions - not because we are frightened by conflict, but because we are fired by conscience. We should attack them because there is simply no other way to achieve a decent and orderly society in America."⁴¹

This statement was made three years after the birth of the War on Poverty and six years after the enactment of the document that heralded in the "Era of Manpower," the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962. Fully five years after the era of the MDTA was introduced, Governor Volpe of Massachusetts finally announced that it was time to "evaluate the extent to which blacks and other minority group members are being afforded opportunities for employment and promotion..."⁴²

Now, more than a decade after the development of MDTA (generally referred to as the "foundation of Federal manpower policy"),⁴³ and over

⁴¹Report of the Council on Public Employment of the Disadvantaged, Nancy B. Beecher, Chairman (Boston: Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1971), p. 1.

⁴²Ibid.

⁴³Office of Evaluation, Manpower Administration, United States Department of Labor, "The Total Impact of Manpower Programs: A Four-City Case Study" (Government Printing Office, 1971).

\$6 billion later, the same nagging questions remain: What is Manpower? Have the programs introduced under the authority of the Manpower Development and Training Act, and the Equal Opportunity Act of 1964 (both concerned with the employment, earning, and upward mobility of the poor, disadvantaged and minority groups) had any lasting positive impact on the lives and the families of those who have enrolled in Manpower programs? Is Massachusetts society better off with the investment? This chapter attempts to provide information directed toward answering the questions posed above.

For the purposes of this analysis, it will be helpful to establish some working definitions.

- A. Disadvantaged - "A disadvantaged person is one who is unemployed or does not have suitable employment," and whose earnings are "below the poverty line as designated by Federal standards. This by no means limits the use of the term 'disadvantaged' to minority persons. However, the percentage of minority persons technically under this definition is far greater than the percentage of whites. Thirty percent of black families in the United States earn under \$3,000 a year, while only 12 percent of white families fit this category. In 1970, the unemployment rate for blacks was 8.2 percent.... The white (unemployment) rate...still hovers at about one-half that of blacks."⁴⁴ Although two out of every three poor people in this country are white, the term "disadvantaged" has evolved to focus on the plight of the minority poor, though not exclusively on them.
- B. The term "minority" refers not "simply to blacks, but to all persons of race other than caucasians."⁴⁵ In Massachusetts, this includes most dramatically, the Spanish-speaking population (over 30,000 in Boston alone).
- C. Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) - An area is federally designated an SMSA if it is a city of 50,000 or

⁴⁴Report of the Council on Public Employment..., p. 6.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 7.

more in population or is a city within a county that when totaled together, exceeds a population of 50,000.⁴⁶ Between 1950 and 1960 35 percent of the total metropolitan growth resulted from net migration and 65 percent, from natural increase. By 1965, it is estimated by the U.S. Bureau of the Census that "65 percent of the population... resided in 222 SMSAs."⁴⁷

- D. A poor person - Adam Yarmolinsky defines a poor person as "one who is prevented from using his or her energies to make the kind of contributions to society for which society is willing to offer a decent reward."⁴⁸ A poor person with little education and no training who frequently has no job and no qualifications and seemingly cannot be motivated is often referred to as a person who is hard-core unemployed.
- E. "Manpower Policy" - In Massachusetts, manpower policy encompasses those activities of state government that directly affect the operation of the labor market. Of particular interest in forming state manpower policy are the state employment service, manpower training programs, equal employment opportunity projects, and licensing and entry restrictions.
- F. Underemployed person - A person is underemployed if he is employed in a secondary or entry level position, working for a salary in the vicinity of minimum wage and living from hand to mouth right at or just above the poverty level. A person is underemployed when there is little or no hope for advancement through training or promotion from the position he presently holds.
- G. Full Employment - When taking into account characteristic labor fluctuations such as death, retirement, population shifts, and new skilled or unskilled workers in the labor market, a society can be said to be in full employment when its unemployment rate reaches a stable 2-3.5 percent.
- H. Primary Job - A job for which training and experience will eventually lead to advancement through a pre-determined set of options is a primary job.
- I. Secondary Job - A secondary job is one in which there is no pre-determined career ladder and for which additional experience will not result in advancement.

⁴⁶Daniel P. Moynihan, ed., Toward a National Urban Policy (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1970), p. 31.

⁴⁷Ibid.

⁴⁸Samuel N. Beer and Richard E. Barringer, eds., The State and the Poor (Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, Inc., 1970), p. 27.

Additionally, "Manpower policy" is frequently used to define all "activities that affect the willingness or ability of individuals to obtain a living through gainful employment."⁴⁹

The above definition of Manpower policy, however, is used to introduce the whole area of Manpower. Concepts such as manpower planning and mobility, as well as manpower policy are included under the general heading of Manpower and begin to complicate any simple explanation of Manpower. During the years since MDTA first became a reality, the term Manpower has come to take on a variety of both subjective and emotional as well as objective and professional interpretations. From those who are responsible for the funding, to those responsible for the implementation, to those involved in receiving the "benefits" of manpower programs, the meaning of Manpower has become hard to define precisely. The initiation of the "War on Poverty" is, in no small part, responsible for the current confusion in the Manpower field today. First it is necessary to discuss the professional rationale and objectives of Manpower.

In theory, Manpower applies to the process of the preparation and employment of human resources for productive purposes. Manpower planning aims to "enlarge job opportunities and improve training and employment decisions, through the power of informed personal choice and calculated adjustment to rapidly changing demand."⁵⁰ Emerging emphases in manpower programs are uniting the man, his job, promotability, and supervisory

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 53.

⁵⁰Richard A. Lester, Manpower Planning in a Free Society (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1966), p. 5.

training and development.⁵¹ Effectively implemented, manpower planning can enlarge job satisfaction, raise the "quality and utilization of labor resources, reduce the cost of job searching and industry staffing."⁵²

Professor Solomon Barkin believes that manpower seeks to extend security and protection for workers. This protection would limit the "risks of life and economic adversity, providing opportunities for more extended education, and offer services for improving the health and housing of the population, thus advancing the productive competence and quality of the work force and facilitating its adaptability to changing induced shifts in the economy, and enlarging the citizen's satisfaction with life."⁵³ Ideally, Manpower does not seek to restrict individual choice, but rather enlarge it in an effort to enhance flexibility and upward mobility or the movement between occupations, industries, areas, firms, and "jobs within a firm through transfer and promotion."⁵⁴ By operating in such a manner, the market will begin effectively to anticipate occupational shifts and arrange "early corrective measures to avoid serious manpower imbalances."⁵⁵ As a

⁵¹Allen R. Janger and Ruth G. Shaeffer, Managing Programs to Employ the Disadvantaged (National Industrial Conference Board, Studies in Personnel Policy O. 219, n.d.), p. 25.

⁵²Lester, p. 5.

⁵³Solomon Barkin, K. Lewin, B. Rehnberg, and E. van Beusehom, Manpower and Social Affairs Committee Examination of Norway: Report by the Examiners (Paris, 1 October 1970), p. 4.

⁵⁴Lester, p. 135.

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 5.

result of successful manpower planning necessary adjustments begin to adapt labor resources to changing occupational requirements within SMSA's.⁵⁶ The hope of Manpower has always been that, armed with the best obtainable information about future needs for trained manpower, individuals, firms and government can make intelligent plans with respect to their training, and work career needs.⁵⁷

B. The MDTA of 1962

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 set out to accomplish the goals of manpower planning. The manpower policy adopted was an attempt to move "secondary workers into primary jobs." The goals of MDTA were the same as those programs established under the Equal Opportunity Act of 1964.

1. "Each student must have a wide range of choice of life career.
2. Each student must have skills necessary to being a citizen in a complicated democratic society.
3. Each student must be helped to personal and social growth."⁵⁸

A diverse selection of associated "supportive services" began to be developed with the training provided by MDTA. Health care, day care, transportation, testing, counseling, job referral and placement, follow up, out-reach evaluation, basic education, support stipends, on-the-job training,

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 135.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 5.

⁵⁸Frank Reissman and Hermine I. Popper, Up From Poverty (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 110.

and many other supportive services were employed to make an "enrollee" job ready. The early programs under MDTA, which provided institutional training for skilled and semi-skilled jobs, were handled through the State Employment Security Office. MDTA programs "broadened the range of the E. S. operation from an agency concerned exclusively with placements of the poor to one providing training for workers as well."⁵⁹ The programs consisted largely of training, counseling, and job development, and some of the ancillary supportive services.

A masterpiece of understatement was written by Richard Lester when he stated, "some training under MDTA has been too narrowly conceived."⁶⁰ Although the target population was the underemployed and hard-core unemployed, only twenty-five percent of the trainees had "less than a high school education and 20 percent had some college experience."⁶¹ Yet this was merely an indication of deeper, more serious problems.⁶² (See Appendix I.)

MDTA trainees in 1963 and 1964 had been selected by methods that resulted in over 50 percent of the trainees being high school graduates - the target population was not being reached. The selection process tended to "cream off" the more educated among the poor. "It is simply a recognition of a fact of life that the programs have had the resources to enroll only a fraction of those eligible and an infinitesimal proportion of the

⁵⁹Beer and Barringer, p. 73.

⁶⁰Lester, p. 159.

⁶¹Reissman, p. 6.

⁶²Ulman, pp. 93-95.

labor market participants."⁶³ Typist, secretary, auto mechanic, and body repairman are high on the list of occupations selected for MDTA training - the top 2⁴ also includes subassembler, farmer, general farmhand, janitor, and "those occupations which seem technologically vulnerable or subject to sharp decline, or are dead-end types of employment."⁶⁴

To meet the MDTA requirement of a "reasonable expectation of employment," MDTA administrators chose to train people for jobs where openings occur because of high turnover. In fact, most MDTA skill centers limit themselves to about seven occupations, only one or two of which have an expanding demand.⁶⁵

The list of training opportunities, due in part to a one year limit on training allowances, restricts placements to the subprofessional and community service categories, such as those in the scientific, engineering or health fields. There are no MDTA training occupations listed in areas where there are strong labor unions. There is currently little desire among union memberships to increase their members to include the disadvantaged because such increases would provide competition to the other union member jobs. Such areas include building construction and printing or craft occupations like painter, cement mason and electrician.⁶⁶ These occupations have been included as possible training programs under MDTA, but they are not presently offered by MDTA because there is such a slim hope of job placement over union objections.⁶⁷

⁶³Office of Evaluation, Manpower Administration, p. 72.

⁶⁴Lester, p. 160.

⁶⁵Office of Evaluation, Manpower Administration, p. 78.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 61.

⁶⁷Lester, p. 160.

The assessment of MDTA manpower programs has been that they are, for the most part, unsuccessful. "A great deal of their energy is expended in facilitating the movement of the poor within the secondary labor market. Most of the jobs are the kind participants can and were getting on their own.... Riots in the black ghetto have...been important both as a generalized spur to the civic conscience of the business community and as a threat to the property of individual employers. The jobs opened by these pressures would probably go to some other 'disadvantaged worker'...and if manpower training programs were eliminated tomorrow, the poor would suffer no great loss."⁶⁸

C. EOA of 1964 and the War on Poverty

In an effort to convince the nation's poor of the Federal Government's sincerity in its stated goal of eradicating poverty, a bold new public relations campaign was begun in 1963-1964 culminating in the passage of the Equal Opportunity Act of 1964. With one sweep of the pen, President Johnson ushered in the "War on Poverty". No longer simple training programs, Manpower training to many of the decision-makers and those who were to "benefit" from the decision, became synonymous with the fight to eradicate poverty in America. The War on Poverty, conceived by President Kennedy and implemented by President Johnson, had "opportunity" as the key goal of the program. Originally the War on Poverty was called the Human Resources Development Act of 1964. Later, former Deputy Undersecretary of Agriculture, James L. Sundquist, officially termed the measure the Equal Opportunity Act. He declared, "It

⁶⁸Beer and Barringer, p. 64.

is, therefore, the policy of the United States to eliminate the paradox of poverty in the midst of plenty in this Nation by opening to everyone the opportunity for education and training, the opportunity to work, and the opportunity to live in decency and dignity."⁶⁹ The purpose of the "poverty bill" would be to conduct an all out, continuous, sustained War on

Poverty with a strategy which:

- A. "Strikes at the main front of poverty - the perpetuation and transmission of poverty, ignorance, disease, squalor and hopelessness, from one generation to another...
- B. Uses weapons directly aimed at improving human motivation and performance: education, vocational and work training, health services, job opportunities, a decent home in a health productive environment, and harmonious and stable family and community life.
- C. Attacks poverty through comprehensive action programs, initiated, planned, and carried out in local communities....
- D. Mobilizes existing and new Federal assistance and services to support local Community Action Programs...⁷⁰ (C.A.P.). Community Action Agencies (CAA) were, through the arrangement of a single organization with adequate power to coordinate the efforts to combat poverty, to run the Community Action Programs in a particular area. The Community Action Agencies were to have governmental representation and participation by the key governmental agencies, community and neighborhood groups. EOA Act establishing the Action Agency (that portion of the program not monitored by Washington) provides for "maximum feasible participation of the residents of the areas...."⁷¹

Under EOA, a new poverty agency was created at the federal level, the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO). OEO was conceived as being the only

⁶⁹Daniel P. Moynihan, Maximum Feasible Misunderstanding: Community Action in the War on Poverty (New York: The Free Press, 1969), p. 57.

⁷⁰Ibid., p. 81.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 82.

agency with the authority to administer the programs created under the act to wage the all-out fight on poverty. Thus, the following programs fell under the auspices of OEO:

"Title I of EOA of 1964 youth programs

Part A. Job Corps Program

Part B. Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC)

1. In-school program

2. Drop out or out-of-school program

Part C. Work-study programs

Title II Operation Head Start
Community Action Agencies

Title III Family Unity Through Jobs
Comprehensive Service Centers (Title II)
Urban and Rural Cooperative (The Adventure Corps
and Detached Worker Project)
VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America)
Special Programs to Combat Poverty in Rural Areas

Title IV Employment and Investment Incentives
(Not all programs listed were specified under
EOA of 1964.)"⁷²

Many of these programs are directly or indirectly Manpower oriented.

Lee Rainwater, professor of sociology, at Harvard University, maintains that the goals of the War on Poverty programs have been to "provide services which alleviate some of the problems that result from poverty" (as in the provision for supportive services such as education, health, family life, legal assistance, and housing programs) as well as to develop other programs that "will train the poor to behave in ways that would allow them to attain jobs which pay about the minimum subsistence level of income.... The War on

⁷²Ibid., p. 57.

Poverty has sought a two-pronged attack which on the one hand changes the poor person into a more conventional person in terms of life style and work habits, and at the same time, makes opportunities available to him so that he can translate his new social and technical skills into a stable job."⁷³ This translates to mean that while the poor are being trained for lower class jobs, they are being socialized by middle class standards to make them act "just like us."

In 1970, Daniel P. Moynihan, employed as a Presidential assistant, wrote, "The poverty and social isolation of minority groups in central cities is the single most serious problem of the American city today. It must be attacked with urgency...and with programs designed especially for this purpose."⁷⁴

Apparently somewhere between the mustering of a War on Poverty and the time of the above statement, reports from the poverty "battlefield" indicated that the War was being lost. An obvious question is, "Why?"

There were those, like Michael Harrington (author of The Other America) and Senator Robert Kennedy who strongly believed that poverty programs should have concentrated on employment. It was felt that "employment is the only true long-run solution. Only if the poor achieve productive employment will they be able to support themselves and their families, become active contributing citizens and not passive objects of action, recipients of our charity."⁷⁵ Others, like Sar Levitan, felt that poor administration of the

⁷³Ibid., p. 57.

⁷⁴Moynihan, Toward a National Urban Policy, p. 201.

⁷⁵Reissman and Popper, p. 20.

poverty programs might have been the key to the losing of the war. For example, EOA of 1964 provided for the training of fathers of families on relief rolls, but most of these (AFDC) families were headed by women. Therefore, under these guidelines, little money could be actually spent on the program. The Act did set up the Neighborhood Youth Corps, but the low-pay scales meant that a youth could make more money by dropping out and joining an MDTA program than he could by staying in school, the primary objective of NYC."⁷⁶

However, two basic causes for the disappointing performance of the War on Poverty are a lack of commitment and a lack of money. The EOA began to create a competition between the governmentally established agencies and those services which were being duplicated and provided by CAA's. The CAP agencies posed a direct threat to the more traditional State Employment Service-public school alliance programs which dealt mainly with communication between career counsellors and guidance counsellors. In an effort to discredit the anti-poverty agencies, CAP's have been characterized by the Civil Service agencies as being distributors of patronage and programs which breed corruption. Although both should have the same target population, only CAP's have, to some extent, been responsive to local community employment needs. Therefore, the essential difference is, simply stated, that the Employment Service is bureaucratic and CAP is political. Although CAP performance and results began to be criticized with some justification, experience in non-CAP manpower programs suggests that "it is extremely

⁷⁶Sar A. Levitan, Garth L. Magnum, and Robert Taggart, III, Economic Opportunity in the Ghetto: The Partnership of Government and Business (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1970), p. 12.

difficult to maintain access to jobs for the poor under institutionalized (Civil Service Employment Service) systems of job distribution."⁷⁷

Additionally, the existence of the CAP programs has increased self-awareness and developed a rising goal of expectations among the poor. It is true that unrest (through rising expectations) more than the programs themselves has built this awareness. Yet though manpower programs are not central to poverty politics, it is doubtful that self-conscious groupings among the poor would have emerged to the extent they have were it not for the initial impetus of the anti-poverty programs, including those with Manpower objectives. "In part, awareness has engendered sympathy; in part special efforts on behalf of the minority poor have fomented resentment. One way or another, community attitudes have been affected and the issues cannot any longer be ignored."⁷⁸

The frustrations of a politically aware poor have been aroused by the rhetoric of the War on Poverty and the cold reality 'business as usual.' Robert Kennedy stated, "I do not see how we can, then, be so...upset and disturbed when we see those who are poor become disenchanted with our society."⁷⁹

It will be recalled that in the 1950s the American poor, black and white were "surpassingly inert.... There was almost no economic content to the protest. The American poor were not only invisible, in Michael Harrington's phrase, but they were also silent."⁸⁰ This silence began to

⁷⁷Beer and Barringer, p. 81.

⁷⁸Office of Evaluation, Manpower Evaluation, p. 71.

⁷⁹Reissman and Popper, p. 23.

⁸⁰Moynihan, Maximum Feasible Misunderstanding..., p. 24.

be broken with President Johnson's call for community action in 1964. The War on Poverty and CAP tended to be oversold from Washington with highly touted phrases about anticipated impacts on the lives of the poor. Sadly, the programs tended to under produce in terms of actual performance. At the same time, President Johnson was "blitzing" poverty with press releases, he was fighting another more immediate war. In his January 12, 1966, State of the Union Message, Johnson said, "We do not intend to abandon Asia to conquest.... We will act as we must to help protect the independence of the valiant people of South Vietnam...we will give our fighting men what they must have: Every gun and every dollar and every decision - whatever the cost or whatever the challenge."⁸¹ By 1966, the President sent a special message to Congress in which he no longer spoke of a War on Poverty but merely "a strategy against Poverty." The President's rhetoric had been de-escalated and so had his commitment.

This message had not yet reached the communities, and programs were still being carried on with intense vigor. This intensity resulted in a friction between Washington and the CAA's themselves. CAA sponsored programs, like Crusade for Opportunity in New York, became more and more activist and forceful. A black, James Tillman, Jr., then executive director of C. F. O., said, "How else do you gain power for the poor?.... No ends are accomplished without the use of force."⁸²

On the surface, the White House began a campaign of political smoke-

⁸¹John M. Medeiros, The Case Against a President's War (North Adams, Massachusetts: Heartwell Publishing, 1968), p. 8.

⁸²Moynihan, Maximum Feasible Misunderstanding..., p. 132.

screening by beginning to object to the high salaries and huge administrative overheads of many of the CAP agencies. By mid 1967, Washington vigorously complained about the Crusade for Opportunity in New York which had spent \$7 million of its \$8 million for salaries. Publicly the Executive applauded CAA. It was accomplishing its legislative mandate by mobilizing community resources and developing maximum feasible participation of residents to attack the whole anti-poverty problem. Privately, CAA was becoming a political liability to the White House.⁸³ The Government became alerted to the fact that community action activists could cause more trouble than the Government might be able to contain. The significant point is that when the Federal Government conceived of the poverty manpower programs which created CAP, "The government did not (really) know what it was doing."⁸⁴ It had no plan to handle a potential crisis, a crisis it alone had perpetrated.

The President's administrative response was clear. A sorely under-financed program at its inception, by 1968 OEO had its budget in committee cut from \$2.1 billion to \$1.8 billion, and at times "the Budget Bureau appeared to have withheld from OEO a portion of even that money appropriated to it."⁸⁵ In fact, the first \$1 billion appropriated to the War on Poverty was in reality no new money at all, but largely made up of sums already allocated to departmental legislative requests "and subsequently subsumed under the heading of anti-poverty funds."⁸⁶

⁸³Ibid., p. 142.

⁸⁴Ibid., p. 170.

⁸⁵Ibid., p. 153.

⁸⁶Ibid., p. 94.

The Congress, in 1967, reflecting growing disillusionment with the fight on poverty, nearly killed EOA and the whole anti-poverty program. Violence in the cities was beginning to play havoc with middle class sensitivities. "How can we give all this opportunity and money, and have you throw it back in our faces?" Gone was the executive recognition that the poverty war was as real a war as Vietnam. In the case of the War on Poverty, "the Vietnam War was an independent cause of underfunding for social programs."⁸⁷ "More than anything else, the Vietnam War was the main enemy"⁸⁸ of the War on Poverty. The President didn't equip the army to fight the Poverty War.

Middle class dominated institutions constantly set goals and standards which the poor could not possibly meet, i.e., getting jobs and behaving in socially acceptable ways; and then they were dismayed by the results of the poverty programs. "The 'middle class measuring rod' was nonetheless applied to them; they would have to compete in a 'democratic status universe' in which every boy could grow up to be President."⁸⁹

The disturbances of the mid-sixties not only made many afraid, but angered more. The Congress wanted appreciation from the poor for the money and resources the lawmakers had spent in their behalf. The lawmakers mirrored the emotions of their constituencies.

⁸⁷ Eli Ginzberg and Robert M. Solow, "Some Lessons of the 1960's," The Public Interest No. 34 (New York: National Affairs, Inc., Winter 1974), p. 216.

⁸⁸ Ibid., p. 213.

⁸⁹ Moynihan, Maximum Feasible Misunderstanding, p. 173.

The political and bureaucratic system had constructed a middle-class white "Protestant Ethic" in its own image and the poor have little place within it. For example, the Civil Service merit system of employee selection is "skewed to eliminate minorities and discount their abilities."⁹⁰ The poor in the American society had been systematically separated from the stable working and middle-class members of the society. They had been excluded and deprived of the "resources necessary to function in the institution of the mainstream of American life."⁹¹ "Workers have been excluded from...willing but disadvantaged employment by discrimination pure and simple."⁹²

The dual labor market (limiting the poor from entry into primary jobs) excludes the poor from all access to primary jobs. For some middle-class Americans, the desire to achieve financially is so overwhelming that in order to make a living, there are "groups actively interested in the perpetuation of poverty. It is this interest that makes new institutions created to work with the poor in the labor market subject to threats of capture as well as of rejection."⁹³

The politicized poor, under the direction of the CAP's were coming to see that the War on Poverty was no war at all, just a political tool. There was little money and no commitment. In promising opportunities, the middle-

⁹⁰ Report of the Council on Public Employment..., p. 6.

⁹¹ Moynihan, Toward a National Urban Policy, p. 198.

⁹² Beer and Barringer, p. 56.

⁹³ Ibid., p. 59.

class standards of living and jobs for all were held out to the poor. Just as the dream of social acceptance was forming and seemed within reach, the commitment, rhetoric, and support necessary to make the dream come true disappeared. The Federal Executive and Legislative branches were angry at the poor for not accepting their anti-poverty - manpower programs with grace, and the poor were bitter because the Government succeeded in building the rhetoric and Madison Avenue public relations which shocked the ghetto poor out of their resigned apathy with the programs that promised "hope" and delivered failure and frustration.

What was once thought to be of paramount importance to the War on Poverty - the unification of all manpower poverty programs under one agency - has been destroyed. OEO has been emasculated systematically by the Federal Government, particularly the Nixon Administration. The direct administration of all but two of the original OEO programs still remains in OEO (i.e., work study has gone to HEW, Head Start and VISTA went to ACTION, the Job Corps and NYC went to the Department of Labor). As one former OEO Regional Office official, Rawle Garner, recently related, "I didn't know if we're going to be around next year. There's nothing left for us to do." Housing and Urban Development (particularly through Model Cities), the Department of Labor (through Concentrated Employment Programs), The Department of Agriculture (for migrant workers, etc.), all have poverty manpower programs to administer.

There are too many programs and too many agencies dealing "with aspects of manpower planning to expect a high degree of success in coordinating policies and activities of all of them."⁹⁴ Thus the Federal initiatives

⁹⁴Lester, p. 88.

in the manpower poverty area have served mainly to highlight for all to see the plight of the poor - and the poor have, under the glare of their own scrutiny, become more embittered.

There were many traumas in the 1960s. "Not least of these shocks has been the debacle of the community action programs and the War on Poverty: Soaring rhetoric, the minimum performance; the feigned constancy, the private betrayal, and in the end, the sell out."⁹⁵ These aspects have characterized the Federal role in the lack of success in anti-poverty attempts through Manpower programs since 1962.

The bureaucracy set up to administer manpower programs (and the programs themselves) has established a parasitic cycle in which individuals live off the misfortunes of others in the name of the Protestant Ethic of "helping those less fortunate than ourselves to a better life." That better life, presented through media advertising, is the middle-class ideal. "Work hard and make more money. Make more money and buy a new car." But the middle-class ideal is manipulated by this same "Protestant Ethic" which also says, "God helps those who help themselves." This double-edged ethic is the Catch-22 for the poor. They live on life's treadmill. When the poor work hard they get little reward or advancement. When they sign up for society's "handout", i.e., welfare or manpower programs, they are resented.

The nostalgia of the theme song from "All in the Family" ("Didn't need no welfare state - everybody pulled his weight") still applies. The ethic has been transported from the wealthy, philanthropic, personal, and business

⁹⁵Moynihan, Maximum Feasible Misunderstanding..., p. 203.

interests to a system of Federal doles called Manpower Programs, which purports to "help those who help themselves," but not too much. The fact that the charity "freely given" 100 years ago to help poor unfortunates was inadequate to meet the needs of the poor even then has not made this nation learn from its past. The last decade saw the public embarrassment of the rediscovery of the "invisible poor" and the scope of the identifiable problem became so huge that a "War" was necessary to defeat it. With the announcement of the "War on Poverty," "The Hopeless" became warmed by the prospect of a responsive government, and just as quickly became cooled by sudden dollar commitments of \$45 billion a year to a war in Southeast Asia which far overshadowed the scant \$2 billion earmarked for OEO in the anti-poverty fight. Other priorities prevented the firm, full-scale serious commitment of the Federal Bureaucracy and Federal dollars to be directed to the efforts of alleviating the problems of the poor. Instead of a thoughtful, planned development of the economy (and its associated occupational needs), both manpower and EOA were ill-conceived and born prematurely. OEO was created with little consideration given to its potential role or its potential impact on society. EOA, always in financial trouble, has never been able to shake the stigma of the defects in its creation. Saddled with the pseudonym "Poor People's Agency" or "Black People's Agency," OEO had an annual uphill battle to survive, let alone effectively implement the charge from the Congress that created it. Manpower programs designed to get people jobs had, with sparse annual appropriations (\$600,000,000), insignificant impact on the economy during times of "full employment" (3.5%). But when the economy went into a recession, the inadequacy of manpower programs

to meet normal challenges became clearly evident. Had there not been a "War on Poverty" perhaps the poor would not have expected to receive any favors from government. Because of the "War on Poverty" they were expecting something and received nothing. The disadvantaged, without jobs before Manpower became a national policy, still were by and large without jobs, skills, or even basic education. Although some choose to call attention to the politicalization of the disadvantaged as the lasting gift of the EOA - manpower programs, the better question to ask is, "Did this politicalization and louder voice really benefit the poor?"⁹⁶ Were the Manpower - EOA programs worth the cost?

⁹⁶ Edmund S. Phelps, "Economic Policy and Unemployment in the 1960's," The Public Interest No. 34 (New York: National Affairs, Inc., Winter 1974), p. 46.

C H A P T E R I I I
M A N P O W E R I N M A S S A C H U S E T T S

This chapter is designed to relate to the reader the various state agencies empowered to deal with the problems of unemployment in Massachusetts. While the previous chapter outlined the nature and causes of the failures in many respects of Manpower planning, this chapter will be concerned with the nature and failure of those state bodies responsible for Manpower data analysis and program implementation.

In Massachusetts, Manpower Programs have a complicated variety of functions to perform. These tasks include job projection analysis, information analysis and distribution, testing, counseling, and making employer contracts. The matching of applicants to job vacancies and job development (job creation) efforts are elementary purposes of Manpower Programs. However, in trying to make the goals of these programs provide significant positive impact on the economy of the Commonwealth, it is necessary to understand both the uniqueness and the acute difficulties of the present plight of the Massachusetts economic situation. It is due to these difficulties as well as to the lack of rigorous research that state Employment Security projections are incomplete and unprofessional.

There is presently little solid understanding of work attitudes, job or individual requirements, and labor mobility.⁹⁷ Consequently, the Massachusetts economy is in great need of help. Manpower Programs in Massachusetts

⁹⁷Lester, p. 194.

do not really address themselves to the root problems of chronic unemployment; they also do not meet day-to-day demands made upon them.

The questions to be raised include the extent of the employment problem in the Commonwealth, and which Massachusetts agencies specifically are charged with the responsibility of solving these problems.

A. The Unemployment Problem in Massachusetts

There are some clearly identifiable pockets of poverty in Massachusetts, ranging from the densely-populated urban city to rural poverty. The Berkshire area, Lowell, New Bedford-Fall River, Springfield, and Boston, are the areas which have the greatest concentrations of poor people.

Poverty in Springfield and poverty in Boston have similar characteristics. Both cities have a large black population which is locked into the cycle of secondary jobs. The remaining poverty is concentrated among white ethnic groups having a greater proportion of poor people in low-paying, stable jobs than the black community. The poor white group, however, is less aware of its state of poverty.

A more atypical area of Massachusetts poverty is the Berkshires. Poverty in this area is rural and closely tied to low agricultural incomes and a lack of good job opportunities. The Berkshire County poor are of a more typical rural nature.

Lowell typifies the "depressed area" problems in Massachusetts, a problem generated by the decline of the shoe and textile industries. The labor force still includes secondary jobs in the remaining textile and shoe plants. Yet the total collapse of these industries is illustrated by the

recent phasing out of all textile curricula at Lowell Technological Institute due to lack of demand or interest in the subject. Previously very popular with students, the textile curriculum faded with the decline of textile jobs in Lowell. Many non-English speaking migrants (Puerto Rican, Eastern and Southern European, and French Canadian) have filled the remaining menial textile jobs. The influx of these migrants to Lowell has made it imperative that the city deal with employment programs geared to this secondary labor market.

The New Bedford area is even less prosperous than Lowell, Springfield, or Boston: unemployment is higher, incomes and education lower, and the frequency of layoffs due to declining industry is increasing. In New Bedford, as in other cities, the major point is that Manpower problems center around the quality of jobs. Unfortunately, the jobs in demand are jobs that are secondary or menial in nature. In fact, there are less primary and white collar jobs in New Bedford than in many parts of Massachusetts. Puerto Rican and Cape Verdian immigrants vie with the existing work force for the crumbs of secondary job employment.⁹⁸

Within the last two years, unusually high rates of migration of the poor as well as an acceleration in the decline of industry in this state have substantially swelled both the areas and the absolute numbers of the poor in Massachusetts. Limited financial resources and an overabundance of priorities have resulted in a "softening economy" with diminishing outlooks for the future.

⁹⁸Beer and Barringer, p. 62.

The fact is that many industries are closing and moving out of the state and out of the country. In the western part of the state, this process has been occurring at an accelerated pace since 1970 ...and several plants within the Boston area are announcing their closing.⁹⁹

The economic stability of Massachusetts is further jeopardized by the current period of lengthy recession. Unemployment is severe, standing at 7.3% (or 202,000 persons) in February, 1974. This is compared with 5.1% in the nation as a whole.¹⁰⁰ The unemployment rate for blacks and other minorities is not compiled by any state agency, but comparisons of unemployment between Massachusetts and the nation give some indications. Total unemployment in the United States in 1968, 1969, and 1970 was 3.6, 3.5, and 4.9% respectively, and was 4.0, 3.9, and 5.3% in Massachusetts for the same period. The national unemployment rates for blacks and other minorities during those same years were 6.7, 6.4, and 8.2%. These rates are approximately double the unemployment rates of whites (a situation that has persisted since the end of World War II).¹⁰¹

It has been estimated by the state Cooperative Area Manpower Planning Service (CAMPS) that the unemployment rate among minorities in Massachusetts is at least twice and perhaps as much as three times the unemployment rate

⁹⁹Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS), Commonwealth of Massachusetts, The Massachusetts Comprehensive Manpower Plan: Fiscal Year 1971 (Part B) (Boston: Commonwealth of Massachusetts, October 8, 1970).

¹⁰⁰Richard Gilliland, Division of Employment Security, private interview held in Boston, August 1970.

¹⁰¹Report of the Council on Public Employment..., p. 3.

of the whites in Massachusetts. It is this high rate of unemployment coupled with the rapid growth and concentration of minorities in the cities that poses the most serious challenge to Massachusetts and her manpower programs. It has been estimated that one in every four labor market participants, or 350,000 people, in the Boston SMSA alone required some form of manpower service during 1972. This number far exceeds the number of people presently receiving manpower services.¹⁰²

Joseph Martorana, former director of the CAMPS program, estimates that there are over 160,000 disadvantaged youths in Massachusetts, and that the teenage unemployment rate is double the rate for the entire labor force. Martorana further stated that while Massachusetts Manpower Programs provide annually job placements for only 7,500 people (of all ages), the high school drop-out rate alone of 9% or 12,000 individuals adds up to a net increase of nearly 5,000 new unemployed people each year. In 1971 the Massachusetts Comprehensive Manpower Plan estimated that 155,681 people were employed below the poverty level, 38,116 were being underutilized by being employed part time, and an additional 50,000 should be in the work force that are not. (This figure excludes the 200,000 unemployed in Massachusetts.) At least another 160,000 persons fall in the category "other," meaning that, primarily, these people are employed at low skill/low paying jobs.¹⁰³

¹⁰² Commonwealth of Massachusetts, The Boston SMSA Comprehensive Manpower Plan: FY 1972 (Boston, 1972, No. 6020), p. 17 (mimeographed). Refer to p. 18 for chart No. 1.

¹⁰³ CAMPS, The Massachusetts Comprehensive Manpower Plan..., in Arlyn Blake, "Manpower Programs in Massachusetts" (unpublished memorandum, Governor's Office, Commonwealth of Massachusetts, August 12, 1971), p. 6.

The State Division of Employment Security, even if it placed every person that it was funded to train under MDTA, could serve no more than 2,546 people for the entire state of Massachusetts.¹⁰⁴ In order to keep jobs or to better themselves, individuals often need short term training while taking a short leave of absence. The vast majority of the disadvantaged who do have the opportunity of getting into a state Civil Service position are placed at group levels in which the annual turnover rate is at least 50%. However, the state Civil Service did not provide incentives to provide job security for the entry level positions. The figures for 1970 show Civil Service did allocate some money for leave-time and short term upgrading training, but that the money was disproportionately authorized to employees in the higher job categories. In 1970, \$38,108 was spent on upgrading training for Civil Service job grades higher than 10 and \$1,856 for grades lower.¹⁰⁵

The poverty agency in Boston, Action for Boston Community Development (ABCD), reflected the statewide interest in the anti-poverty programs to provide training, skills, and jobs for its people. ABCD operates five skill centers in Roxbury, Dorchester, Jamaica Plain, Parker Hill-Fenway, and South Boston. The total number of persons placed in jobs (mainly secondary in nature) in 1973 was only approximately 1,700. ABCD operates within a total budget of \$23 million per year and is the biggest anti-poverty agency in Massachusetts. Another OEO program is the Lynn Economic

¹⁰⁴ CAMPS, The Massachusetts Comprehensive Manpower Plan.... See Chart II.

¹⁰⁵ Report of the Council on Public Employment..., p. 17.

Opportunity program (LEO) funded at the rate of \$1 million per year. The number of job placements decreases proportionately with the amount of money funding the program.

The poverty agencies, the DES, and state government represent the major sources of placement and unemployment opportunities for poor and unemployed people. In 1972, through Federal Department of Labor allocations, the state spent an estimated \$46,856,107 or about \$1,200 per unemployed person.¹⁰⁶ There were more disadvantaged and unemployed people in 1973 than in the previous year (even with over \$60 million earmarked for Massachusetts this year). A study into the Massachusetts agencies responsible for responding to manpower needs yields insight into why there has been little significant impact of these programs upon the lives and economy of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

B. Cooperative Area Manpower Planning Service (CAMPS)

A step was taken by the federal government to help each state find ways to anticipate industrial decline. Five years ago, the Federal Department of Labor began to fund a system to deal with and analyze the manpower problems as they exist, as well as plan for new careers to offset occupational losses in some industries while creating new labor supply demands. This system was called the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning Service (CAMPS). The CAMPS concept is an attempt to provide better information, to avoid duplication and overlap, and to establish a better coordinated

¹⁰⁶CAMPS, The Massachusetts Comprehensive Manpower Plan..., p. B-32.

manpower planning and delivery system. This ideal system has, in actuality, never even been tried. When funds are available to the region, state, or local area, there is no system of officially informing all concerned of how to go about applying for funds. Indeed, because CAMPS is not required to write-off on all local manpower contracts, "many programs are funded at all levels without the knowledge or approval...of the CAMPS committee."¹⁰⁷

CAMPS plans provide very limited analysis of the interaction between agencies because of the lack of good quantitative data (this data is even hard for the agencies to provide for themselves). Qualitative analysis and follow-up data are lacking for CAMPS reports. There are no guidelines as to how well people are served and no compilations of follow-up data once an individual has been placed in a job. The current system lacks any determination of whether a person has a job, the type of job, its relation to his training, job retention, employer acceptance, what the enrollee felt about his training experience, etc.¹⁰⁸ Because local cities and towns are not required to submit employment data to the state, or mandated by statute to cooperate with CAMPS, even if accurate records of this type were kept, CAMPS would have no legitimate access to this information.

The CAMPS system, which consisted of a state CAMPS committee and regional CAMPS councils, had no power to reallocate funds by vote and no influence in unravelling the mass of agencies which serve an overlapping clientele. With no common higher power to whom it can report, there has been no reason for other manpower agencies either to concede to cooperate

¹⁰⁷Ibid., p. B-29.

¹⁰⁸Ibid., p. B-36.

with CAMPS or even to provide CAMPS with information long after the fact.¹⁰⁹ The CAMPS system has made no significant difference in manpower program administration. When asked what he thought about the CAMPS situation and particularly the CAMPS staff in Massachusetts, former Deputy Regional Manpower Administrator for the Department of Labor Richard Gilliland (formerly Director of the Massachusetts Division of Employment Security) said, "It's disgusting. It's a disgrace."

Recently, there has been a major shakeup in CAMPS. Directives from Washington have made it mandatory that all CAMPS systems be "revised" immediately. In an effort to bolster a faltering system, the following alternative is presently being put into effect. The program is called the Manpower Planning Council System (MPC). The chairman of the new state MPC is the Secretary of Manpower Affairs, Mary Newman. This system was, in theory, developed as follows:

In order to provide a broader scope to support the decentralization of operational decisions, a network of manpower planning councils was proposed. They existed at the Area and State levels and advised and supported governors and mayors in manpower planning. Plans will not emanate from the councils as quasi-independent bodies, but from the governors and mayors.

The tasks of these councils will be:

1. To advise mayors, governors, and Regional Manpower Coordinating Committees of the needs of their states or areas for manpower services, and on the locally conceived priorities among kinds of services required to address these needs.

¹⁰⁹Office of Evaluation, Manpower Administration, p. 68.

2. To develop a comprehensive manpower plan that recognizes these needs and priorities and makes recommendations for appropriate program funding. This plan must define manpower targets and goals in terms of: people needing services; employable workers; a design for the provision of services, insuring a high level of success in moving the people into the jobs in the shortest time possible and in the most efficient manner possible.

These tasks will be performed by the councils, regardless of fund source. With respect to the programs funded by the Manpower Administration, recommendations by governors and mayors will constitute action plans for program funding which will be followed by the Regional Manpower Administrator to the maximum extent feasible.

Councils will be expected to assess program operations and efficiency on a continuing basis and recommend to governors and mayors new program linkages and approaches based on their perception of soft spots in program operations and gaps in services provided.

For manpower programs funded by all agencies, a council's plan will constitute recommendations for funding, conditional upon acceptance by a mayor or the Governor. Implementation will depend on the ability of each of the agencies to respond to the recommendation through funding actions. (See Appendix II on Structure.)

Realizing the flaws in the previous CAMPS operation, the Department of Labor has attempted to give SMPC and AMPC real influence over what manpower programs will be funded as well as a clearly identifiable right to coordinate the manpower programs of all existing agencies. If successful, the MPC could be considered a breakthrough in finally beginning to attack a job that has

not been done at all until now, the job of real manpower planning and job development.

C. Massachusetts Division of Employment Security (DES)

The state Employment Service was created when the Federal Employment Service anti-depression legislation was passed in 1933. Established by the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 as essentially a placement service, the employment service is a large, bureaucratic, "but decentralized institution in which levels of management (and government) depend upon performance indicators to monitor and control subordinates. The handiest, most readily assessable performance is placements."¹¹⁰ Reliance upon placements, as an indicator of success, tends to direct the Employment Security's (ES) major efforts towards jobs that it has in its file and that DES is able to fill. These positions tend to be the short run, high turnover, low stability-low paying jobs. They keep the people who receive a placement from the Employment Security in a cycle of employment-unemployment with high support needs to be provided by the state. In actuality, the ES placements tend to go to the state's poorer population.

The state Division of Employment Security is the major state Manpower Program administrator. DES administers not only MDTA - institutional training, Job Opportunities in the Private Sector (JOPS), On-the-Job Training (OJT) - low support program - but also Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (NAB-JOBS), Supplemental Training and Employment Program (STEP), and the Work Incentive Program (WIN). Thus, DES is a multi-purpose, multi-

¹¹⁰Beer and Barringer, p. 77.

million dollar agency. It receives money for programs from the Federal government and receives the majority of its money for staffing from the state through Civil Service positions. This gives DES a quasi-state and federal image with respect to accountability. Over the years this dual responsibility has made the Division a difficult agency to pin down (both the state and the federal people apparently do not know where their responsibility for DES starts and the other ends). Since 1968, increasing rumblings have been heard by the Regional Manpower Administrator (RMA) and the State House to make an effort both to modernize the DES procedures and to make the agency more accountable for its performance.

When the state DES came into being in the early 1930s, the sting of depression and hunger attracted many bright, able and highly motivated employees to the new agency. They worked hard to make the agency flexible and responsible to the needs of the state's citizens. Their competence was due, in part, to their unique understanding of the difficulties of the people in the 1930s. These aggressive young men of the Employment Security's early years are now the top executives in the organization who are ready for retirement. Today these executives have no real desire to "rock the boat." "Persons recruited in the 1940's and 1950's who still remain employees of the Service are, generally speaking, somewhat lower in quality."¹¹¹ The recruits of the 1950s were not motivated by the immediacy of hunger or the threat of the depression. They simply wanted a job. This trend continued into the 1960s. During the last ten years, the Commonwealth has attempted

¹¹¹Lester, p. 97.

to recruit more able young people, but has found that, due to generally low-wage scales as well as prospects of long years working at or near the bottom of the ladder, there has been great difficulty in retaining the more capable recruits for more than one or two years. Bright young men use the DES as a temporary "stop" until something better comes along. Women regard DES as the only agency where they can compete with men, and, through endurance (if not through hard work alone), they tend to rise to a level of relatively high administrative responsibility. Women are more willing to accept the schedule of low wages in order to have a meaningful career and position.

The existing DES staff tends to recruit, "indoctrinate, discourage, and promote newcomers in line with their own image."¹¹² Because of this tendency, the turnover rate of DES personnel averages approximately 35-40% a year (many leave for private industry).¹¹³ Many aggressive care-minded men do not wish to be subordinated to a middle-management of predominantly women, who have moved up the Civil Service ladder over the years, and will rarely opt to leave the agency.

DES is supposed to be in the business of providing supportive services (such as testing, counseling, gathering accurate labor information, outreach, follow-up, monitoring, and evaluation services). However, a 1963 survey shows 75% of DES work time and staff is spent on placement and paperwork (i.e., taking applications, taking job orders, screening referrals

¹¹²Ibid., p. 106.

¹¹³Ibid., p. 98.

for jobs, and verifying placements). Only 6% of staff time was spent on counseling, 5% on gathering up-to-date accurate labor information, 4% on testing, and 10% divided among the other services.¹¹⁴ It is no wonder that the Division of Employment Security is now referred to as the "Division of Unemployment Security."¹¹⁵

Although the Division spends more than three-fourths of its time on job placement, its impact on the labor market has been disappointingly small.

In all the legitimate career or job possibilities identified by the Department of Labor, DES has placed people in less than 16% of any of these occupational groups and less than one-tenth of these (or 1.6%) include job referrals and placements in professional and managerial areas.^{116,117}

Sol Barkin of the University of Massachusetts Economics Department has had long experience with the Massachusetts DES. Professor Barkin states: "I've never worked with an agency with such an intense feeling of suspicion. The longer one works with DES the more nervous one becomes. There is institutionalized resistance to any thorough internal discussion of training programs. Cooperation in any real or new experimentation was lacking. As soon as a change in a training project system was suggested, that is how fast it was killed. It is most discouraging working with the state ES office because one has a sense that there is a conscious effort to exclude outsiders,

¹¹⁴ Ibid., p. 47.

¹¹⁵ Ibid., p. 45.

¹¹⁶ Ibid., p. 72.

¹¹⁷ U. S. Employment Service, Department of Labor, "Employment Service Participation in the Labor Market" (Washington, D.C., November 23, 1962), p. 4 (Mimeographed).

and do all that must be done not to change." Therefore, necessary supportive services, which would begin to open up the agency as well as broaden the base of the kinds of jobs to be made available by DES to its enrollees, are not forthcoming.

The DES has developed a remarkable facility for separating different programs run even within the agency. It is not surprising that there has been no effort to link programs, agencies, or information. For example, the Work Incentive Program (WIN) has many female heads of households. In order to participate in the WIN training program, mothers must be able to obtain child care service. DES has no information (coordinated or otherwise) to help these mothers, and, although the need for child care to allow the program to operate smoothly is obvious, "nowhere are there adequate facilities"¹¹⁸ provided or supported by DES. Almost unbelievably, there is no evidence by DES of restructuring jobs to fit the applicant (job development), and there is "no meaningful follow up," evaluation, or monitoring for feedback purposes of DES administered manpower programs.¹¹⁹ Even though the Division of Employment Security has nearly 5,000 full-time employees statewide, Velia DeCaesare, the division's WIN, STEP, and MDTA supervisor, seriously inquired of this writer if any new employer "leads" could be provided by the Governor's Office through the efforts of the author of this paper. Contracts go unfilled and Federal money goes back to Washington unspent, and each year there is no attempt by DES to break through the ceiling of secondary quality jobs referred through the Employment Security

¹¹⁸ Solomon Barkin, private interviews held at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, February and March 1972.

¹¹⁹ Office of Evaluation, Manpower Administration, p. 84.

offices. Lack of aggressive development of new business contacts has made (low quality, high turnover) job placements by DES with the same companies over and over again, a convenient and most expedient option.¹²⁰

In 1965, President Johnson's Manpower Report stated that "of every 10 high school dropouts, 8...had never been counselled by a school official or by a public employment office about job training or the kind of work to look for."¹²¹ Career guidance in high schools should be closely integrated with vocational counselling provided by the DES, but it is not. Instead of growing to meet the changing labor demands of a rapidly changing world, the Division has bureaucratically chosen to shut out these changes. During the nearly 40 years of its existence, the DES has not even developed a clear-cut concept of optimum labor mobility. It gathers no useful or effective data, and it has not answered charges "that it is too interested in short-run placements at the expense of the long-run interest of workers."¹²²

Shed of its bureaucratic defense mechanisms, the principal handicaps of DES are:

- A. That it pays low salaries.
- B. That it provides limited opportunities for professional advancement.
- C. That it has inadequate staff and training programs.
- D. That it has a low quality of personnel that remain with DES, and a high turnover rate among new recruits.¹²³

¹²⁰Peter M. Blau, The Dynamics of Bureaucracy (Chicago and London, University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 96.

¹²¹Lester, p. 57.

¹²²Ibid., p. 70.

¹²³Ibid., p. 97.

- E. There is evidence "of an unwritten, unspoken 'quota' of placements to be made." A DES agent shows "no obligation to his clients, his supervisor, or even his co-workers."¹²⁴ That DES cuts corners by making easier placements because the number of placements is the primary basis upon which budgetal considerations and personnel evaluations are made. (See page 58.)
- F. That officials treated people looking for jobs as stereotypes, "without becoming concerned with their particular characteristics as human beings."¹²⁵

A legitimate conclusion is that, although DES has a "bad image," it has earned it.

D. Civil Service

The Commonwealth's largest employer is the state itself. Massachusetts, through its Civil Service merit system, employs nearly 60,000 people.¹²⁶ The state Civil Service system was developed as a check on the effects of widespread patronage under the formerly in-ward type of system of governmental politics. Originally, the purpose of Civil Service was to ensure that, through the taking of competitive examinations and the establishing of eligibility lists for state positions, based solely on one's performance on tests, political patronage could be effectively eliminated from the staffing procedures for state agencies. When introduced, the Civil Service system, in theory, was to make the concept of "it's not what you know, it's who you know" obsolete. The complicated Civil Service System was supposed to be the alternative to direct patronage appointments. The merit system

¹²⁴Blau, p. 194.

¹²⁵Ibid., p. 194.

¹²⁶Report of the Council on Public Employment..., p. 18.

was thought to be a major move by government to restore the people's confidence in this state.

Over the years Civil Service has begun to take on many of the trappings and characteristics of the patronage system that it had replaced. In terms of its hiring practices with respect to the disadvantaged population, the Civil Service system is exactly the same as the previous system. The present Civil Service system appears to consciously exclude minority and disadvantaged persons. Because the Commonwealth has practiced exclusionary tactics as employer, the state, through Civil Service, has failed to erase discrimination from its own employment practices and, more importantly, failed in its role as "guardian of the rights of its citizens."¹²⁷

The basis of all hiring for potential state employment is the Civil Service examination. Information on job openings is sporadically fed to Civil Service from the state Bureau of Personnel and Standardization which, in turn, obtains its information on job vacancies from the agencies themselves. If there are people who are qualified for vacant positions and are aware of such vacancies then, by law, a Civil Service test must be conducted and an eligibility list established for those positions within a year of the identification of such vacancies. In order to understand the system more fully, this writer participated in taking of the "Administrative Intern" Civil Service exam. The "Administrative Intern" was a new exam for a new position in state government. Civil Service administered this test for the first time in December 1969. Both veterans and college educated men and women took the exam. The scores of the exam were not sent out for three to

¹²⁷Ibid., p. 6.

four months. Following the test, the positions that one was qualified to fill were not made known for nine months. One's rating or rank on the eligibility list is still a mystery and, to date, not one person has been hired by the state as an "Administrative Intern." If an individual were counting on an administrative career with the state as a result of this Civil Service exam given in 1969, he has had a very long wait. Yet, these kinds of results are not atypical of the anachronistic Civil Service structure. In fact, these results are even more typical when referring to disadvantaged groups.

The current Civil Service tests "clearly discriminate against blacks and Spanish-speaking minorities who tend to score lower on almost all types of paper and pencil tests. These lower scores are almost certainly due to poor education, yet there is no evidence to show that blacks correspondingly perform less well on the job.... Most examinations discriminate by using test items that black and other minorities cannot respond to as well because of unfamiliarity with the test material."¹²⁸ Therefore, the experience of taking a Civil Service exam is significantly different for a disadvantaged person primarily because he knows, in advance, that he has little hope of passing the test.

A disadvantaged person has the added obstacle of the civil service requirement of absolute veteran's preference between him and a job. Briefly, this means that if an individual, man or woman, scores 95 on a Civil Service Exam and a veteran passes the test with a 70, the veteran is put at

¹²⁸Ibid., p. 66.

the top of the job selection priority list. Anyone taking a Civil Service test must also be qualified for the position for which he is being tested. Job qualification specifications for Civil Service positions require work experience and formal education. Because of his limited educational background, the qualifications for many of the better positions established by Civil Service effectively exclude a disadvantaged individual from any Civil Service positions above group 10. The positions that are open to the poor person are, for the most part, entry level, menial jobs with little or no built-in career ladder for upward mobility. Although many of these lower level state jobs are high turnover in nature, Civil Service lists for filling vacancies as they occur are as long as 1500 to 2000 for each position.

The slow, stodgy nature of the Civil Service merit and testing procedures have made it necessary for a quicker way of filling state positions to be found. The answer has been the establishment of Sec. 15 of Chap. 31 of the general laws, which provides for the filling of vacant positions by provisional appointment. Whenever vacancies must be filled and there is no eligible list yet established, provisional appointments can be made - the practice has become widespread in Massachusetts due to the length of time that transpires between the requisition by an agency for an examination and the establishment of an eligible list. "More than one-half of all Civil Service jobs in the Commonwealth in 1969 were awarded with no examination."¹²⁹ The fact that minimum qualifications are needed before a provisional appointment is to be made "believes the claim that this is a merit system." An

¹²⁹Ibid., p. 55.

individual can hold a provisional appointment for up to two years without taking any examination. Consequently, a high proportion of appointments in 1969, 18,732 to be precise, were in reality, provisional or patronage appointments.¹³⁰ Clearly if the state had a commitment to hiring minorities, the avenue of provisional appointment is not only practical, but also available. Proposed Civil Service reform notwithstanding, the record of state government employment of the disadvantaged is a disgrace.

Comprehensive data on the present pattern of minority employment in state agencies is now available for comparison with those produced in 1966. The final returns on the survey conducted by the Massachusetts Commission Against Discrimination afford the following sample comparisons:

1. From 1965 to 1970 the minority population of Massachusetts more than doubled to a figure representing 4.95% of the general population of 296,546 people. During the same period, the minority population of the City of Boston increased from 68,000 (or 9.9%) to 146,000 (or 22.8%). The greater Boston area in 1970 employed almost half of all employees on state service. The figures indicate that, although the minority population increase in Massachusetts has been extremely rapid, Massachusetts governmental agencies have resisted employing minorities in any substantial numbers. However, when minorities are hired, discrimination plays a major role in prevention of salary increases and promotion for them.
2. In 1965, the 80 agencies covered by the report employed

¹³⁰Ibid., p. 43.

42,471 persons, of whom 1700 (4.0%) were members of minority groups. In 1970, out of the reporting agencies there was a total number of 58,259 employees and 2,988 (5.1%) minority employees.

3. Minority groups representation is extremely low in the highly sensitive areas of law enforcement and corrections. In 1966, the State police, the Metropolitan District Commission police, the Correctional Institutions and Camps, the Parole Board, and the Schools and Centers of the Department of Youth Services employed 2,772 people. Only 47 (1.7%) were black or other minority group members. By 1970 total employment in these departments and institutions had increased to 6261, while minority employment had increased to only 192 (3.1%).
4. In 1965, black males and all females were concentrated in the lowest job groupings. 75.5% of the black males, 92.6% of the black females and 82.3% of all females were classified below Job Group 11 (less than \$8,000 per year). For all males this figure was 50.4%. By 1970, these conditions had improved slightly - 65% of all black males were employed in job groupings below 11 while 83.5% of all black females were employed in jobs below this category. A study of the employment patterns in Boston State Hospital, which employs over 1,330 staff and has the greatest number of minority persons of any institution or agency of the state, revealed that less than 10 minority employees are employed in job group 9 or above, so

- that 97.3% of the 375 minority employees work in job groups below 9. 114 (30%) of the 375 minority employees work in job group 03 and 04, the lowest two job levels.
5. The greatest employment of minorities generally occurs in the state hospitals and schools for the mentally retarded. In 1965, nine such institutions in Boston employed 589 or 50.7% of all minorities working in state agencies located in the Boston SMSA, but the same nine employed only 6568 or 26.2% of the 25,114 total state employees of this area.
 6. Minority employment in the largest and third largest departments has improved in the last five years. In 1965, the Departments of Mental Health and Public Health employed 15,648 persons, including 820 minority persons. The 1970 employment statistics of these departments show an increase in the total employment of 15.7% to 80,108 and an increase in minority employment of 62.7% to 1334. This excludes figures from the two state mental health hospitals for which there is no data.
 7. The second largest department, public works, and the fourth largest, the Metropolitan District Commission, continue to have the lowest percentages of minority employees. Minority employment in the DPW increased to a mere 2.2% while the MDC increment was negligible at 1.7%.

In 1965, 75.5% of all black males and 92.6% of all black females were classified in Civil Service Job Groups below 11, compared with 50.4% for all

males and 82.3% for all females. Blacks accounted for only 2% of all employees in job grades above 10 in 1965. In 1970, these conditions were only slightly better with 65.2% of black males and 83.5% of black females employed in job groupings below 11 compared with 43.3% for all males and 73% for all females. These figures (65.2% and 83.5%) compare to 57.6% of the total number of state workers employed below group 11. Blacks accounted for 3.7% of all employees in job grades above 10 in 1970,¹³¹ compared with 53.4% of the total population of state employees.

The Civil Service system, far from its intended goal of being a true merit system, has become a large closed patronage system particularly for those who are appointed provisionally to high Civil Service group administrative positions. For those who are poor, the state Civil Service has merely served as a major roadblock for upward mobility of the disadvantaged and has been the most important instrument of maintaining the status quo. (See Appendix III.)

E. Massachusetts Commission Against Discrimination (MCAD)

There are other state agencies and state practices which are closely involved with Manpower policy and Manpower implementation. To be sure, these agencies have a goal of implementing anti-discrimination policies in job hiring practices. MCAD is the most important of these agencies. MCAD has both a state statutory and federal statutory policy objective to implement anti-discrimination policies. Therefore, the potential power of MCAD is not inconsiderable if it were to pursue actively investigations of

¹³¹Beer and Barringer, p. 70.

Commonwealth employment procedures. As in the case with CAMPS, DES and Civil Service, the potential of MCAD has not only never been realized, it has for the most part never really been tested. Most of the commissioners have been political patronage appointments and have had little commitment to solving the problems surrounding racial or class prejudice. Many commissioners have no expertise in labor relations or Manpower.¹³² In fact, the MCAD is teeming with such internal bitterness that even the field representative staff believes that the commissioners' commitments to the goals of the agency are dubious. Barbara Katersky, formerly an MCAD senior field representative (and, at present, Personnel and Affirmative Action Director of Mt. Sinai Hospital in New York) stated that even if the agency were well staffed and supported financially, that "discontent and dissension within MCAD among the field representatives is rampant." Ms. Katersky described one of the newly appointed commissioners as "a cry baby if he doesn't get his way" and another commissioner as "a bigot." Barbara Katersky, herself a political appointee, felt that, for the most part, MCAD was ineffective because "there may be as much if not more real racial prejudice within the agency as there is in the outside world." Within the space of one year the turnover of field representative staff has been nearly 90%. The MCAD, torn by internal strife, is having serious problems in building the confidence of the people it was created to help. For example, a staff person from Springfield Model Cities recently analyzed the lawyer from the Springfield area, appointed on MCAD commission. "He talks liberal, but there's no follow through, no commitment. We make our complaints to him

¹³²Ibid.

and we make our recommendations to him, and he does what he wants anyway." Lack of commitment and lack of responsiveness has made the Massachusetts Commission Against Discrimination an institutional barrier against job mobility.

F. Licensing Boards

There are other major state barriers to those seeking upward mobility through white collar, paraprofessional, or professional employment. Occupational licensing policies restrict access in the following ways:

1. "Licensing policy is formulated and administered by a multitude of separate boards and agencies operating under several boards and agencies operating under several different pieces of legislation. The variety and diversity makes it difficult...for the poor...to get information..."
2. Most of the licensing boards are composed of licensed members of the occupation which the boards govern; hence, they have strong economic incentives to limit entry.
3. Some licensing requirements discriminate against the poor... The requirement of "good moral character..." is generally interpreted to exclude applicants with criminal or police records.
4. Interviews or oral tests are used to facilitate racial discrimination. Most applications for licenses require pictures and at least one application specifically asks for race.¹³³

¹³³Ibid., p. 74.

G. Conclusion.

While it can be argued that a major cause of immobility is discrimination based on color and sex, which has the effect of reducing the economic value of education and training to those discriminated against,¹³⁴ of equal import is the role state and local governmental agencies play in effectively carrying out anti-discrimination directives. "It is clear that the best-conceived federal program will falter or fail if the agencies charged with implementing it lack initiative or competence. And the sorry fact is that most state and local governments --- are poorly structured and poorly staffed to carry out new and innovative tasks. They have a hard time even meeting their routine commitments."¹³⁵

Most state government agencies charged with Manpower - War on Poverty responsibilities "must be substantially strengthened if they are to discharge their...functions effectively."¹³⁶ The Federal government, instead of dumping all Manpower responsibilities on the states through revenue-sharing, must insist on priorities, "exercise surveillance over the execution of programs and maintain financial control. It is the height of political naivete or cynicism to assume that those who effectively control state and local governments will look out solicitously for the interests of the designated beneficiaries of federally financed programs in the absence of a check by the federal government."¹³⁷ It is also the height of political

¹³⁴Ulman, p. 98.

¹³⁵Ginzberg and Solow, p. 217.

¹³⁶Ibid., p. 218.

¹³⁷Ibid., p. 218.

naivete to assume that even if the state and local governments did look out for the "beneficiaries" of federally financed manpower programs, in terms of establishing appropriate priorities, current agency structures (and simple incompetence) make successful implementation of these programs almost an impossibility.

C H A P T E R I V

COMMUNITY COLLEGE - CAREER EDUCATION JOB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Social progress in a democratic society depends on its "ability to recognize and respond to challenges which require government intervention in the interests of economic performance and social justice." If the government acts to solve problems in a piecemeal remedial way, "it is likely to be forced later on to mount more ambitious programs of social intervention when the constraints of time, resources, and tolerance will be more painfully binding. Prolonged neglect is costly. Most social problems do not fade away. They become more acute when neglected."¹³⁸

In an effort to contrast the previous chapters' discussion, the following proposal of a new concept in Manpower programming was developed by the writer for incorporation into this analysis. The objectives of this Manpower proposal are clearly that project "efficiency" will result from well considered political planning. "Since rational planning is designing a course of action to achieve ends," efficient political "planning is that which under given conditions leads to the maximization of the attainment of the relevant needs."¹³⁹

A. The Proposal (CCJD)

The Community College - Career Education Job Development program is, in my judgment, an example of a rationally planned, efficiently designed

¹³⁸ Ibid., p. 212.

¹³⁹ Banfield and Myerson, p. 314.

political program.

This proposal is not designed as a cure-all for the numerous serious questions and problems facing the underprivileged in our society. This one program is not designed to deal with the under-achievers, the mentally-ill, the physically handicapped, those lacking in motivation and ambition, etc. It is merely to be used as a guide to the kinds of initiatives that can be developed to work well for a given constituency if all political vested interests have a built-in stake in their success and a built-in loss of face in their failure.

Like the social legislation which created it, the social program needs a "constituency larger than its direct beneficiaries. A larger public must share the goals of social intervention before political reform becomes possible."¹⁴⁰ The Community College - Job Development Program (CCJD) is one of a series of program ideas and spinoffs with that larger political constituency built in. Other programs like CCJD could be and have been developed to deal in a more comprehensive manner with the variety of causes and motivations associated with societal responses to the poor. This experimental statewide manpower strategy (CCJD) is useful only to demonstrate that, utilizing existing resources, comprehensive political "three-dimensional" Manpower planning is possible.

State and local bureaucracy's response, to date, to this concept has been one of cautious curiosity accompanied by paralytic paranoia of fascination and fear. State government bureaucracy, which knows the old friendly (if unproductive) ways, continues to look at solving such problems through

¹⁴⁰Ginzberg and Solow, p. 212.

uni-dimensional glasses. In attempting to implement CCJD, all questions regarding program implementation and operation were answered, and all political sensitivities and budgetary considerations were put to rest (i.e., local Model Cities and Federal Title IV A social service grants would pay for the experimental program). But when it came time for the designated state agency, the Department of Public Welfare, to place the item in the supplemental budget for the fall of 1972, Welfare Commissioner Minter balked - and, without reason, left the item out of the budget. This action killed the plan. Subsequent to this unfortunate experience, the program has come back in various incarnations, mainly instigated by local citizen participation agency groups (CPP, OEO and Model Cities) who believed in the program concept and had pledged over \$200,000 of their money in 1972 as proof of their support.

While other spinoffs of CCJD have been tried (and while the Governor's Policy planners are convinced they will work), none is operational to date. This can be traced primarily to bureaucratic intransigence, intractability, and suspicion of the untried. But while Federal and State government agencies continue to retrace paths which have so often proved unsuccessful in Manpower - War on Poverty program operations, funding still flows into these same tried piecemeal approaches.

The Community College - Job Development Program came very close to becoming a reality. And even though the wheels of Government ground too slowly to make the program come alive, two years after its unsuccessful brush with state government, the integrity of the basic design for comprehensive political manpower planning remains intact. This writer is certain

that this proposal, or one like it, will result in a successful program (in terms of job placement rates and in percentage of satisfied workers and employees).

What follows is the proposal drafted by the author in the Spring of 1972 for a CCJD program.

Proposal for the Establishment of a Pilot Community College
Job Development Program

I. The consensus among astute observers of Manpower programs in Massachusetts is that these programs have not significantly improved the living conditions of those persons whom they were intended to help. There are various reasons which have been forwarded for this apparent failure. Among these are the scope of the problem with which these programs must deal and the basic inadequacies of the programs.

At present, there is an unemployment rate which represents approximately 160,000 - 200,000 individuals. The great majority of this number are basically the young and the disadvantaged.

Yet Department of Labor sponsored Manpower programs directly affect no more than 7,500 Massachusetts people annually. This figure does not even begin to keep pace with present high school drop-out rates which run at a pace of 9% or 10,000 drop-outs annually. Due to local competition for Federal Manpower program money, the development of skills is not being accompanied by job development. What has worked in the past in terms of job training is assumed still to work. Therefore, the vast majority of manpower skill training overlaps each specific program concentrating on

traditional office occupational and technical training. (See Appendix IV.)

None of this bodes well for the disadvantaged, the underemployed, or the unemployed wishing to get into and benefit from a training program which will prepare them for entrance into the mainstream of American life. However, the magnitude of the problem in job training is yet to be scratched. The following more clearly defines the problem:

- A. The individual cannot support himself or his family on low stipends (an average of up to 40%-45% of the per unit cost is earmarked for staff and operational expenses), and he is, therefore, reluctant to go into new training programs simply because he cannot afford it.
- B. The individual is locked into non-option, non-transferable testing and training system which promises jobs, but in many cases cannot deliver jobs at the end of training period. This situation is caused by a lack of analyses of local occupational demands or needs.
- C. There is little coordinated effort to obtain or to get already available information regarding supportable jobs (or new career) projections in Massachusetts.
- D. There is little or no accurate follow-up of an enrollee's progress once he has either been placed, or not placed, in a job after training.
- E. State coordination of existing Manpower programs and close monitoring of their success or failure (with recommendations for change) have been done inconsistently.
- F. The geographical areas where statistics are available are too large for a local community (needing to identify its own labor market needs and its potential labor pool) to use.

Unfortunately, the psychology (surrounding Manpower programs) has been that if one works hard at his job or studies hard at school, one will get what one deserves - the best that life can offer. If one doesn't, it is likely that he will end up in Manpower programs.

II. There are nine Department of Labor Manpower programs, excluding vocational education, which represent the existing approaches in trying to solve the problems stated above. They include:

- Public Service Careers (PSC) which gets \$3.6 million annually in Massachusetts. However, there are no statewide PSC contracts to date.
- New Careers which is being phased out by the Department of Labor.
- Operation Mainstream.
- National Alliance of Businessmen JOBS Program - over \$12 million has gone unspent in the past two years in Massachusetts.
- On-the-Job Training - 100 to 300 training slots went unfilled last year (at \$1,500 - \$3,000 per slot).
- Work Incentive Program (WIN) - primarily a program for welfare recipients not on General Relief.
- Supplemental Training Employment Program (STEP).
- Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC).
- JOB CORPS.
- Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA).

These programs basically train people for entry level positions in office, occupational, or technical areas. The per unit costs run approximately \$1,500 per year per unit to \$8,000 - \$9,000 per year per unit. (These figures represent the Federal contribution exclusively.) Employer costs and other hidden costs can sharply increase the cost of a contract. Contracts can have a duration of as little as 26 weeks or as long as two years. Many of these approaches have lacked impact and community support because of inherent roadblocks to the success of the intent of Manpower programs. These include the Civil Service System and Labor Union entrance requirements.

Because of Civil Service testing lists, the tests themselves, Veteran's Preference, etc., the disadvantaged have little chance of being guaranteed of the job they are being trained to perform. Ironically, in most cases, the Department of Labor Manpower programs require of the state or employer this guarantee - the guarantee of a job. As a result, contracts go undeveloped and funded program money goes unspent. Each program approach is a spinoff of the other with much duplication of effort with respect to training and funding of staffs, offices and equipment to perform that training service.

III. The Community College is the newest and most flexible state institution. With presently 25,000 students on 15 campuses, they can look forward to anticipated rapid expansion to approximately 80,000 students by 1980. Most significant is the fact that 12,000 Community College students are already involved in occupational one to two year instructional programs. The kinds of instructional programs presently offered on the Community College campus translate into highly innovative, varied, and much needed new and "prestigious" job occupations. The Community College is seeking uniqueness in the state public higher educational system, and community service appears to be the direction that these two-year schools are taking to reach that goal. Not tied to the traditions of the past, the Community College, which is not encumbered by Civil Service or Labor Union problems, is using New Career development to establish the Community Service link with the city or town. The Community College has fiscal autonomy and, consequently, it has the ability to co-mingle sources of funding and to sub-contract with any agency, school, business or individual in the community for a performance of service contract.

The Community College is by definition part of the community, but it doesn't have to compete with other local agencies for either municipal or federal funds. Staff and operational expenses are maintained by the state. The fact is that the college will "exist whether federal funds come in or not." Most important, it is a college and, a college education is, for most people, the acknowledged avenue to upward mobility. This is a psychological reality with which one must deal.

Because of these distinct advantages, the Community College will be used as the heart of the systemic Manpower project called the Community College Job Development Program. The basic difference in this program is the benefits and options that the enrollee will enjoy that are presently lacking in existing plans. Another advantage is the fact that no new bureaucracy will be required to make this program work. It will be necessary to utilize only existing mechanisms and existing funding sources. The mechanisms to be used are:

- A. The Manpower Secretary
- B. The Board of Trustees of State Colleges
- C. The Regional Board of Community Colleges and select Community Colleges
- D. The Division of Employment Security
- E. Towns in which there is a Model Cities agency and a Community College.

There will be three sources of Federal funding for a model program. Funds will be used to support administrative costs and enrollee stipends. The mechanism for distribution of these funds will be the local Model Cities. Using programmed or reprogrammed money to match with H.E.W. and D.O.L. funding,

the Model Cities will receive the funds and subcontract with the Regional Board of Community Colleges which will administer the program equitably for each Community College participating in the pilot project. Each participating Federal agency and Model City commits funds to the Community College Job Development (CCJD) program and will have the responsibility for recruitment of individuals for the program (subject to negotiated agreements and general guidelines established for project management, recruitment, monitoring, progress, supervision, and follow-up). The Manpower Secretary will have two positions allocated specifically for program management of this model project. There will be positions allocated at the Regional Board of Community Colleges for overall program administration, and positions allocated from the per unit cost for Community Service liaisons - Community College Job Development personnel in each participating community college. It is estimated that the total per unit cost will be well within the range of existing manpower programs and well below the cost of others.

Such options as transportation, health benefits, tutorial costs, etc., will be provided on an equitable basis by the Regional Board of Community Colleges.

The objective of this proposal is to open options for the disadvantaged, unemployed and underemployed which will build confidence, pride and experience, and, at the same time, pressure will have been alleviated from local economic systems. This will be accomplished by getting the individual off the unemployment and welfare rolls by employing him in a Community College and, thereby, taking pressure off the local job market. Time will become

available to develop good jobs for enrollees over the period that they are in the Community College. The options will be made available by the following series of commitments:

- A. A commitment for job placements (based on occupational programs offered at Community Colleges) by the Division of Employment Security.
- B. A commitment in advance of the enrollee's entrance into the college that the Division of Employment Security will place specific numbers of jobs in developed (new or needed) career areas.
- C. A guarantee from the Board of Trustees of State Colleges that graduates from the Community College Job Development program would be able to be enrolled as regular four-year students with appropriate credits transferred.
- D. Commitment by the Board of Trustees of State Colleges that graduates of the CCJD program be given preference in obtaining new supportive jobs to be placed in State Colleges.
- E. Commitment by state to place new positions in state and community colleges participating in the program.
- F. Commitments to extend guidelines or reprogram existing funds from the Department of Labor.
- G. Commitment by H.E.W. to aid the staff in obtaining grants to match with Model Cities funds.

Salary support for the enrollee will be set up on a sliding scale ranging from \$3,500 annual salary for a single enrollee to \$5,500 for married enrollee with two or more children. This will allow the recipient to afford to stay in this program. Unlike previous manpower programs which have staff and operational expenses ranging up to 40%-45%, administrative overhead of CCJD will range from 9%-15%. The enrollee will be getting 80%-90% of the total per unit cost in terms of salary (money in his pocket).

Other opportunities and possibilities will eventually become part of the successful development of this new systemic manpower program:

- A. Veterans can match their G.I. stipends with the per unit cost so that twice as many people could go to the Community College and benefit from the same amount of funding.
 - B. Day Care programs in the Community College would allow A.F.D.C. mothers to benefit by CCJD.
 - C. Job development and job projections could be analyzed at the community level. With flexible programming the Community College could build new programs based on available labor resources and skills as well as identifiable new career needs.
 - D. Individuals in CCJD could be placed in public agencies or private industry during the summer at little cost to either the public or the private sector. This will afford future possible employers to meet with and get work from potential new employees and at the same time allow the Community College to serve the role of catalyst in community service. The enrollee gains valuable on-the-job experience without the added pressure of "having to perform or be fired." His confidence and skills are thereby encouraged.
- IV. With the various commitments (state, federal and local) built-in supports that the CCJD program offers, this new manpower program delivers much more to the recipient than all presently existing manpower programs.

B. Enrollee Characteristics

Occupational or job potential will be expected to vary among people with pretraining skills, educational levels, attitudes and habits. The differences in those variables might be reflected adequately in pretraining earnings or in pretraining wage rates and employment rates. If they are not, they should be reflected demographically by social economic variables as pretraining skill levels, language, education, work experience, age, place of residence (a proxy for ghetto background). Therefore, the following characteristics should be examined and possibly included in a client's profile.

1. Age
 - 16-19 (teenagers)
 - 20-24 (youth)
 - 25-59 (prime labor force)
 - 60 and over (older workers)

Place of residence (inner city, etc.)
2. Race/Language
 - White, English-speaking
 - Black and other English-speaking non-white
 - Spanish-surname and other non-English-speaking
3. Sex
4. Years of education
 - 8 or fewer
 - 9 to 11
 - 12 or more
 - Measured education competence
5. Occupation of Last (or highest paying) Job
 - Professional, technical, or managerial
 - Skilled worker
 - Semiskilled worker
 - Clerical or nondomestic service worker
 - Unskilled or domestic service worker
6. Work Experience
 - None
 - 1 to 3 years
 - Over 3 years
7. Head of Household Status
 - Head
 - Nonhead
8. Presence of Dependents
 - Yes
 - No
9. Presence at home of Dependents (under 6 years of age for women)
 - Yes
 - No

10. Pretraining Hourly Wage Rate

Under \$1.00
 1.00 - 1.40
 1.40 - 1.65
 1.65 - 2.00
 Over \$2.00

11. Health Problems

12. Employment in Year or Period Preceding Training (in hours)

1820 or more
 1400 to 1800: Unemployed rest of time
 1400 to 1800: Out of labor force rest of time
 945 to 1440: Unemployed rest of time
 less than 945: Unemployed rest of year
 less than 945: Out of labor force rest of year

13. Welfare Recipient

Yes
 No

14. Criminal Record

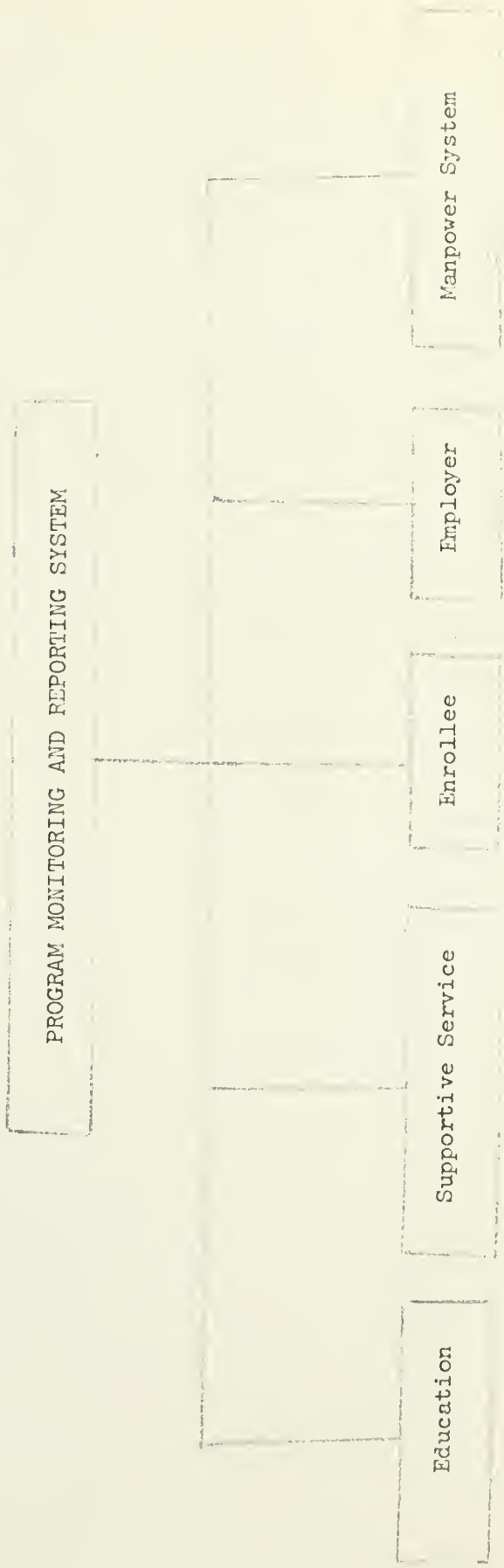
Yes
 No

C. Career Job Placement Guarantees, Monitoring and Reporting

Career Job Placement - Placing the client into his first level job

Client Career Monitoring and Reporting

- . Continued follow-up of client.
- . Continued assessment of client's job for possible revision of training program or other delivery system functions.
- . Provide employer with assistance:
 - For client
 - For job restructuring
 - For on-the-job training programs
 - For manpower system/employer relations



- . Assistance to the client in working adjustments and introduction of what supportive services are available to help him with problems.

Continuing career counseling, training, and job referral and guaranteed placement by holding entry level paraprofessional positions open in Civil Service

By continued client follow-up, additional assistance may be given by:

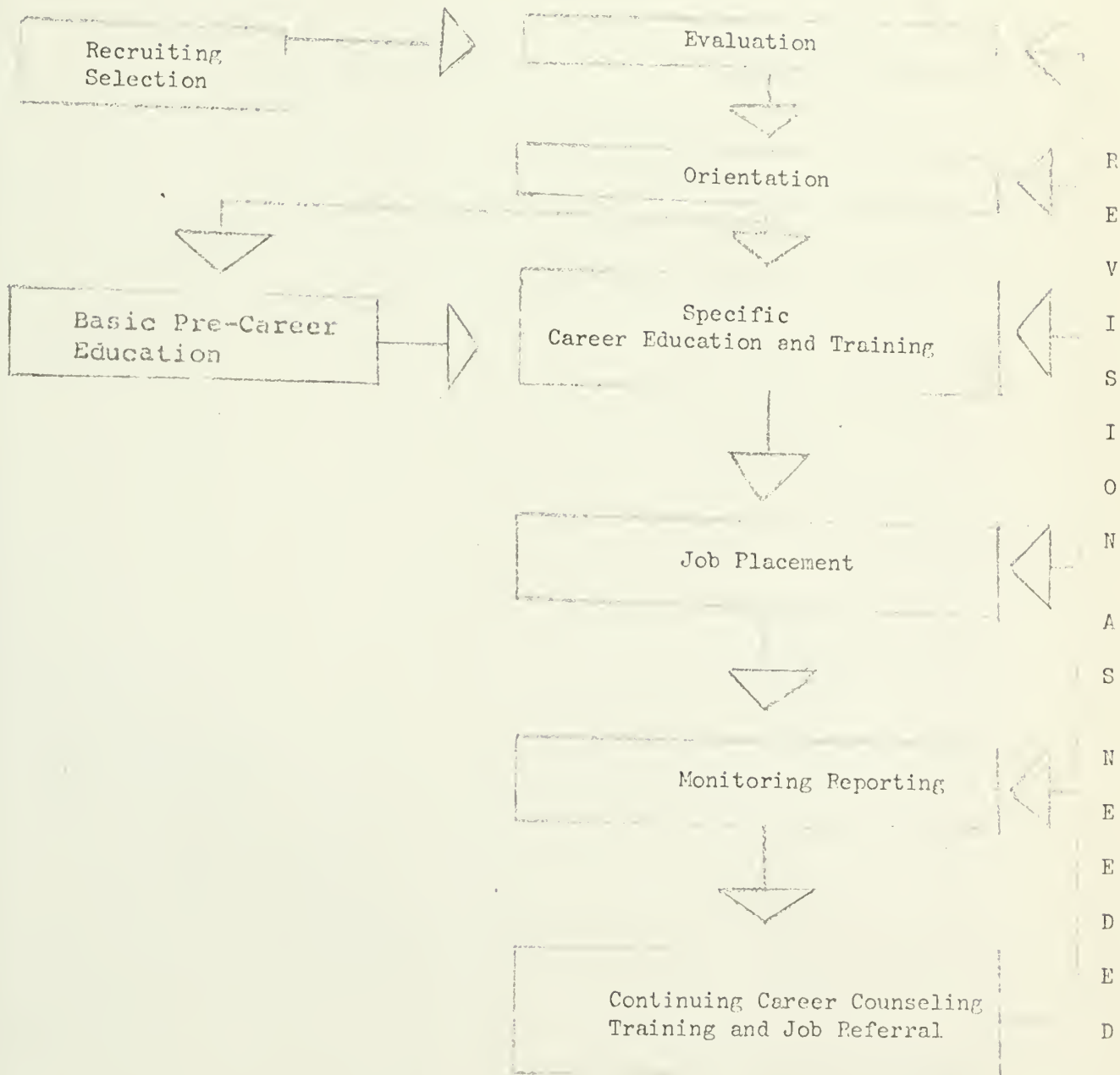
- . Career counseling
- . Additional training opportunities
- . Job referral and placement
- . Establish with client in community college a place for him to return for continued guidance in case of any difficulties.

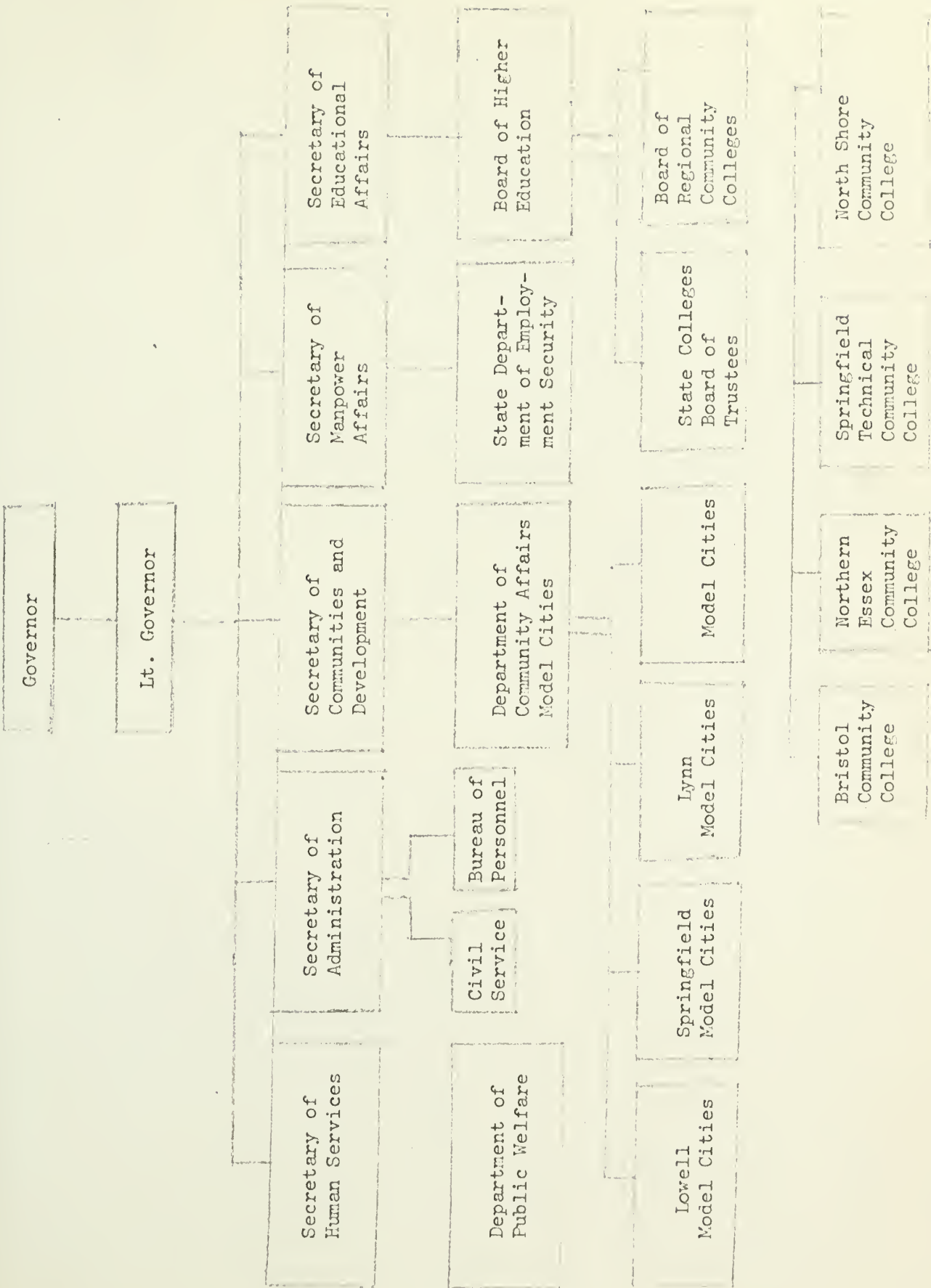
D. Delivery System

The delivery system would function through an inter-agency team of program agents and directors in local model cities (and associated community agencies).

The primary function of the delivery team would be to cooperate and coordinate with the enrollees to provide them the best service possible in the most cost-effective manner. This will be of importance to ensure against duplication of services, efforts, and funding. This would also help ensure that the system provides the best available programs and technologies possible.

DELIVERY SYSTEM FLOW





The Community College Job Development Program will serve the following purposes:

1. Reduce the waste of time and money by workers in searching for jobs and by employers in recruiting workers.
2. Reduce imbalances between labor demand and supply, geographically and occupationally, by promoting labor mobility.
3. Increase employment by shortening the lapsed time in filling job vacancies.
4. Open up a broader range of opportunities for workers and a broader range of supply for employers and, especially, improve the access of disadvantaged workers to professional job careers.
5. Improve labor allocation by helping to match requirements and abilities and carrying out the recommendations of counselors in referring applicants to jobs.
6. Provide valuable information for the Service and for manpower planning, with respect to such matters as occupational requirements, hiring standards, shortage and surplus skills, and rates of pay, all of which is helpful in vocational guidance. The information gathered by placement interviewers may also serve as an impressionistic check on the use of test results, the benefits of counseling, and the validity of selection methods used by the program in referrals.



E. Examples of Programs in Community Colleges

UNIFIED STUDIES PROGRAM

Unified Studies is an experimental, individualized, interdisciplinary program which offers the student the opportunity to engage in independent study and research of particular interest to himself. Working under a volunteer faculty sponsor, a student may enroll in Unified Studies either on a part-time or full-time basis. A student may register for Unified Studies during any semester of his choice. Currently all independent study courses are to be selected only from the academic catalog offerings, if taken at North Shore.

In order to offer maximum freedom to follow one's specific interests, Unified Studies should normally be used to earn elective credit. By special arrangement, however, it may be possible to meet a specific course requirement through this process the course involved relates closely to the remainder of the student's activities in the program.

The program is conducted in cooperation with the Education Research Center of Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Further details may be obtained from the Office of the Dean of Faculty.

CENTER FOR COMMUNITY HUMAN RESOURCES

The Center for Community Human Resources provides students with highly individualized and flexible approaches to learning, making use of a wide variety of teaching and learning resources found throughout the entire North Shore Region. Programs rely heavily on directed, independent study, field experience and internships and may include area studies originating with a variety of social concerns including mental health, urban and suburban planning, public transportation, day-care and drug abuse.

In most cases these individualized curricula are coordinated closely with appropriate resource persons at North Shore, with the College Curriculum Committee and with interested faculty from neighboring colleges and universities. Individuals from outside the academic world are encouraged to work with the students in this program. These individuals, designated adjunct professors, enjoy working with students and are able to contribute specific expertise to student projects and activities. Past contributors have included government officers, members of community action projects, artists, writers and physicians.

The Center also coordinates a variety of community based projects, including the operation of an educational program at the Salem Jail and House of Correction and assistance to youth oriented drug programming, day-care projects and area mental health programs.

THE NORTH SHORE REGIONAL TEACHER AIDE PROGRAM

The North Shore Regional Teacher Aide Program is a regional educational program established to train persons to assist teachers in tasks not requiring professional teacher competence. School districts may recommend local candidates for aide training. Costs for instruction are funded under the Federal Education Professions Development Act.

Training is undertaken in two steps: Pre-Service and In-Service. Pre-Service training consists of five weeks of course work preparation before the on-the-job-training assignments in local schools are undertaken. In-Service Training combines evening instruction and back-up support for aides while participating in on-the-job training.

Aides completing the non-degree program may apply 10 credits toward North Shore Community College degree programs.

BK6623 Installment Credit

A one-semester course; three credit hours. Study of the installment credit function; credit information, lending, collections and other procedures as well as inventory financing, special loan programs, business development and advertising, and the public relations aspect of installment lending. Three class hours per week.

BK6624 Trust Department Services

A one-semester course; three credit hours. Study of trust services, responsibilities of executors and administrators, analysis of the structure of trusts, alternative forms and the general and investment responsibilities of trustees. Three class hours per week.

BK6651 Analyzing Financial Statements

A one-semester course; three credit hours. Basic considerations in financial statement analysis, basic financial ratios, analysis of working capital, and other items. Three class hours per week.

BK6652 Bank Letters and Reports

A one-semester course; three credit hours. A review of the forms of letter and report writing as they apply to public relations as well as emphasize fundamental principles underlying modern correspondence. Three class hours per week.

BK6653 Bank Public Relations and Marketing

A one-semester course; three credit hours. A study of the public relations and marketing aspects of banking as they would apply to relations with customers, the community, and others. Three class hours per week.

BK6654 Fundamentals of Bank Data Processing

A one-semester course; three credit hours. A non-technical study of electronic data processing as applied to banks. A survey course. Three class hours per week.

CC2112 Problems in Early Childhood Education

A one-semester course; three credit hours. A sociological-psychological study of factors leading to educational success in representative compensatory programs for the young child. This course centers around the role of the family and cultural background as they relate to the development of school skills. Three class hours per week.

CC2201 Introduction to Child Care Technique

A one-semester course; three credit hours. This course provides the student with an understanding of the Child Care Worker's day, raises particular problems associated with organizing a group of youngsters, and presents a clear differentiation between the management and understanding of behavior. Three class hours per week.

CC2264 Seminar in the Philosophy of Child Care

A one-semester course; three credit hours. The student studies varied models of child care programs and the theories which they illustrate. The second half of the course involves clinical experiences in which the student explores in depth a model of a child care program located in the Merrimack Valley, studies the program in operation, and writes a research paper based upon his findings. Three class hours per week.

CC2311 Observation and Recording of Child Behavior

A one-semester course; one credit hour. A preliminary study of child behavior in varied institutional settings. Defined areas of child behavior will be observed and recorded. These observations will be discussed every other week at seminars. Two laboratory hours per week.

CC2312 Laboratory Experience in Program Development

A one-semester course; two credit hours. Skills and concepts of learning acquired in Children's Literature and Introduction to the Creative Experience will be applied in selected centers for children. The student will play an active role in setting up projects, and working with the young child in the areas of art, music, crafts and literature. Four class hours and four laboratory hours per week.

Prerequisite: EN8401 and present enrollment in FA7012

CC2353 Laboratory in Child Care Education I

A one-semester course; three credit hours. The student will be actively involved in the varied activities which are part of all child education programs. Not only will the student work with arts, crafts, music and literature; he will also aid the supervising personnel in leading recreational activities, will work with the individual children in defined problem areas and will record his experiences for seminars held every other week. Nine hours per week clinical experience.

Prerequisite: CC2201, CC2371 and present enrollment in CC2112

CC2354 Laboratory in Child Care Education II

A one-semester course; six credit hours. The student will have greater responsibilities in his relationship with programs for the young child. Sixteen hours of practical experience each week will be spent within a defined institutional center. At the completion of the semester, the student should be competent to work in all areas normally associated with the paraprofessional in child care programs. Eighteen hours per week clinical experience.

Prerequisite: CC2353

(See Appendix IV for translation from instructional program to actual career jobs and occupational titles.)

CHAPTER 31 .

§ 8 D

STUDENTS IN CO-OPERATIVE PLAN EDUCATION PROGRAMS:
EMPLOYMENT BY CITIES AND TOWNS: EXEMPTION

The director shall cooperate with public and private colleges, universities, and other institutions of higher education, which grant degrees and which provide facilities for educating students on the so-called "co-operative plan" of education whereby work-study programs are so developed and maintained that students enrolled therein may be employed in the service of any city or town in positions appropriate to their major academic interests. The employment of such students in said positions shall, upon certification to the director by a representative of such a college, university, or institution that such student is enrolled therein under a "co-operative plan" of education, not be subject to the provisions of this chapter: provided that employment by the city or town of a student under such plan is for a stated and limited time.

approved 1/28/70

§ 15

If there is no suitable eligible list, or if the director is unable to comply with a requisition, he may, subject to § 25, authorize a provisional appointment. A provisional appointment may be authorized pending the establishment of an eligible list.....provided the director shall forthwith make arrangements to establish an eligible list within a year from the date of the approval of the provisional authorization.

F. Conclusion

Even with written commitments in advance from all participating political groups, a commitment by the Governor to implement this program in his 1970 State of the State Address, developed funding mechanisms, and the cooperation of Civil Service in holding state jobs vacant for enrollees of

this program, the program item was never introduced into the budget. Although it was generally agreed among the Program and Policy staff of the Governor that the program "would work," Al Kramer, Chief Advisor, stated, "The program tied too many pieces together - too many agencies would have to work together - and too many political credits would have to be expended to make it work." This is the epitaph of the CCJD program. But, perhaps more politically salient, jobs for the poor and bolstering the economy were not the priority issues for the Governor in 1972.

C H A P T E R V

CONCLUSION

In the early 1900s a young man, who couldn't speak any English, escaped from the Russian oppression of pogroms and immigrated to the United States. When he arrived, he was without work and without "prospects". When asked why he came to this country, he said, "The United States is the land of freedom...the land of opportunity...and I heard the streets were paved with gold." He and others like him have retold the story a thousand times - a story retold so often that it has become legend.

To many immigrants the United States was the land of the free, a country which embraced those driven from their lands...the oppressed. And groups from numerous ethnic backgrounds came in large numbers to this country. They became the source of America's great work force as well as the source of America's many varied political interests. There can be little doubt that such political pluralism has contributed much to the growth of this nation.

Interest groups have made significant contributions to the American political process by "(a) stimulating and formalizing the desires of thousands of American citizens, (b) transmitting these collective desires and aspirations to government at the appropriate level, (c) presenting needed and specialized information to national policy-makers, and (d) maintaining surveillance of policy-making centers so as to protect the interests

of their memberships."¹⁴¹

But with due respect to interest group pressures, specific groups can be successful only as long as their goals are consistent and understandable to those in power - the power elite described by Gabriel Kolko in Wealth and Power in America.

While pluralism has made America strong, there is a built-in prejudice by those in power against the kinds of groups that brought the U.S.A. to greatness, the minorities, Blacks, and lower class whites. The prejudice of those from the white middle-upper class "Protestant Ethic" background includes the following components: "(a) fear of criminals; (b) dislike of people who are dirty and disorderly in public places; (c) dislike of people with whom they could not readily communicate and resentment that these people should replace as neighbors other people with whom they could readily communicate; (d) dislike of people of lower social status; (e) dislike of people of different customs, manners and ways of dress and speech; (f) dislike of people of different physical type; and (g) dislike of people of different skin color."¹⁴²

While strength may be derived from pluralism, the prejudices of those in power negates much of an interest group's influence - particularly where minority interests are concerned.

The situation involving Manpower - Job Opportunity programs is a case in point. Although manpower legislation was well intentioned, strongly ingrained prejudices and resentments by decision-makers made the MDTA

¹⁴¹Mahood, p. 303.

¹⁴²Banfield and Myerson, p. 103.

legislation dysfunctional from the very beginning.

The previous chapter outlined one plan for serious implementation of Manpower program objectives. The plan described was a course of action which could actually "be carried into effect, which could be expected to lead to the ends sought, and which someone (could) intend to carry into effect."¹⁴³ There was no such plan or such planning involving Manpower - Anti-Poverty programs even though leaders representing the interests of the poor voiced strong desires that such planning and commitments should exist. The monetary allocations by the Federal government to Manpower programs constituted a serious lack of commitment by this nation to meet the goals outlined by the 1962 and 1964 acts.

Instead, the Vietnam War became a convenient way to raise the issue of "guns and butter" - making fighting a war vs. aiding the poor the either or choice - and guns won. Vietnam served the ends of the whole public rather than those of some smaller sector of the public. The Vietnam War was seen to be in the Public Interest while Manpower - Anti-Poverty programs were not.¹⁴⁴ But since the Vietnam escapade has wound down, there still has not been any "battered" bread committed to job opportunities and training for those in lower incomes in this society. In truth, economic gains by low income groups have been greatly exaggerated. "Authorities have failed to recognize the serious economic consequences of numerous social and occupational trends that have been developing over the past two decades."¹⁴⁵

¹⁴³ Ibid., p. 312.

¹⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 322.

¹⁴⁵ Kolko, p. 4.

While some may tout the successes associated with the MDTA - EOA legislation, the "basic distribution of income and wealth in the United States is essentially the same now as it was in 1939, or even 1910."¹⁴⁶

The most visible proof that the lack of planning and commitments by Manpower program operatives has resulted in disaster and frustration is the recent dismantling of the Office of Economic Opportunity as well as the eventual demise of many of the Manpower programs funded since 1962.

The Administration's spokesmen promised to undertake and win the war on poverty, to assure every American family an adequate home, to relieve old and poor people of the financial burdens of illness, to widen the educational opportunities of poor children, to speed the integration of the black community into the mainstream of American life, to provide skill training so that men and women on the periphery of the economy could get better jobs. A democracy with a two-party tradition is inured to exaggerated promises and claims, especially in an election year. But the mid-1960's saw the President, his advisors, and the Congressional leadership wantonly blur the distinction between campaign promises and legislative commitments. From one point of view, the Great Society programs were doomed from the moment of their enactment: There was no prospect that any government could deliver on such ambitious promises, certainly not within the time limits that an impatient public would allow.¹⁴⁷

Monies associated with the Department of Labor Manpower programs will eventually be turned over to the states under President Nixon's concept of Special Revenue-Sharing.

The little money that there was for Manpower would, under the revenue-sharing approach, be turned over to the states, with little direction from Washington. In other words, by initiating Manpower revenue-sharing, the President (to paraphrase a Doonesbury cartoon regarding the energy crisis)

¹⁴⁶ Ibid., p. 3.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid., p. xi.

has suddenly decided to announce "that the crisis is no longer a crisis - it is only a problem," and declare the episode closed. The Federal government has merely dumped all the problems associated with jobs and poverty onto the shoulders of the states and cities, which are ill-prepared to deal with them even if there were a mass infusion of financial aid from Washington.

The analysis of the Manpower - Anti-Poverty programs has revealed that the American economic structure, "with its deep entrenched privileges and inequities, cannot be changed, for no socially significant movement in American society today seeks to end Poverty (and job discrimination) by attacking the basic, essential inequality upon which the economy rests.... And it is for this reason that all the bills and measures advocated by political leaders, the unions, and...the civil rights movement, have little chance of altering the structure of poverty."¹⁴⁸

Disastrous tests of limited social conscience and uncommitted public interests, like MDTA and EOA, are the kinds of puffery which are damaging "to the good name of sensible social policy."

The upheavals of the 1960s are easier to comprehend in this context. The public was encouraged to expect great things, became impatient, critical and alienated because the progress achieved fell short of the "rosy promises".¹⁴⁹ Manpower - War on Poverty programs "never commanded resources commensurate with their expressed goals."¹⁵⁰ Until the decision-makers,

¹⁴⁸Ginzberg and Solow, pp. 213-214.

¹⁴⁹Ibid.

¹⁵⁰Ibid., p. 216.

the monied interests, take as much pride and patience in producing successful social programs as they do in the legislation creating them, progressive social-welfare legislation will simply reflect the passing of mood and whimsy on the part of the few who feel entitled to play with the lives of the many.

"The promises were extreme; the specific remedial actions...untested; the finances were grossly inadequate; the political structuring was so vulnerable that it had to be radically reformed within a few years after the program was launched."¹⁵¹ One could say about the Manpower - Poverty programs of the Great Society what "G. B. Shaw said about Christianity: It has not failed; it has never been tried."¹⁵²

¹⁵¹Ibid., p. 219.

¹⁵²Ibid., p. 216.

A P P E N D I X I

MANPOWER PROGRAMS IN MASSACHUSETTS

PROGRAM	COST PER UNIT PER YEAR	NUMBER OF YEARS	ENROLLEE STIPEND	STAFF EXPENSES	OPERATIONAL EXPENSES
PSC	Entry level \$3,000 per person; upgrading trainees \$1,000 per person.	Duration of contract 21 months.	Employer pays salary	Staff and operational expenses which include allowance to cover 156 hours of educational time, cost of purchasing supervisory training through a subcontract, staff salaries, administrative and communication costs, transportation, and other supportive services used by per unit costs for these expenses.	
NEW CAREERS	First year \$4,800 to \$5,500; second year \$2,400 to \$2,750.	2-year contract maximum.	Included in per unit cost.	Included in per unit costs - utilized for same as above.	
OPERATION MAINSTREAM	approximately \$6,660.	1-year contract; contract can be renewed or extended for 1 additional year.	\$2 per hour - maximum of 40 hours per week; also includes physical examinations (\$7-\$15 per person for an examination), wages and transportation for the enrollee.	Includes travel, fringe benefits, project salaries - represents 60% of total Federal share of contract.	Includes travel, project equipment, rents, utilities, travel, communication, and postage.

PROGRAM	COST PER UNIT PER YEAR	NUMBER OF YEARS	ENROLLEE STIPEND	STAFF EXPENSES	OPERATIONAL EXPENSES
JOPS (NAB)	Reimbursable training contract pays between \$19 - \$25 a day (\$4,950 - \$6,250).	1-2 years - renewable contract after first year.	Included in per unit costs.	Included in per unit costs, and included extraordinary expenses incurred for training a disadvantaged individual including the following coverage: special counselling, supervisory sensitivity, transportation for enrollee, child care and medical care, and administrative costs of contractors (reports, records).	
JOPS (Job Opportunities in the Private Sector) formerly OJT. DES sponsors program and at least 50% of enrollees must be disadvantaged.	Reimbursable to employer - 50% of salaries (up to \$3,500 per year).	1 year.	Paid by employer.	Paid by employer.	Paid by employer.
WIN (1 year of day care provided by Welfare after training).	Approximately \$3,000 per year.	2 years.	Included in per unit costs.	Included in per unit costs approximately/ represents 60% of total Federal share of contract.	Included in per unit costs (Welfare Department provides allowances for child care, transportation, and medical

PROGRAM	COST PER UNIT PER YEAR	NUMBER OF YEARS	ENROLLEE STIPEND	STAFF EXPENSES	OPERATIONAL EXPENSES
STEP (Supple- mental Training Employment Program)	\$4,200 - \$4,500 per year pro- rated.	26 consecutive weeks.	Included in per unit costs.	.Included in per unit costs (allowance to state E. S. agen- cy for staff time).	Included in per unit costs (post- age, trans- portation, etc.).
NYC	In-school program \$1,100; out-of-school program \$2,200.	2-years maximum participation in out-of-school program.	NYC summer pro- gram - \$1.60 per hour; 26 hours per week maximum; time 9 weeks - total <u>\$422</u> per summer. NYC in-school program - (\$1.60 per hour; 10-12 hours per week maximum for a period of 9 months excluding vacations) - total <u>\$630</u> .	Included in per unit costs/ represents 60% of total Federal share con- tract which goes to enrollee stipend.	Included in per unit costs.
			NYC out-of-school program - maximum participation of 12 months.		

PROGRAM	COST PER UNIT PER YEAR	NUMBER OF YEARS	ENROLLEE STIPEND	STAFF EXPENSES	OPERATIONAL EXPENSES
JOB CORPS	\$5,200 per unit cost covers <u>all</u> related costs (including food, clothing, sleep- ing quarters, recreation, classroom in- struction).	1-year/maximum participation of 2 years.	Included in per unit costs.	Included in per unit costs.	Included in per unit costs.
MDTA	Similar to the JOBS program/\$19- \$25 a day reim- bursement for training.	1-2 years (re- newable con- tract after first year).	Included in per unit costs (65% must be disad- vantaged; MDTA does <u>not</u> require a sponsor's con- tribution, cash or in-kind, of 10%).	Included in per unit costs (in- clude ad- ministration of con- tractors, special coun- selling, supervisory sensitivity training and child care.	Included in per unit costs (medi- cal, post- age, com- munications, transporta- tion, etc.).

OPERATION MAINSTREAM SPONSORS LISTING

STATE Massachusetts

	Slots	Funding	Slot Cost	Dates
CP-0623 Mr. Walter Williams, CEP Director Action for Boston Community Development, Inc. 150 Tremont Street Boston, Massachusetts 02111 Kenneth I. Guscott, Signator	100 85-90 filled	\$448,710 CEP	\$4487	9/1/71 to 8/31/72
M1-1023-25 Mr. Robert M. Coard, Director Action for Boston Community Development, Inc. 150 Tremont Street Boston, Massachusetts 02111 Robert M. Coard, Signator	12 35 12 14 filled	\$ 53,351 SMP	\$1905	1/1/71 to 12/31/71
M1-1031-25 Mr. Frank Clark, Director City of Boston Parks and Recreation Department One City Hall Square Boston, Massachusetts 02201 Joseph E. Curtis, Signator	11 3 filled	\$ 50,000 SMP	\$4545	3/1/71 to 12/1/71
M1-1025-25 Mr. William F. Martin, Director North Shore Community Action Program, Inc. 236R Cabot Street Beverly, Massachusetts 01915 William F. Martin, Signator	17 14 filled	\$ 75,000 SMP	\$4411	2/15/71 to 2/14/72
M1-1084-25 Mr. Robert P. Renaud, Director Self-Help, Inc. 71 Center Street Brockton, Massachusetts 02401 Lawrence E. Zuk, Signator	40 40 filled	\$184,000 Regular OM	\$4600	7/20/71 to 7/12/72

	Slots	Funding	Slot Cost	Dates
M1-1022-25 Mr. Robert P. Renaud, Director Self-Help, Inc. 196 Main Street Brockton, Massachusetts 02401 Lawrence E. Zuk, Signator	24 25 filled	\$137,440 SMP	\$5726	1/1/71 to 1/1/72
M1-1020-25 Mr. John H. Corcoran, Director Office of City Manager City Hall Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139 John H. Corcoran, Signator	27 27 filled	\$ 75,000 SMP	\$2777	1/18/71 to 10/28/71
M1-1019-25 Mr. Thomas J. Kerrins, Jr., Director Community Action Programs Inter-City, Inc. c/o Williams School 176 Walnut Street Chelsea, Massachusetts 02150 Edward Greenberg, Signator	43 43 filled	\$150,000 SMP	\$3488	2/15/71 to 11/12/71
M1-1003-25 Mr. William Ferreira, Director Community & Regional Opportunity Program 161 School Street Chicopee, Massachusetts 01020 Mary V. Malfas, Signator	50 50 filled	\$190,000 Regular OM	\$3800	8/27/70 to 8/25/71
M1-1003-25 Mod. 1 Mr. William Ferreira, Director Community & Regional Opportunity Program 161 School Street Chicopee, Massachusetts 01020 Mary V. Malfas, Signator	55 94 filled	\$158,360 SMP	\$2879	1/4/71 to 8/25/71
M1-1028-25 Mr. Paul Houlihan, Director South Middlesex Opportunity Council, Inc. 31 Hoolis Street Framingham, Massachusetts 01701 Paul Houlihan, Signator	42 37 filled	\$120,000 SMP	\$2857	3/1/71 to 9/24/71

	Slots	Funding	Slot Cost	Dates
M1-1027-25 Mr. Ross A. Burton, Director Action, Inc. 24 Elm Street Gloucester, Massachusetts 01930 Ernestine R. Friend, Signator	17 18 filled	\$ 90,000	\$5294	1/15/71 to 1/15/72
M1-1009-25 Mr. Phillip Laverriere, Director Greater Lawrence Community Action Council, Inc. 301 Essex Street Lawrence, Massachusetts 08140 George A. Stella, Signator	42 56 filled	\$214,000 SMP	\$5095	1/1/71 to 12/31/71
M1-1026-25 Mr. Robert A. Simoneau, Director Lynn Economic Opportunity, Inc. 360 Washington Street Lynn, Massachusetts 01901 Laurence L. Johnson, Signator	20 22 filled	\$ 75,000 SMP	\$3750	2/15/71 to 8/14/71
CP-0615 Mr. Richard McMahon, CEP Director Community Teamwork, Inc. 10 Bridge Street Lowell, Massachusetts 01852 Agnes D. Davis, Signator	30 20 filled	\$ 81,559 Regular OM	\$2718	1/1/71 to 12/31/71
M1-1008-25 Mr. Leo F. Desjarlais, CAP Director Community Teamwork, Inc. 10 Bridge Street Lowell, Massachusetts 01852 Ellen A. Sampson, Signator	100 100 filled	\$275,000 SMP	\$2750	1/1/71 to 12/31/71
M1-1004-25 Mr. Adalberto O. Nereu, Director Onboard, Inc. 1215 Purchase Street New Bedford, Massachusetts 02740 Donald Gomes, Signator	20 20 filled	\$ 76,000 Regular OM	\$3800	8/25/70 to 8/24/71

	Slots	Funding	Slot Cost	Dates
CP-0603 Mr. Adalberto O. Nereu, Director Onboard, Inc. 1215 Purchase Street New Bedford, Massachusetts 02740 Donald Gomes, Signator	70 58 filled capac. 70	\$153,779 CEP	\$3255	10/68 to 11/1/71
M1-1024-25 Mr. Geoffrev A. Davidson, Director City of Quincy City Hall Quincy, Massachusetts 02169 James R. McIntyre, Signator	60 56 filled	\$149,670 SMP	\$2494	2/1/71 to 9/10/71
M1-1021-25 Mr. Richard Cannon, Director Eastern Middlesex Opportunities Council, Inc. 57 Union Square Somerville, Massachusetts 02143 Melvin H. Shea, Signator	13 13 filled	\$ 75,000	\$5769	2/1/71 to 1/31/72
CP-0650 Mr. Robert W. Upshur Springfield Action Commission, Inc. 11 Eastern Ave. Springfield, Massachusetts 01109 Robert W. Upshur, Signator	37 30 filled	\$ 63,696 Regular OM	\$1721	12/1/70 to 11/30/71
M1-1010-25 Mr. Robert W. Upshur Springfield Action Commission, Inc. 11 Eastern Ave. Springfield, Massachusetts 01109 Robert W. Upshur, Signator	228 151 filled at capacity due to nature of contract	\$259,990 SMP	\$1140	1/4/71 to 1/4/72
M1-0011-23 Mr. Frank B. James Federated Eastern Indian League Box 108 - 1440 Building West Chatham, Massachusetts 02669 Frank B. James, Signator	60 54 filled	\$378,000 Regular OM	\$4200	7/1/70 to 1/1/72
M1-1011-25 City of Worcester 455 Main Street Worcester, Massachusetts 01608	45 40 filled	\$118,650 SMP	\$2636	1/25/71 to 8/20/71

NEW CAREERS SPONSORS LISTING
STATE Massachusetts

	Slots	Funding	Slot Cost	Dates
CP-0623 Mr. Robert Hill, Director Action for Boston Community Development, Inc. 150 Tremont Street Boston, Massachusetts 02111 Kenneth I. Guscott, Signator	180 135-140 filled	\$912,150 CEP	\$5067	9/1/71 to 8/31/72
N1-1036-25 Mr. Warren S. Fury, Director Self-Help, Inc. 196 Main Street Brockton, Massachusetts 02401 Lawrence E. Zuk, Signator	20 0 filled terminating contract new contract to begin Aug. 2, 1971	\$143,140 NC	\$7157	7/1/71 to 6/30/72
N1-1030-25 Mr. Gordon F. Jones, Director Massachusetts Inst. of Technology 77 Massachusetts Avenue Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139 John M. Wynne, Signator	23 23 filled	\$106,970 SMP	\$4650	4/12/71 to 4/12/72
CP-0603 Mr. Richard McMahon, CEP Director Community Teamwork, Inc. 10 Bridge Street Lowell, Massachusetts 01852 Agnes D. Davis, Signator	60 45 filled	\$158,684 CEP	\$2644	1/1/71 to 12/31/71
CP-0603 Miss Denise Nunes, Director Onboard, Inc. 1215 Purchase Street New Bedford, Massachusetts 02740 Donald Gomes, Signator	50 35 filled capacity 45	\$262,600 CEP	\$5255	10/68 to 11/1/71
CP-0650 Mr. Robert W. Upshur Springfield Action Commission, Inc. 11 Eastern Avenue Springfield, Massachusetts 01109 Robert W. Upshur, Signator	50 0 filled contract being terminated	\$130,593	\$2611	12/1/71 to 11/30/72

SELECTED TRAINING PROGRAMS CONDUCTED UNDER THE
MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT IN CEP AREAS

OCCUPATION	SLOTS		COMPLETED	%	DROPPED		STILL ENROLLED
	APPROVED	ENROLLED			OUT	EMPLOYED	
Clerk-Typist	525	713	536	75.17	177	97	
"	84	84	53	63.09	19	27	12
"	60	64	38	59.37	6	16	20
Total	669	861	627	72.82	202	140	32
Auto Mechanic	146	202	102	50.49	55	4	45
"	16	16	5	31.25	11		
"	84	94	67	71.27	27	41	--
Total	246	312	174	55.76	93	45	45
Communication Skills*	216	232	173	74.56	59**		
Basic Education*	540	755	500	66.22	255	21	
" *	480	655	263	40.15	395	1	
Total	1,020	1,410	763	54.11	650**	22	
Employment Orientation Special Youth	48	43	30	69.76	13**		
Pre-Vocational	348	571	128	22.41	174	13	219
"	480	836	380	45.45	216	--	242
Total	828	1,407	508	36.10	390**	13	461

* Open-ended

** Includes transfers to Occupational Training Programs

BOSTON

OCCUPATION	APPROVED	ENROLLED	COMPLETED	DROPPED	
				OUT	EMPLOYED
Clerk-typist	60	62	49	13	
Clerk-typist	45	45	35	10	
Clerk-typist	80	69	59	10	
Clerk-typist	80	80	55	25	
Clerk-typist	100	100	75	25	
Clerk-typist	160	357	263	94	97
Auto Mechanic	36	33	20	13	
Auto Mechanic	15	15	11	4	
Auto Mechanic	15	15	11	4	
Auto Mechanic	16	17	14	3	
Auto Mechanic	16	45	34	11	
Auto Mechanic**	16	24		8	16 still enrolled
Auto Mechanic**	32	53	12	12	4 employed 29 still enrolled
Communication Skills*	96	79	69	10	
Communication Skills	84	115	68	47	
Communication Skills	36	38	36	2	
Basic Education*	180	306	230	76	
Basic Education*	360	449	270	179	21
Employment Orientation	48	43	30	13	
Special Youth					
Pre-Vocational**	24	22	11	13	Not completed
Pre-Vocational*	204	436	309	127	
Pre-Vocational**	48	68		18	50 still enrolled
Pre-Vocational**	204	310	60	58	192 still enrolled

* Open-ended

** Still in Operation

SPRINGFIELD

OCCUPATION	APPROVED	ENROLLED	COMPLETED	DROPPED OUT	EMPLOYED
Orient. Basic Education	48	71	42	29	
Orient. Basic Education	72	197	127	70	
Orient. Basic Education	60	156	96	60	1
Auto Mechanic	16	16	5	11	
Basic Education	96	190	85	105	
Basic Education	192	233	83	150	
Basic Education	192	232	95	140	1
Pre-Vocational*	96	200	119	81	10
Pre-Vocational**	24	41	2	17	22 still enrolled
Pre-Vocational**	24	53	2	21	2
Pre-Vocational**	48	74	1	18	28 still enrolled
Pre-Vocational**	24	41		11	1
Pre-Vocational**	84	102	4	14	55 still enrolled
Pre-Vocational*	48	60		12	30 still enrolled
Pre-Vocational*					84 still enrolled

* Open-ended

** Still in Operation

NEW BEDFORD

OCCUPATION	APPROVED	ENROLLED	COMPLETED	DROPPED	
				OUT	EMPLOYED
Auto Mechanic	20	22	18	4	
Auto Mechanic	16	21	12	9	9
Auto Mechanic	16	18	10	8	8
Auto Mechanic	16	16	14	2	11
Auto Mechanic	16	17	13	4	13
Clerk-typist	20	20	16	4	10
Clerk-typist	16	16	14	2	
Clerk-typist	16	16	11	5	7
Clerk-typist	16	16	12	4	10
Clerk-typist**	16	16		4	12 still enrolled

** Still in Operation

LOWELL

OCCUPATION	APPROVED	ENROLLED	COMPLETED	DROPPED OUT	EMPLOYED
Clerk-typist	20	21	19	2	3
Clerk-typist**	40	43	19	4	20 still enrolled

** Still in Operation

APPENDIX II

Structure - Manpower

The revised structure:

National Manpower Coordinating Committee	(NMCC)
Regional Manpower Coordinating Committees	(RMCC)
State Manpower Planning Councils	(SMPC)
Ancillary Manpower Planning Boards	(AMPB)
Area Manpower Planning Councils	(AMPC)

State Manpower Planning Councils

The councils will be the creations of the Governor and will operate under his auspices. The Ancillary Manpower Planning Boards will operate in such areas as the Governor deems appropriate. These boards will be locally based geographical subcouncils of the State Council, called into existence by the Governor after consultation with the heads of the affected jurisdictions and the RMCC. The boundaries of existing planning areas, such as unified state planning districts, EDA districts, and existing CAMPS areas should be fully considered. The Governor will plan for state-wide manpower and manpower-related programs which are not subject to the authority of local officials or sponsors and for the "balance of the State" not covered by designated area councils.

Area Manpower Planning Councils

Designation of areas to be covered by the AMPC's will be the responsibility of RMCC's, in consultation with the Governor and heads of appropriate local jurisdictions.

Areas will be selected from the following types:

1. Those in which the mayor or other chief executive has been receiving a CAMPS grant for manpower planning staff.
2. Those which contain a city of at least 100,000 people.
3. Those which, in the judgment of the RMA, are likely to be served by a prime sponsor as this mode of program management becomes more widely established.

The areas are intended to cover a substantial portion of a functional labor market area. SMSA and manpower planning council area lines should be coterminous wherever possible. Final decisions on disputed area lines will be made by the chairman of the RMCC.

Functions

Area Council:

The mayor, through the AMPC, is to prepare the comprehensive area manpower plan. The components of the plan will be:

1. The assessment of needs for and present availability of manpower services within the area.
2. A statement of priorities among types of services to meet the needs and populations to be served.
3. Recommendation for program funding.

The plan should describe the optimal program mix to meet the need for services, without particular regard to the existing mix of programs. The AMPC will continue to provide a review of manpower program operations and share information.

The flow of area plans is as follows:

The AMPC will guide the secretariat staff in preparing the plan for the mayor who convened the council. When the mayor approves the plan, he

submits it to both the Regional Manpower Coordinating Committee and the State Manpower Planning Council. The SMPC reviews and comments on the area plan, and submits its findings to the Governor, who reviews them and forwards comments to the RMCC. A copy of these comments will be made available at the same time to the initiator of the plan. The RMCC will consider these comments in conjunction with its reviews of the area plan. It will also negotiate any necessary changes that are resolved through discussions (initiated by the Governor) between the SMPC and the local executive who initiated the plan. The RMCC approved plans will be utilized by the funding agencies (including the State MDTA Operations Committees) in developing their plans and funding decisions.

State

The State Council will guide the secretariat staff in developing the state manpower plan for the Governor. This will involve:

1. assessment of needs
2. setting of priorities of services to meet these needs for specialized state-wide program efforts
3. ancillary areas included in the "balance of the state"
4. recommended funding plan

The Council will further:

1. review and comment on the plans submitted by the mayors
2. insure that the portions of the "balance of the state" plan which cover the surrounding region are in harmony with and support the plan for the subject area
3. responsibility for providing technical assistance and secretariat support to ancillary planning boards

Region

Specific functions of the RMCC include:

1. review and approval of Governor's and Mayors' plans
2. mediation of differences between Mayors' plans and Governor's comments on them
3. technical assistance to state and area planners
4. recommending action to funding agencies
5. maintaining up-to-date and integrated state area plans
6. acting as appeal authority

State and Area plans must be presented at an appropriate point in the management cycle before decisions are made. As a general rule, plans must be completed by mid-April. It is anticipated that this opportunity should be readily accepted, and the FY 1975 plans (though perhaps lacking the depth of analysis normally desired) will be submitted within this time frame.

A P P E N D I X I I I

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL AND MINORITY GROUP EMPLOYEES BY JOB GROUPS

STATEWIDE - 1965

JOB GROUPS	% TOTAL MALES	% BLACK MALES	% OTHER MINORITY MALES	% TOTAL FEMALES	% BLACK FEMALES	% OTHER MINORITY FEMALES	TOTAL EMPLOYEES
01-05P	14.6	41.1	12.0	42.8	49.4	49.3	26.8
06-10P	35.8	34.4	31.2	39.5	43.2	21.9	37.6
11-14P	26.1	15.2	12.6	10.9	6.5	5.5	19.5
15-10P	10.8	3.3	16.4	2.3	0.4	5.5	7.2
20-23P	2.3	1.1	1.6	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.4
24-27P	1.8	1.3	11.4	0.2	0.1	6.8	1.1
28-30P	0.5	0.2	1.1	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.3
31-34P	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
35-OVER	8.0	3.1	13.7	3.7	0.5	10.9	6.1
	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.1	100.1	99.9	100.1
% OF TOTAL EMPLOYEES	56.8	1.1	0.4	43.2	2.3	0.2	100.1

SOURCE: "SURVEY OF MINORITY GROUP EMPLOYMENT IN THE GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS," PREPARED BY THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL COMMITTEE ON FAIR PRACTICES IN GOVERNMENT, AUGUST 1966

PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF MINORITY GROUP
EMPLOYMENT BY DEPARTMENT, 1965 AND 1970

<u>DEPARTMENT</u>	TOTAL	<u>1965</u> MINORITY	PERCENTAGE	TOTAL	<u>1970</u> MINORITY	PERCENTAGE
ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE, DEPT.	618	21	3.4	1006	44	4.4
AGRICULTURE, DEPT.	125	0	0	102	NOT AVAILABLE	NOT AVAILABLE
BANKING AND INSURANCE	505	9	1.8	355 (DIV. OF INSURANCE)	7	2.1
CIVIL SERVICE AND REGISTRATION	344	22	6.4	448	33	7.4
COMMERCE AND DEVELOPMENT	155	4	2.6	83	3	3.6
CORPORATIONS AND TAXATION	907	42	4.6	1008*	63	6.3
CORRECTIONS	1747	28	1.6	1637	85	5.2
DIVISION OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY	2420	151	6.3	2897	226	7.8
EDUCATION, DEPT. ADMINISTRATION	540	20	3.7	568	86	15.1
STATE COLLEGES	1248	21	1.7	2689	74	2.8
LOWELL TECH	277	12	4.4	463	15	3.2
SNU	176	8	4.5	401	24	6.0
U. OF MASS.	2661	43	1.6	5506	154	2.8
COMMUNITY COLLEGES	409	7	1.7	1404	57	4.1

* INDICATES EMPLOYMENT NUMBERS SUBMITTED BY DEPARTMENT ARE LESS THAN TOTAL AUTHORIZED PERSONNEL

PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF MINORITY GROUP
EMPLOYMENT BY DEPARTMENT, 1965 AND 1970 (cont.)

DEPARTMENT	1965		1970		PERCENTAGE
	TOTAL	MINORITY	TOTAL	MINORITY	
MENTAL HEALTH, DEPT.					
ADMINISTRATION	719	33	665	55	8.3
MASS. MENTAL HEALTH CENTER	266	25	336	10	3.0
BOSTON STATE HOSPITAL	1187	401	1332	366	27.5
DANVERS HOSPITAL	841	4	907	8	.9
FOXBOROUGH "	494	17	575	25	4.3
GARDNER "	487	4	540	10	1.9
GRAFTON "	544	5	583	26	4.5
MEDFIELD "	676	5	713	20	2.8
METROPOLITAN "	705	25	785	92	11.7
MONSON "	689	69	708	80	11.3
NORTHAMPTON "	742	4	938	20	2.1
TAUNTON "	798	77	832	71	8.5
WESTBOROUGH "	728	33	877	60	6.8
WORCESTER "	1011	31	1095	40	3.6
BELCHERTOWN					
STATE SCHOOL	564	3	636	8	1.3
WALTER FERNALD	966	54	1126	179	15.9
PAUL DEVER	718	15	883	26	2.9
WRENTHAM	760	4	902	15	1.7
METROPOLITAN DISTRICT COMMISSION	2521	39	2938	51	1.7
MOTOR VEHICLES REGISTRY	1210	48	1551	71	4.6

PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF MINORITY GROUP
EMPLOYMENT BY DEPARTMENT, 1965 AND 1970 (cont.).

<u>DEPARTMENT</u>	TOTAL	1965 MINORITY	PERCENTAGE	TOTAL	1970 MINORITY	PERCENTAGE
NATURAL RESOURCES, DEPT.	384	6	1.6	827	5	.6
PUBLIC HEALTH, DEPT.	3384	156	4.6	3419*	230	6.7
PUBLIC SAFETY, DEPT.	957	9	.9	769	14	1.8
PUBLIC UTILITIES, DEPT.	110	1	.9	125	5	4.0
PUBLIC WELFARE, DEPT.	644	21	3.2	5266*	269	5.1
PUBLIC WORKS, DEPT.	4748	103	2.1	4760*	105	2.2
MASS. PORT AUTHORITY	340	2	.6	539	4	.7
MASS. TURNPIKE AUTHORITY		NOT AVAILABLE		963	35	3.6
YOUTH SERVICES, DEPT.	712	21	2.9	845	38	4.5

SOURCES: 1965 - "SURVEY OF MINORITY GROUP EMPLOYMENT IN THE GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS," PREPARED BY THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL COMMITTEE ON FAIR PRACTICES IN GOVERNMENT, AUGUST 1966

1970 - "REPORT OF 1970 MINORITY EMPLOYMENT IN MASSACHUSETTS STATE SERVICE," MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION AGAINST DISCRIMINATION, JULY 30, 1971.

A P P E N D I X I V

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM ALREADY IN
COMMUNITY COLLEGES

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.) ESTAB-
LISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Computer Technicians:

Computer and Console Operators

Supervisor, Computer Operations
(clerical)
Digital-Computer Operator
(clerical)

Programmers

Programmer, Chief
Business (profes. and kin.)
Programmer, Business (profes.
and kin.)

Physical Education Technicians:

Educational Assistants and Training
Specialists

Director, Educational (education)
Director, Safety (education)
Supervisor, Training (education)
Director, Sales Education (educa-
tion)
Training Representative (educa-
tion)

Television Technicians:

Radio/Television

Radio Repairman (any ind.)
Television Service and Repairman
(any ind.)
Television Service and Repairman
(any ind.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Secretaries:

Secretaries

Social Secretary (clerical)
 Legal Secretary (clerical)
 Medical Secretary (clerical)
 Secretary (clerical)

Assorted Laboratory Technicians:

Medical Laboratory Assistant

Biochemistry Technologist
 (medical ser.)
 Medical Technologist (medical
 ser.)
 Microbiology Technologist (drug
 prep. and rel. prod.)
 Medical Laboratory Assistant
 (medical ser.)
 Laboratory Assistant, Plasma
 Drawing-Off (drug, prep. and
 rel. prod.)

Student Activity Technicians:Educational Assistants and
Training Specialists

Director, Educational (education)
 Director, Safety (education)
 Supervisor, Training (education)
 Director, Sales Education (educa-
 tion)
 Training Representative (educa-
 tion)

Outreach Personnel (Recruiting):

Personnel Assistants

Director, Industrial Relations
 (prof. and kin.)
 Manager, Personnel (prof. and
 kin.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Benefits-and-Service-Records
 Supervisor (any ind.)
 Director of Placement (education)
 Manager, Employment (prof. and
 kin.)
 Personnel Clerk Supervisor
 (clerical)
 Supervisor, Force Adjustment
 (tel. and tel.)
 Travel Clerk (gov. ser.)
 Agent Contract Clerk (insurance)
 Employment Clerk (clerical)
 Investigator (any ind.)
 Personnel Clerk (clerical)
 Identification Clerk (clerical)
 Social Security Clerk (clerical)
 Supervisor, Contingents (ret.
 tr.)
 Civil Service Clerk (gov. ser.)

Credit Analyst, Chief (banking)
 Director, Utility Accounts (gov.
 ser.)
 Estimator (prof. and kin.)
 Lister (woodworking)

Carpet Layer (ret. tr.)
 Machinery Erector (engine &
 turbine; mach. mfg.)
 Manufacturers' Service Repre-
 sentative (mach. mfg.; mech.
 tool & access.)

Junior Accountant:

Accountants

Plant Maintenance & Management Personnel:

Construction and Maintenance Trades,
 Other

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Construction and Maintenance Trades,
Other (continued)

Millwright (any ind.)
Assembler, Mining Machinery
(mach. mfg.)
Structural Steel Worker (const.)
Assembler (light, heat and power)
Assembler (light, heat and const.)
Linerman (mining and quarrying,
ore dress., smelt. and refin.)
Reinforcing-Iron Worker (const.)
Structural Steel Worker Helper
(const.)
Duct Installer (const.)
Boilermaker Foreman (boilermaking)
Boiler Repair Foreman (any ind.)
Boilermaker (boilermaking) I
Boilermaker Apprentice (boiler-
making)
Boilerhouse Repairman (any ind.)
Boilermaker Fitter (boilermaking)
Boilerhouse Inspector (any ind.)
Boilermaker Mechanic (boiler-
making)
Boilermaker Helper (boilermaking) I
Rigger (ship and boat bldg. and
rep.)
Ornamental Iron Worker (const.)
Elevator Examiner & Adjuster (any
ind.)
Elevator Constructor (const.)
Elevator Constructor Helper
(const.)
Elevator Repairman Helper (any
ind.)
Concrete Stone Finisher (conc.
prod.)
Cement Mason (const.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Construction and Maintenance Trades,
Other (continued)

Cement Mason Apprentice (const.)
Concrete Rubber (conc. prod.;
const.)
Cement Mason Helper (const.)
Concrete Vibrator Operator (const.)
Miner (const.)
Cement Mason, Highways and Streets
(const.)
Form Setter, Metal Roadforms
(const.)
Asphalt Planer Operator (const.)
Asphalt Raker (const.)
Asphalt Heater Man (const.)
Cold-Patch Man (const.)
Blaster (any ind.)
Bootman (const.)
Blaster Helper (any ind.)
Pipe Coverer and Insulator (ship
& boat bldg. and rep.)
Cork Insulator, Interior Surface
(const.)
Insulation Blanket Maker (pipe and
boiler cov.)
Composition Weatherboard Applier
(const.)
Fireproofing Man (light, heat and
power)
Insulation Houseman (const., ret.
tr.; whole tr.)
Insulation Installer (const.)
Insulation Worker (const.)
Sider (const.; ret. tr.)
Floor Layer (const.; ret. tr.)
House Mover (const.)
Measureman (struc. & ornam. metal-
work)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Construction and Maintenance Trades,
Other (continued)

Fence Erector (const.)
Joist Setter, Adjustable Steel
(const.)
Rig Builder (petrol. production)
Wrecker (const.)
Building Cleaner, Sandblaster
(const.)
Building Cleaner, Steam (const.)

Security Personnel:

Police (Law Enforcement and Corrections)
Science Technology

Law Enforcement Training

Police Chief (gov. ser.)
Desk Officer (gov. ser.)
Desk Officer, Chief (gov. ser.)
Commanding Officer, Homicide Squad
(gov. ser.)
Commanding Off., Investigation
Div. (gov. ser.)
Commanding Off., Harbor Police
(gov. ser.)
Commanding Officer, Motor Equip-
ment (gov. ser.)
Commanding Off., Motorcycle Squad
(gov. ser.)
Detective Chief (gov. ser.)
Harbor Master (gov. ser.)
Matron, Head (gov. ser.)
Pilot, Highway Patrol (gov. ser.)
Police Captain, Precinct (gov.
ser.)
Police Lieutenant, Precinct (gov.
ser.) I

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Traffic Lieutenant (gov. ser.)
Traffic Sergeant (gov. ser.)
Police Academy Instructor (gov. ser.)
Accident Prevention Squad Patrolman (gov. ser.)
Homicide Squad Patrolman (gov. ser.)
Investigator, Narcotics (gov. ser.)
Patrol Conductor (gov. ser.)
Patrolman (gov. ser.)
Police Inspector (gov. ser.) I
Policewoman (gov. ser.)
State Highway Patrolman (gov. ser.)
Vice-Squad Patrolman (gov. ser.)
Fingerprint Classifier (gov. ser.)
Parking Enforcement Officer (gov. ser.)
Border Patrolman (gov. ser.)
Matron (gov. ser.) II
Detective (bus. ser.)
Shopping Investigator (bus. ser.)
Alarm Investigator (any ind.)
Detective (any ind.) I
Detective (any ind.) II
Floorman (amuse. and rec.) I
House Officer (hotel and rest.)
Investigator (light, heat and power)
Patrolman (r.r. trans.)
Store Detective (ret. tr.)
Undercover Operator (ret. tr.)
Bailiff (gov. ser.)
Sheriff, Deputy (gov. ser.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Library Assistant:

Educational Assistants and
Training Specialists

Director, Educational (education)
Director, Safety (education)
Supervisor, Training (education)
Director, Sales Education (educa-
tion)
Training Representative (educa-
tion)

Landscape Technician:

Landscaping

Landscape Gardener (agric.)
Grounds Keeper (any ind.)

Community Service Personnel:

Community Health Aid

Audio Visual Aide:

Communications

Hearing Aid Repairman (any ind.)
Instrument Shopman (tel. and tel.)
Assembler (tel. and tel.)
Wireman, Cable (elec. equip.)
Automatic Equipment Technician
Central Office Repairman (tel. and
tel.)
Combination Man (tel. and tel.)
Communication Engineer (light,
heat and power)
Communication Man (any ind.)
Electrician, Office (tel. and tel.)
Equipment Inspector (tel. and tel.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Communications (continued)

Maintenance Inspector (tel. and tel.)
 Mechanician, Submarine Cable Equip. (tel. and tel.)
 Private Branch Exchange Repairman (tel. and tel.)
 Station Repairman (tel. and tel.)
 Testing & Regulating Repairman (tel. and tel.)
 Central Office Installer (tel. and tel.)
 Equipment Installer (tel. and tel.) I
 Private Branch Exch. Installer (tel. and tel.)
 Protective Signal Installer (bus. ser.)
 Station Installer (tel. and tel.)
 Telegraph Plant Maintainer (tel. and tel.)
 Telephone Inspector (tel. and tel.)
 Test Deskman (tel. and tel.)
 Sound Technician (any ind.)

Staff Assistant for Development:

Educational Assistants and
 Training Specialists

Director, Educational (education)
 Director, Safety (education)
 Supervisor, Training (education)
 Director, Sales Education (education)
 Training Representative (education)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Staff Assistant for Finance and Grants:

Educational Assistants and
Training Specialists

Director, Educational (education)
Director, Safety (education)
Supervisor, Training (education)
Director, Sales Education (educa-
tion)
Training Representative (educa-
tion)

Staff Assistant for Academic Affairs:

Educational Assistants and
Training Specialists

SAME AS ABOVE

News Release and Public Relations Assistant:

Information Communications Occupations

Staff Assistants for Scheduling Meetings & Activities:

Educational Assistants and
Training Specialists

SAME AS ABOVE

Personnel, Training and Related Occupations

Assistants for Business Operations:
(financial trainees to work with Bursars)

Cashiers

Money-Room Man, Head (amuse and
rec.)
Supervisor, Cashiers (light, heat
and power)
Cashier (clerical) I
Cashier, Currency Exchange (bus.
ser.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Cashiers (continued)

Cashier, Gambling (amuse. and rec.)
 Cashier Wrapper (ret. tr.)
 Change-Booth Man (amuse. and rec.)
 Drivers'-Cash Clerk (motor trans.)
 Parimutual-Ticket Cashier (amuse. and rec.)
 Sheet Writer (amuse. and rec.) I
 Station Agent (r.r. trans.) II
 Teller (light, heat and power)
 Money Counter (ret. tr.; whole. tr.)
 Money Counter (amuse. and rec.)

Graduates of L.P.N. Programs to Augment Health Programs of the State Colleges:

Nursing

Nurse Anesthetist (medical ser.)

Nursing (Associate Degree)

Nurse, General Duty (med. ser.)
 Nurse, Private Duty (med. ser.)
 Nurse, Staff, Occupational Health Nursing (med. ser.)
 Nurse, Midwife (med. ser.)
 Nurse, Licensed Practical (med. ser.)

Practical (Vocational Nursing)

Midwife (med. ser.)
 Nurse, Practical (med. ser.)

Surgical Technician
(Operating Room Technician)

Surgical Technician (med. ser.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Career Counselors (to study manpower trends):

Interviewers and Test Technicians

Job Analyst (prof. and kin.)
 Position Classifier (gov. ser.)
 Employment Interviewer (prof. and kin.) I
 Employment Interviewer (prof. and kin.) II
 Personnel Recruiter (prof. and kin.)
 Placement Officer (education)
 Claims Taker, Unemployment Benefits (gov. ser.)
 Grading Clerk (education)
 Test Technician (clerical)

Personnel Assistants

Director, Industrial Relations (prof. and kin.)
 Manager, Personnel (prof. and kin.)
 Benefits-and-Service-Records Supervisor (any ind.)
 Director, Placement (education)
 Manager, Employment (prof. and kin.)
 Personnel Clerk Supervisor (clerical)
 Supervisor, Force Adjustment (tel. and tel.)
 Travel Clerk (gov. ser.)
 Agent Contract Clerk (insurance)
 Employment Clerk (clerical)
 Investigator (any ind.) I
 Personnel Clerk (clerical)
 Identification Clerk (clerical)
 Social Security Clerk (clerical)
 Supervisor, Contingents (ret. tr.)

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMCommunity Mental Health Technology:

Mental Health Technician

Mental Health Technology

Mental Health Technology, Other

Fire Science Technology:

Fire and Fire Safety Technology

Fireman Training

Fire Prevention Research Eng.
(prof. and kin.)

Fire Chief (gov. ser.)

Battalion Chief (gov. ser.)

Captain, Fire Captain (gov. ser.)

Fire Inspector (gov. ser.)

Fire Marshall (any ind.)

Fire Fighter, Crash (air trans.)

Fire Fighter (any ind.)

Fire Inspector (any ind.)

Graphic Design:

Graphic Art Occupations

Graphic Arts, Other

Foreman, Printing Shop (print.)
Production Supervisor (print. and
pub.)Production Superintendent (any
ind.)

Estimator (print. and pub.)

Serviceman, Electrototype (print.
and pub.)

Dye Mounter (paper goods)

Cut & Print Machine Operator
(ammunition)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Graphic Arts, Other (continued)

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Embossing Press Operator (print. and pub.) I
and pub.)
Ruling Machine Operator (paper
good; print. and pub.)
Sign Writer, Machine (any ind.)
Engraver (print. and pub.) I

Photography:

Photographic Laboratory and
Darkroom Occupations

Photograph Retoucher (any ind.)
Colorist, Photography (any ind.)
Film Technician (motion pic.) I
Photographic Foreman (print. and
pub.)
Developer (any ind.)
Photographic Sensitometrist
(motion pic.)
Projection Printer (any ind.)
Reproduction Technician (any ind.)
Sound & Lab. Engineer (motion pic.)
Timer
Densitometer Reader (motion pic.)
Replacement Girl (motion pic.)
Photo Checker and Assembler (any
ind.)
Color Print Operator (any ind.)
Film Developer (motion pic.)
Film Printer (motion pic.)
Multiple-Photographic Printer
Operator (any ind.)
Rectification Printer (any ind.)
Carbon Printer (print. and pub.)
Chemical Mixer (motion pic.)
Contact Frame Operator (print. and
pub.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Photographic Laboratory and
Darkroom Occupations (continued)

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Film Cutter (any ind.) I
 Mounter, Hand (bus. ser.)
 Negative Cutter (motion pic.)
 Negative Cutter and Spotter (any ind.)
 Screen Photographer (wallpaper)
 Splicer (any ind.)
 Developer, Color Photography (bus. ser.)
 Developing Machine Operator (mot. pic.)
 Developing Machine Photography (bus. ser.)
 Film Drying Machine Operator (motion pic.)
 Mounter, Color Film (any ind.)
 Paco-Machine Operator (any ind.)
 Print Developer, Machine (any ind.)
 X-Ray Developing Mach. Operator (medical ser.)
 Photograph Finisher (any ind.) I
 Film Loader (any ind.)
 Film Numberer (any ind.)
 Photographer Helper (any ind.)
 Print Washer (any ind.)
 Copy Cameraman (any ind.)
 Photostat Operator (any ind.)
 Print Inspector (bus. ser.)

Park Ranger (gov. ser.)
 Fish and Game Warden (gov. ser.)
 Park Caretaker (gov. ser.)

Recreation Leadership:

Recreation

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Recreation (continued)

Camp-Ground Caretaker (gov. ser.)
 Park Worker (gov. ser.)
 Hunting & Fishing Guide (amuse.
 and rec.)

Art Education:Graphic Arts Occupation

SEE GRAPHIC DESIGN - PAGE 138

Music Education:Chemical Technology:Chemical Technology

Analytical Research Technicians,
 Resins and Adhesives (chem.)
 Pilot Plant Operator (petrol.
 refin.)
 Colorist (prof. and kin.) I
 Assayer (prof. and kin.)
 Chemical Lab. Technician (prof.
 and kin.)
 Chemist Helper, Petroleum (petrol.
 refin.)
 Laboratory Assistant (petrol.
 prod.) I
 Laboratory Tester (any ind.) I
 Tester (petrol. refin.)
 Colorman (paper and pulp)
 Pulp and Paper Testing (paper and
 pulp)
 Chief Operator (chem.)

Medical Record Technology:

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Public Environmental Health Technology:

Environmental Health

Environmental Health Assistant

Radiologic Technology:Radiologic Technology
(X-ray)

Radiologic Technologist

Early Childhood Assistant:

Care and Guidance of Children

Nursemaid (dom. ser.)
Foster Mother (dom. ser.)
Child-Care Attendant, School
(per. ser.)
Child-Care Attendant (gov. ser.)
Kindergartner (any ind.)
Child-Care Assistant (any ind.)Technical Secretary:Office Assistant:Stenographic, Secretarial and Related
Occupations, OtherDental Assistant:

Dental Assisting

Dental Assistant (med. ser.)

Dental Hygiene (associate degree)

Dental Hygienist (med. ser.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Dental Laboratory Technology

Dental Ceramist (med. ser.)
 Contour Wire Specialist, Denture
 (med. ser.)
 Orthodontic Gold Band Maker (med.
 ser.)
 Molder, Bench (dental equip.)
 Set-Up Man, Denture (med. ser.)

Electroencephalograph Technician

Medical Laboratory Assisting

Inhalation Therapy:

Miscellaneous Health Occupations Education

Electrical Repair and Maintenance:

Electrical Occupations

Electrician (water trans.)
 Electrician, Locomotive (loco.
 and car bldg. and rep.)
 Electrical Repairman (any ind.)

Electrical Occupations, Other

Time and Motion Study:Aviation Science:

Aviation Occupations

Aviation Occupations, Other

Agricultural Retailing:

Agricultural Supplies, Services, Other

Lab. Technician, Veterinary (med.
 ser.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Agricultural Supplies, Services, Other (continued)

Salesman, Vet. Supplies (whole. tr.)
 Horseshoer (any ind.)
 Vet. Hospital Attendant (med. ser.)
 Tree Pruner (agric.)
 Poultry Debeaker (agric.)
 Poultry Technician (agric.)
 Chicken Sexer (agric.)
 Chick Grader (agric.)
 Poultry Vaccinator (agric.)
 Poultryman, Technical Advisor (agric.)
 Wool Shearer, Contract (agric.)
 Artificial Breeding Technician (agric.)
 Artificial Inseminator (agric.)
 Blood Tester, Fowls (agric.)
 Poultry Inseminator (agric.)

Culinary Arts and Restaurant Management:Food Services

Manager, Food Concession (hotel and rest.)
 Manager, Catering (hotel and rest.)
 Manager, Liquor Establishment (hotel and rest.)
 Manager, Rest./Coffee Shop (hotel and rest.)
 Food Checker (hotel and rest.) I
 Food Checker (hotel and rest.) II
 Salesman, Food-Vending Service (whole. tr.)
 Salesman, Hotel and Rest. Equip. and Supplies (whole. tr.)
 Salesman, Vending & Coin Machines (whole. tr.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Food Services (continued)

Lunch Truck Driver (hotel and rest.)
 Coin Vending Machine Collecting (bus. ser.)
 Wine Steward (hotel and rest.)
 Hostess, Rest./Coffee Shop (hotel and rest.)

Fashion Retailing:Retail Trade, Other

Salesman, House-to-House (ret. tr.)
 Solicitor (any ind.)
 Sales Closer (ret. tr.)
 Laborer, Stores (any ind.)

Nursing Home & Small Hospital Administration:Miscellaneous Health Occupations EducationPhysical Therapy Assistant:Physical Therapy

Attendant, Physical Therapy (med. ser.)

Cosmetology:Cosmetology

Manicurist (per. ser.)
 Supervisor, Make-Up (motion pic.)
 Cosmetologist (per. ser.)
 Cosmetologist, Apprentice (per. ser.)
 Wig Dresser (hairwork; per. ser.)
 Body Make-up Woman (amuse. and rec.)
 Make-Up Man (amuse. and rec.; motion pic.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Operating Room Technology:

Nursing Assistance (Aid)

Cottage Parent (med. ser.)
Nurse Aid (med. ser.)
Orderly (med. ser.)Automotive Technology:

Automotive Technology

Auto-Body-Design Checker (auto
mfg.)Bio-Medical Instrumentation Technology:

Medical Laboratory Technology

Medical Laboratory Assisting

Biochemistry Technologist (med.
ser.)
Medical Technologist (med. ser.)
Microbiology Technologist (drug
prep. and rel. pr.)
Medical Lab. Assistant (med. ser.)
Lab. Assistant, Plasma, Drawing-
Off (drug, prep. and rel. prod.)Heating and Power Engineering Technology:

Heating

Oil Burner Installation and
Serviceman (any ind.)
Furnaceman (light, heat and power)
Oil Burner and Serviceman Helper
(any ind.)
Furnace Installer and Repairman,
Hot Air (any ind.)
Furnace Installer and Repairman
Helper, Hot Air (any ind.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Machine and Tool Design Technology:

Machine and Tool Design

Tool Designer (prof. and kin.)

Rehabilitation Specialists:

Rehabilitation

Teaching (Early Childhood, Elementary,
Junior High, Secondary):

Care and Guidance of Children

Nursemaid (dom. ser.)

Foster Mother (dom. ser.)

Child-Care Attendant, School
(per. ser.)

Child-Care Attendant (gov. ser.)

Kindergartner (any ind.)

Child-Care Assistant (any ind.)

Business Administration:Supervisory and Administrative
Management OccupationsMarine Engineering:

Maritime Occupations

Machinist Foreman, Outside (ship
and boat bldg. and rep.)

Junior Engineer (water trans.)

Machinist Apprentice, Marine

Engine (ship and boat bldg. and
rep.)Machinist Apprentice, Outside (ship
and boat bldg. and rep.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)Maritime Occupations (continued)

Machinist, Marine Engine (ship and boat bldg. and repair)
 Machinist, Outside (ship and boat bldg. and repair)
 Motorboat Mechanic (any ind.)
 Outboard Motor Mechanic (ship and boat bldg. and repair)
 Gear Man (water trans.) II
 Motorboat Mechanic Helper (any ind.)
 Machinist Helper, Outside (ship and boat bldg. and repair)

Home Economics:

Home Economics - Related Technology

Law Enforcement:

Law Enforcement

SEE LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING -
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Marine Transportation:

Transportation

Airplane Stewardess, Chief (air trans.)
 Director, Transportation (motor trans.)
 Direct Sales Representative (motor trans.)
 Manager, Operations (air trans., motor trans., r.r. trans., water trans.)
 Manager, Regional (motor trans.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Transportation (continued)

Superintendent, Airport (air trans.)
 Dispatcher, Chief (petrol. prod., petrol. refin.)
 General Agent, Operations (r.r. trans.)
 Manager, Bus Transportation (motor trans.)
 Manager, Locker Plant (motor trans.; whole. tr.)
 Manager, Station (air trans.)
 Manager, Terminal (motor trans.)
 Manager, Traffic (motor trans.) I
 Manager, Warehouse (any ind.)
 Port-Traffic Manager (water trans.)
 Station Master (r.r. trans.)
 Superintendent, Cold Storage (any ind.)
 Superintendent, Division (air trans.)
 Superintendent, Division (motor trans.; r.r. tr.)
 Superintendent, Pipe Lines (pipe lines)
 Superintendent, Trans. (any ind.)
 Toll Collector
 Rate Clerk (motor trans.)
 Traffic Agent (motor tr.; r.r. tr.; water tr.)
 Crating & Moving Estimator (motor tr.; r.r. tr.)
 Salesman, Material Handling Equip. (whole. tr.)
 Salesman, Aircraft (ret. tr.; whole. tr.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Transportation (continued)

Salesman, Aircraft Equip. and
Parts (whole. tr.)
Salesman, Marine Supplies (ret.
tr.: whole. tr.)
Salesman, R.R. Equip. & Supplies
(whole. tr.)
Porter, Pullman (r.r. trans.)
Airplane Stewardess (air trans.)
Bus Hostess (motor trans.)
Hostess, Train (r.r. trans.)
Baggage Clerk (motor trans.)
Driver Supervisor (motor trans.)
Railway Express Agent (r.r. tr.)
Baggage and Mail Agent (r.r. tr.)
Reservation Clerk (r.r. trans.)
Documentation Supervisor (water
trans.)
Supervisor, Ticket Sales (air tr.)
Schedule Analyst (air trans.)
Reservation Agent (air trans.)
Airplane-Dispatch Clerk (air tr.)
Transportation Agent (air trans.)
Road Supervisor (motor trans.)
Dispatcher, Bus & Trolley (motor
trans.)
Taxi Driver (motor trans.)
Bus Driver (motor trans.)
Ticket Agent (any ind.)
Warehouse Traffic Man (whole. tr.)
Materials-Handling Foreman (any
ind.)
Material Handler (any ind.)

Foreman, Press Room (pr. and pub.)
Experimental Pressman (ink)

Printmaking:

Printing Press Occupations

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

OCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Printing Press Occupations (continued)

Overlay Cutter (pr. and pub.)
 Lithographed-Plate Inspector
 (tinware)
 Cylinder-Press Man (pr. and pub.)
 Cylinder Pressman Apprentice (pr.
 and pub.)
 Engraving Press Operator
 Flexographic Pressman (pr. and
 pub.) I
 Flexographic Pressman (pr. and
 pub.) II
 Lithographic Proofer (pr. and
 pub.)
 Lithographic Proofer Apprentice
 (pr. and pub.)
 Offset Duplicating Machine
 Operator (pr. and pub.)
 Offset Pressman (pr. and pub.)
 Offset Pressman Apprentice (pr.
 and pub.)
 Offset Proof-Press Operator (pr.
 and pub.)
 Platen Pressman (pr. and pub.)
 Platen Pressman Apprentice (pr.
 and pub.)
 Printer Slotter Operator (paper
 goods)
 Printing Press Operator (bal. and
 scales)
 Proof-Press Man (pr. and pub.)
 Rotogravure Press Man (pr. and
 pub.)
 Steel Die Printer (pr. and pub.)
 Stripper Man (paper goods)
 Tab-Card-Press Operator (pr. and
 pub.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMOCCUPATIONAL TITLE (Vol.)

Printing Press Occupations (continued)

Transfer Operator (pr. and pub.)
 Web-Press Man (pr. and pub.)
 Web-Press-Man Apprentice (pr. and pub.)
 Offset Press Operator (pr. and pub.)
 Platen Press Feeder (pr. and pub.)
 Cylinder Press Feeder (pr. and pub.)
 Lithographic Press Feeder
 Apprentice (pr. and pub.)
 Press-Man Helper (fabric. plastics prod.)

Computer Science:

Computer and Console Operators

Supervisor, Computer Operations (clerical)
 Digital Computer Operator (clerical)

Peripheral Equipment Operators

Card-Tape-Converter Operator (clerical)
 Computer Peripheral Equip. Operator (clerical)
 High-Speed-Printer Operator (clerical)

Key Punch and Coding Equipment Operators

Key-Punch Operator (clerical)
 Data Typist (clerical)
 Verifier Operator (clerical)
 Tabulating Machine Operator (clerical)
 Sorting Machine Operator (clerical)

Programmers

Programmer, Chief, Business (prof. and kin.)
 Programmer, Business (prof. & kin.)

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