

THE JOB CORPS FOR WOMEN

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

By 1963 America had attained a standard of living for a large majority of its citizens never before attained by any society, past or present. Since 1929 the proportion of families earning less than \$2,000 (expressed in constant dollars of 1963 purchasing power) had fallen by 63 percent and the proportion earning less than \$4,000 had fallen by 57 percent. During the same period, the proportion of families earning between \$4,000 and \$10,000 in such constant dollars had increased by 92 percent. The proportion of families earning \$10,000 and over increased by 250 percent. In the Annual Report for 1965, the President's Council of Economic Advisers predicted that if trends of the past seventeen years continued the average family income by the year 2000 would be about \$18,000 in 1965 prices (Chamber of Commerce of the United States, The Concept of Poverty, 1965, p. 2).

In 1963 the real buying power of the average city worker family was more than twice what it was in 1900. Wide differences in income between the skilled and unskilled had lessened. The record also showed that since 1900 the geographic, industrial, and racial differences as reflected in income had also narrowed, not widened. There was every reason to believe that the American economic system would continue to improve the relative position

of those on the lowest rungs of the income ladder (Ibid.).

The affluence of America in 1963 was too obvious to deny. Approximately half of all American families had an income of \$6,000 or more. With that purchasing power they could enjoy the many material conveniences and comforts our society had to offer. But there were still the poor, and in an economy of plenty there were 20 percent of the population who were poor because their income of \$2,000 or \$3,000 a year would not provide the minimum needs of all the family members. Thus, the effect of the affluent society was not even; it had a different impact on those who did and those who did not share in the abundance (Kenkel, 1963). It was out of concern for that situation that the Economic Opportunity Act was born in August, 1964.

There seemed to be many reasons that the people of poverty were neglected for so long. Part of the population found the idea of poverty repulsive and preferred to ignore the thought. A generation of Americans grew up believing there was no poverty, or at least, not enough to be concerned about. Extensive new highway systems were built around the sections of the cities where poverty existed. People did not see poverty as they went to and from their daily tasks, for it had been removed from their living and emotional experience.

For a long time poverty was considered to be an economic matter but gradually the concept changed and the realization came about that there was a kind of poverty which could destroy man's very soul. Victor Fuchs (1965, p. 71) wrote: "Poverty in the present context refers to an insufficiency of material goods and

services. Though our concern is with economic poverty, it is useful to remember that men can be poor in other ways as well, e.g. 'spiritually impoverished', 'morally bankrupt', 'poor in health'. Let no one imagine that the elimination of economic poverty will usher in an era of universal happiness and contentment."

The Economic Opportunity Act was intended to provide for the prevention of both economic and cultural deprivation for people of all ages. There was emphasis both on jobs and on education as illustrated by the Work-Study Program, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, and the Job Corps. The Community Action Program focused on many needs of people other than merely the economic ones.

The Job Corps was provided for in Title I of the Economic Opportunity Act. Special provision was made for both men and women. Director Otis A. Singletary of the Job Corps stated, "What we have done, for better or for worse, is to create a third public school system" ("Job Corps Enters New Phase in Work," Kansas City Times, December 20, 1965, p. 8C). Mr. Singletary continued by saying that the Job Corps programs for school dropouts emphasized learning by doing and provided special aid for youngsters who were only barely literate.

The writer of this paper was especially interested in the Job Corps for women. This report was written in order to present the thinking which preceded the poverty act and to examine the manner in which the Job Corps was administered. The war on poverty, highlighted by the passage of the Economic

Opportunity Act, could well become the concern and responsibility of all Americans.

## CHAPTER II

### SOCIETY'S AWARENESS OF POVERTY

Sargent Shriver, Director of the U. S. Office of Economic Opportunity, ("Poverty," Reprint, The Encyclopedia Americana, 1965, p. 8) referred to Robert Heilbroner's The Future as History in which he said that 1929 was not only a year of great business prosperity but also a year of fundamental well-being. However, Heilbroner thought that if the economy of 1929 were examined critically it would be discovered that the facade of business prosperity concealed an inner structure of widespread economic frailty and uncertainty.

Following the stock market crash of 1929 and the depression of the 1930's many Americans felt greater confusion and despair than had ever been known before. People lost faith in their country's financial leadership as banks failed and unemployment reached a new high figure (Ibid.)

During his first term in office, President Franklin D. Roosevelt suggested legislation to bolster the economy and so the Social Security Act and Wagner Act were passed. The great depression projects such as the Works Progress Administration and the Public Works Administration were efforts designed to furnish employment for the millions without jobs. Throughout the years there had been many humanitarian projects instituted



by the government and other agencies but there was never enough concerted planning nor available funds to keep up with the increased population of deprived persons.

After the second World War people were concerned with rehabilitation of the service men and building expansion of all kinds which had been neglected during the war. The people of poverty from 1945 to 1955 did not actually starve as they had in the 1930's so they could be ignored more easily. Harrington (1962) noted that this kind of poverty was even more basic for it twisted and deformed the spirit of human beings.

According to Professor Clarke Chambers ("Antipoverty Spark is Old," Kansas City Times, May 17, 1966), the anti-poverty program of the mid-1960's was spawned by criticisms and agitations of a decade earlier. He credited the congressional hearings of two Democratic senators, Paul Douglas of Illinois and John Sparkman of Alabama, with producing most of the ideas used later by President Lyndon B. Johnson. Following the hearings held in 1953, 1956, and 1958 bills were introduced regarding poverty and welfare; but the bills died in committee hearings. A ripe time for action did not come until after 1960. Social critics and agitators laid much of the groundwork for the attack on poverty. Professor Chambers also contended that a popular realization of the seriousness of want in America was aroused by the confrontation of John Kennedy and Hubert Humphrey as they debated the issues of the campaign in the West Virginia Democratic primary in 1960.

In 1962, President John F. Kennedy became increasingly

concerned regarding the economic growth of the United States. He recommended a tax reduction. Following President Kennedy's death when Lyndon B. Johnson became President, the tax bill was passed. Civil Rights legislation also had a direct bearing on the problem of poverty because the poor included a disproportionate number of Negroes who were victims of discrimination (Shriver, op. cit., p. 6).

In The Other America, Harrington (1962) pointed out that the poor were becoming increasingly invisible for they had no voice of their own. John Kennedy and later Lyndon Johnson were determined that the plight of the poor would be brought to the attention of the American people. They were certain that a poverty law was really needed.

Who were the poor of 1962? Definitions of poverty vary according to the standard of living used as a criteria. If families of four having an annual income of \$3,000 or less were used as a criteria group, then nearly every family in other cultures over the world would have been considered poor. But in America it was a matter of relative poverty. In the poorer countries bread and shoes did not cost as much as in America. In these so-called poorer countries nearly everyone had the same standard of living but in America that was not true. Thus, the poverty in America was one of relative deprivation. The poor children in America were likely to have to attend school in dilapidated buildings with less equipment--and that of inferior quality--and to be taught by the least qualified teachers in the school system. Their families usually had the poorest housing

and lowest paying jobs. So, despite an affluent society, despite one of the best education systems in the world, and despite an abundance of food--still there were the poor (Faltormayer, 1964)!

Chilman and Sussman (1964) reported that the poor of 1964 comprised a mixed group. The group included eleven million children of poverty, workers displaced by technological change, rural families, fatherless families, the aged poor, and persons with less than an eighth-grade education. In early 1964 thirty-five million Americans lived in families where the income was less than \$3,000 per year.

The disadvantaged were those deprived of advantages--physical, emotional, and cultural. The War on Poverty of the 1960's main concern was with the disadvantaged. Miller (1965, p. 5) stated that when we consider poverty we find that "it is not just an economic problem but an emotional, cultural, and political problem as well." He said that the generic term "poverty" hid more than it revealed and that there were, in fact, many different types of poverty which had different causes and required different solutions. Passow (1963) pointed out that schools with culturally disadvantaged children had higher rates of scholastic failure, truancy, disciplinary problems, dropouts, pupil transiency and teacher turnover than was true in schools serving higher socioeconomic levels. Other characteristics included poor health, inadequate motivation, malnutrition, lack of personal cleanliness, and absence of basic learning skills. It would seem that any one of these would

discourage a child but when the same child was harpered by several of these characteristics it was almost more than he could cope with.

Hess (1964) wrote that measures attacking the causes, not the symptoms of poverty, must be instituted if there were to be eventual elimination of cultural deprivation which he felt characterized a large segment of the American society at that time. Some of the causes of poverty were inadequate education and job skills, poor housing, lack of motivation, hopelessness, and poor paying jobs.

Even labor leaders began to be concerned with the problems of poverty. Labor had long been a holdout regarding measures to reduce the poverty of the workers. Finally, the leaders began to realize that contented workers meant hard workers. Among the problems needing to be solved were the removal of racial barriers, creation of new jobs, higher minimum wage and hour laws, new public works programs, more adequate public housing, decreasing cost of medical care, job training programs and federal revision of state unemployment insurance and accident compensation laws. Edelman (1964) discussed organized labor's anti-poverty program before the Groves Conference in April, 1964. He pointed out that the victory which should be won against poverty would raise the self-respect and morale of every American and that the benefits would be felt throughout society. Another important point which he made was that if a nation is strengthened from within it may dare to spend less of its total substance on armaments against the enemy from without. Edelman believed there

should be greater emphasis on increasing the wage levels and the creation of more jobs. At the same time President Johnson and Sargent Shriver stressed the need for more education for the deprived. Edelman said labor was also militantly behind the several job training and educational programs.

Robert W. Hutchins (1965) said there was no use in disillusioning ourselves for we really were going to be living in a different kind of world whether we were ready for it or not. He said the cure for the disease of no jobs was training in job skills which would qualify one for a better job than could have been expected without the training. Hutchins was not alone in his belief. The idea of training for jobs was the core of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

Through the years many teachers have resented having pupils in their classes from culturally deprived homes. These children were considered drawbacks to the morale and achievement of a class. Consequently, these teachers were often inclined to give them less help. The children, humiliated by failure, were frequently hostile toward school authorities. A vicious circle developed as alienation occurred between teachers and the very pupils who most needed their help. In regard to this, Riessman (1962) said there was need for a fresh approach to the discovery and cultivation of the talents which existed among children from unpromising backgrounds. He concluded that the usual tests would not identify all of the able pupils, the usual curriculum would not challenge them, and the usual teachers would not inspire them. As a starting point, teachers should

have genuine respect for all pupils and their families.

Disadvantaged children were especially deficient in what might be called "school know-how." The middle-class child learns certain procedures and expectations from his parents and his general environment. The disadvantaged or deprived child has not learned how to ask and answer questions, how to study, how to relate to the teacher, nor how to take tests.

In a school classroom no two pupils learn the same things in the same way at the same pace. Some learn through reading, some through listening, and some through doing things physically. A common characteristic of disadvantaged children is that they learn best by the physical approach method. Educators were slow in recognizing the concept that emotion, motivation, and personality could facilitate or hinder learning or failure to learn.

Therefore, instead of merely receiving money for economic necessities through social welfare, the people of poverty needed a chance also to be aware of their worth as human beings.

## CHAPTER III

### THE ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY ACT OF 1964

#### AS IT RELATED TO YOUTH PROGRAMS

Public Law 88-452, titled The Economic Opportunity Act, was passed by the 88th Congress on August 20, 1964. Its purpose was to bring together the total resources of the Nation, both human and financial, so as to combat poverty in the United States.

#### Findings and Declaration of Purpose

Sec. 2. Although the economic well-being and prosperity of the United States have progressed to a level surpassing any achieved in world history, and although these benefits are widely shared throughout the Nation, poverty continues to be the lot of a substantial number of our people. The United States can achieve its full economic and social potential as a nation only if every individual has the opportunity to contribute to the full extent of his capabilities and to participate in the workings of our society. It 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. It is the purpose of this Act to strengthen, supplement, and coordinate efforts in furtherance of that policy (Public Law 88-452, 1964, p. 1).

#### Programs

Title I of the Act included three youth programs. Title I, Part A, created a voluntary program called the Job Corps for unemployed young men and women from ages sixteen through twenty-one in conservation camps or training centers to be located in

rural or urban areas. The Corps offered enrollees a coordinated program of opportunities for education, training, useful work, and physical training as well as one that emphasized basic academic skills and work experience (Chronical Guidance Publications, 1965, p.1). More advanced educational and job training was to be provided in the training centers for those who showed readiness for it. The Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) was to administer the Job Corps Program.

Part B of Title I created the Work-Training Programs under the administration of the Department of Labor. The Neighborhood Youth Corps was one of those. The programs were designed to provide young men and women between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one with either full or part-time work and training opportunities. The work-training projects would be coordinated with public agencies or non-profit organizations. The work to be performed was to be in the public interest. The young people would work in hospitals, settlement houses, schools, libraries, parks, and playgrounds. None of the projects involved displacing workers already employed. Work-training projects were intended to either increase the employability of enrollees or enable them to remain in school. Job Corps enrollees were young people who were without jobs and out of school (Ibid.)

Part C of Title I established the Work-Study Programs under the administration of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The work-study program was to provide part-time employment to college and university students from low-income families. The program was designed (1) to provide financial



assistance for needy students through part-time employment opportunities; (2) to assist the colleges in expanding their on-campus employment programs; and (3) to aid colleges in developing new off-campus employment opportunities through public and private agencies involved in educational, recreational, welfare, and other activities in the public interest (Ibid.)

Specified rules, as guidelines, were set up to determine who was eligible for assistance under each program in Title I. The original bill provided \$412.5 million to establish those programs.

#### The Job Corps

The Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) was assigned the responsibility of administering the Job Corps program. Certain profit and non-profit organizations which were interested in establishing and running a Job Corps center could contract for that operation with the government. The procedure was for interested agencies to submit bids in accordance with specifications and requirements established by the OEO. The OEO then selected the agency best suited to the job in accordance with need, location, and present facilities. Bids were let on a cost plus fixed fee basis (OEO, The First Step on a Long Journey, 1965).

One of the main reasons for having a Job Corps was to get the young people away from home. By sending them away from home and to a completely new environment they could make a fresh start. For some, it was important to get them away from their

old neighborhood gangs which roamed around on the streets at night, breaking windows out of schoolhouses or participating in some other vandalism (Moore, 1966<sup>b</sup>).

About two months after the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act in August, 1964, information regarding the Job Corps began to appear in local newspapers. Placards were displayed in post offices, libraries, and other public buildings inviting interested youth to request information from Washington. The Job Corps office in Washington forwarded the requests to the referral agency nearest the home of the potential enrollee.

Usually the local offices of the United States Employment Service or the Community Action Programs acted as screeners or referral agencies for the men. The Women's Job Corps applicants were screened by the Women in Community Service (WICS), a particularly unique organization (OEO, op. cit., p. 14). Leading Catholic, Jewish, Protestant, and Negro women's groups formed a special corporation which was under contract to the Job Corps and was concerned with recruiting at the local level in addition to the screening of applicants. WICS voluntarily served without pay. They also arranged for the enrollment ceremony and for the girls' transportation to a center. Though the organization was non-profit, the OEO allocated to the WICS eighty dollars for each girl recruited and accepted into the Job Corps.

The referral agency contacted the potential enrollees and proceeded to interview and investigate the interested youth. Those considered desirable by the acceptance board were assisted in making application to the Job Corps. Further screening and

final selection was done by the OEO in Washington.

The screening process was intended to find those youth who could most benefit from the Job Corps. It consisted of three parts: (1) tests to determine the intelligence level and skill capability in reading and mathematics; (2) a medical examination; and (3) an interview to determine the applicant's family background, employment history, educational experience, and other relevant data. On occasion it took as much as ninety days to complete the process.

Enrollees had to come from families whose income was below a certain level. The guidelines were based on real income in relation to family size: such as, \$3,130 yearly income for a four-member family and \$3,685 for a five-member family (Hunter, 1965). The enrollees were required to be between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one and to be a citizen or permanent resident of the United States. Another requirement was that they had been out of school for at least three months and were unable to find a job (OEO, Job Corps Facts, 1965). Only those who were considered trainable were accepted. Serious and repeated offenders, narcotics addicts, and others with serious emotional or psychological disorders were not accepted into the Job Corps. The program was completely interracial (OEO, Handbook for Job Corps Screening, 1965).

If accepted, an enrollee received room, board, clothing, medical and dental care, and spending money of thirty dollars a month. After taxes and other deductibles were taken from the money allowance, it actually amounted to eighteen dollars and

fifty cents. Upon leaving the Corps, the young person was given fifty dollars for each month of satisfactory service in the Job Corps. Or, if the enrollee chose, he could have twenty-five dollars allotted to his family, this amount to be matched by government funds. In this case, the family would receive fifty dollars a month while he was in the Corps and he would still build up a deposit of twenty-five dollars for each month served to be drawn when he left. The Corps was willing to pay the cost of one visit home a year, though the corpsmen could also visit home more often at their own expense. Parents were invited to visit corpsmen at the centers (OPC, The First Step on a Long Journey, 1965).

The Job Corps was "neither a sanitarium for incurables nor a correctional institute for incorrigibles. Nor was it to be considered simply a breadline" (Ibid.) It was a program of remedial education and job training for young men and women sixteen through twenty-one years of age, maintained in rural conservation centers and urban training centers where enrollees lived, worked, and learned.

Most of the Job Corps enrollees were school dropouts. Therefore, it was expected that they would need remedial training in reading, since almost all jobs involve the ability to read and understand directions. The Job Corps offered job training and work experience, catch-up courses in basic academic subjects, physical training, nutrition, guidance and counseling in the healthful and well-regulated atmosphere of urban training centers and rural camps throughout the country (Ibid.)

The title "Job Corps" was misleading in that no one was

promised a job upon leaving the Corps. However, everyone learned skills and an effort was made to find each enrollee a job upon graduation (Carter, 1965). The corpsmen were encouraged to remain until they had learned marketable skills and were allowed to remain in the program for as long as two years. The Corps was entirely voluntary and anyone could leave at any time. However, if he stayed in the Job Corps and completed his training, the corpsman was better able to get a job, return to school, or join the armed services. In a Job Corps center, the enrollees were allowed to proceed with training at their individual rate according to abilities and interests.

At all centers, social interaction and entertainment were considered an important part of the young person's growth. Movies, athletics, games, libraries, and other kinds of entertainment were available. Qualified counselors and teachers were selected from applications received both from local communities and other areas.

The Job Corps centers for men were both rural and urban. Some young men were particularly interested in outdoor occupations so needed training within that type of environment. The rural centers were located on public land, such as national parks and forests. At the conservation centers, corpsmen did carpentry and forestry work, built roads, and made trails. Whether at a rural or an urban center, the corpsmen learned to improve reading and writing skills. They also learned how to handle employment interviews and other skills which aided them in getting a job. In the Job Corps centers located in or near large cities,

the young men received different kinds of specialized training. Included among job skills available for the boys were auto body repair, diesel repair, bookkeeping, building maintenance and repair, commercial art, processing machines, machine shop, metal work, radio and television repair, and service station operator (OEO, The First Step on a Long Journey, 1965).

The Job Corps centers for women were all urban and had enrollments of 250 to 400 each (OEO, Job Corps Centers for Women, 1965). As of June 1, 1966, seven centers were in operation. They were located in St. Petersburg, Florida; Cleveland, Ohio; Los Angeles, California; Omaha, Nebraska; Charleston, West Virginia; Huntington, West Virginia; and Excelsior Springs, Missouri (OEO, List of Job Corps Centers, n.d.)

Most of the girls who arrived at the centers were either shy or boisterous. They were unemployable and from economically and culturally deprived backgrounds. Many had not lived with one or both parents for the last five or more years. A few had no father, mother, or guardian. Others had one or more children, had spent most of their lives in institutions for abandoned children, or had moved often from city to city. They were a product of their environment (Dauner, 1965).

It was the goal of the staffs at the centers that the girls would have found themselves and their place in society after a period of training. This would include acquiring one or more employable skills and ability to manage a home and family. The young women were trained to work in business offices, hospitals, stores, beauty shops, restaurants, nursery schools, and

in other similar areas where jobs were available. Learning how to handle home and family responsibilities, including child care and guidance, and managing the family budgets were also important parts of their training (Ibid.)

The insignia of the Job Corps was an embroidered emblem in the shape of a shield. It symbolized the desire of the corpsmen "to improve themselves"; it represented study and training; "it meant hope." The young people volunteered for the Job Corps because they wanted a better life. The shield represented their chance "to prepare for that better life." The Job Corps men and women wore the shield on blazers and work clothes because they were proud of it. The arrow pointing upward in the center of the shield pointed the way. Each Job Corps man and woman was determined to follow its direction--"up to a job and a meaningful life" (OPO, You Have New Neighbors, 1965).

Based upon the first 10,000 enrollees in the Job Corps, the typical enrollee was seventeen and a half years old; had stayed in school eight and a half grades and then dropped out; had fifth grade level reading, writing, and arithmetic skills; had been out of school for nearly one year; had come from a family living in substandard and overcrowded housing; and was unemployed though looking for work at the time of entry into the Job Corps (OPO, Job Corps Facts, 1965).

The Job Corps was one of the really big programs of the War on Poverty. As of April 25, 1966, the federal government had spent \$331,533,544 on the Job Corps, still almost an infant program (Moore, 1966<sup>a</sup>).

## CHAPTER IV

### THE OMAHA JOB CORPS CENTER FOR WOMEN

The Burroughs Corporation of Wayne, Pennsylvania, was the contracting agency for the Omaha Job Corps Center for Women. The Omaha Center had its formal dedication on December 2, 1965, about five months after the first girls arrived on June 29. Dr. Bennetta B. Washington, Director of the Women's Job Corps, OEO, and Mrs. Robert S. McNamara, wife of the Secretary of Defense, came for the dedication program. The Center illustrates what can be done with and for girls who were disadvantaged. Some of the girls were school dropouts by choice but all were deprived and came from homes beset with poverty.

#### Physical Facilities

The writer of this report visited the Omaha Job Corps Center for Women and found excellent facilities which, with only a few exceptions, seemed adequate for the planned program. The Center was located in the former ten-floor Regis Hotel building and three floors of the adjoining Central Market building. The two most disappointing features were the lack of a room large enough for all of the girls to meet at the same time and the lack of recreation facilities. Offsetting these aspects were an excellent staff, a well-planned program and pleasant rooms



for the girls.

The entire interior of the former Regis Hotel was attractively decorated and well enough arranged so that it seemed to function smoothly as a Job Corps center. In the library in a prominent place was the motto: "Enter to learn--go forth to earn." The librarian had been an employee of the Burroughs Corporation in Pennsylvania for more than seven years. The reading materials ranged from comic books and simple story books to more intellectual reading materials, including books on job-getting.

Many of the girls had clean, well-furnished rooms for the first time in their lives. One resident advisor stated that this was the root of one of their problems. Many parents wrote their daughters about how nice everything was now for them and how bad things still were at home. Consequently, the girls were made to feel guilty, became emotionally upset, and several returned home.

The Center was completely air-conditioned with many adequately furnished classrooms. The Center had one carpeted reception room which would seat about one hundred girls at a time. The choir used that room for rehearsals and the room was also used for many small group meetings for the enrollees, staff, or visitors to the Center. Laundry facilities and a lounge with a television on each of the seven residence floors were provided for the use of the enrollees. One or more resident advisors lived on each of the floors.

The dining facilities were very pleasant and adequate.

The former hotel kitchen staff was retained and the girls took turns serving under the supervision of the former dining room hostess. The duty became a learning experience. The food was excellent, the service good, and the girls' manners and behavior in the dining room were beyond reproach.

The basement recreation room had been the bar when the Regis was used as a hotel. One or two nights each week an outside company brought soft drinks which could be purchased at a snack bar. On party nights the girls and their dates were allowed to dance to the music of a juke box.

### The Staff

The Omaha Center had an administrative staff of five, a group of about twenty-five resident advisors, three supervisory counselors who were in charge of discipline, four head counselors, a doctor, three nurses, a librarian, kitchen staff and custodians, besides a teaching staff of about thirty-five. The latter number changed from time to time.

Mr. James Juroe, the Public Relations Director, was proud of the accomplishments and was enthusiastic in his approach to the challenge which his job presented. Mr. Juroe seemed to know every girl by name and had a pleasant word for each one whether in a classroom, a corridor, or the reception rooms. He could be friendly and business-like at the same time. The city of Omaha had accepted the Center wholeheartedly, and Mr. Juroe was often asked to talk before civic clubs such as Kiwanis and Rotary and also women's clubs and auxiliaries.

Mr. Juroo, his able assistant Mr. Leo Armatis, and the entire staff were employees of the Burroughs Corporation of Wayne, Pennsylvania. Both Mr. Juroo and Mr. Armatis seemed dedicated to their jobs and believed that from that time on there would always be an extensive poverty program. Though they admitted that the organization would be changed from time to time they felt certain that the program would eventually be expanded instead of curtailed.

The resident advisors lived in, but each had one entire day each week when she could be away from the Center. All of the resident advisors had had some college training and some were college graduates. They had many conferences with the girls, individually and in groups. Each advisor was responsible for ten or twelve girls. These girls needed more counseling than average well-adjusted young women and on occasion the advisor acted as a contact between girls and parents.

### The Enrollees

About half of the enrollees at the Omaha Center were Negroes. Living situations and all activities were integrated. Almost all of the girls seemed happy which was a good sign that things were going well.

On January 1, 1966, there were three hundred young women. The Center had facilities for 335. The average age at the Omaha Center in January, 1966, was 18.7 years. Three girls had completed fourth grade before coming to the Center; seventy-seven had completed one year of high school (ninth grade); and eighty-four were high school graduates. Two girls had completed one

year of college. Information on the home background of each girl revealed that all of the girls came from low-income families. (Personal interview with Mr. James Juroe, January, 1966.)

#### Orientation

Most of the girls needed to go shopping for new wardrobes soon after they arrived at the Center. Good grooming was stressed at all times, especially during the first few weeks. Often a girl was encouraged to have a haircut and permanent. A good appearance helps build morale. Basic education was not begun until the enrollee was ready for it. It was also possible that a girl's lack of self-esteem and self-confidence were accompanied by a lack of motivation. The academic classroom, at that point, would only add to the girl's frustration. The orientation period often lasted as long as two to four weeks. The day a girl arrived the resident advisor on her corridor helped her get settled and got acquainted. It was important that rapport be established before the testing program was begun a few days later.

Each girl began basic education classes at the academic level at which she was when she arrived. Psychological and interest tests were also given. The Gates Reading Survey and the Stanford Achievement Test were among the tests which were used. Statistics compiled in January, 1966, showed that eight girls in the Omaha Center had a grade two reading level. The highest level obtained was by ten girls who had an eleventh grade level; the mean level was 6.6. (Personal interview with Mr. James Juroe, January, 1966.)

During the orientation period each girl was enrolled in a suitable home and family course, a course in health education, and plans were made for leisure time activity. A program was gradually worked out for the enrollee's long term training.

After the first two weeks the enrollee was given a choice of work assignments. She then observed others at the same task, discussed the task, and finally participated. During the pre-occupational training period the enrollee was taken on many tours so she could observe others at work in plants, offices, hospitals, and stores in the city and could better choose a work area according to her interests. It was also necessary that she develop positive attitudes toward work and toward productive living. Therefore, work assignments were flexible, directed, redirected, reduced, and extended as required for meeting certain goals.

(Burroughs Corp., Job Corps Training Center for Women at Omaha, Nebraska, n.d.)

The girls needed to recognize that they had ability and that skills could be improved by their own efforts. A series of successes was important to provide the motivation which was badly needed by most of the Job Corps enrollees. A girl's ability to handle work outside the Center came after she had advanced through the sequence of laboratory work, on-the-job training, and occupational experience. The habits and attitudes needed for success in selecting and then completing occupational training were more easily developed from real work situations than from indirect exposures or simulated tasks. In addition to work exposure, there were two specific training areas in the preoccu-

pational program: basic typing and driver's training (Ibid.)

### Education

The basic skills required for all learning, such as reading, writing, speaking in groups or in conversations, mathematics, social studies, and elementary science were taught by qualified teachers in small classes. Field trips were taken which could be used as learning experiences. Examples were a trip to a bank to explain saving and budgeting, a visit to explain voting registration and how to vote, or the opportunity to attend a concert or visit an art gallery. Audio-visual materials, programmed courses, the library, special tutoring, and group learning experiences were used in this educational area. Many girls needed special training in certain skills before they were ready for occupational training.

Classes were held from 8:00 to 12:00 and from 1:30 to 5:30 each of the five regular school days. There was no outside study or homework required and in that way all study could be supervised. A lack of study skills was already part of the background of these girls (Ibid.)

As each girl continued her training she was encouraged to develop a single, low-level, employable skill and to add as many other skills as were possible. Emphasis was placed on adding skills which were especially saleable. Realistic work experience both in the community and at the center was regarded as a necessary part of training. An effort was made to provide each enrollee with at least one saleable skill from one of the

several job areas. The longer she remained with the program the more skills she could add. Training in occupations included experiences in food service, graphic arts, and secretarial skills. In addition, there were courses in floral arrangement and assistance, in retailing, and in cosmetology.

Training in homemaking arts included three areas: child care; clothing construction and care; and interior decoration. The emphases in the child care aide course were: appreciation and understanding of children, recognition of the needs of children, sensitivity to the significance of the child's experiences, and the desirability of developing independence in the child. The teaching methods for the clothing and interior decorating courses developed the necessary skills and emphasized the variations in individual values, needs, and tastes.

A certain amount of home and family education was required of each girl. These were called initial and coordinate courses. The initial courses were necessary to guide enrollees in setting up basic standards for the type of personal and group living which would be encountered at the Center. The girls were encouraged to develop desirable attitudes and habits related to their new life. They were shown how those attitudes could be transferred from class activities to situations in their future homes. The areas of study included in the initial series were responsibility for one's own room and facilities for recreation and dining, personal care and grooming, care of clothing, preparation and service of food, creative use of leisure time, and learning to get along with others. Subjects included in the coordinate

series included personal appearance and clothing; housing and home furnishings; nutrition and foods; child development, care, and guidance; interpersonal relationships; managing personal and family resources; and laboratory provisions (Ibid.)

A "learn by doing" method was stressed and problem solving, decision making, interpersonal relationships, clarification of values, consumer knowledge, and the management of resources were emphasized at all times. The courses in the coordinate series required at least ten months for completion. The interests and needs of each individual girl were the concern of the faculty during those courses.

The health education undertaken at the Center had many facets. Each girl was shown the relationship between good health and success in her occupational pursuits. Both physical and mental health were stressed. Audio-visual aids were used during the instruction in health and safety education, sanitation as it applied to disease and nutrition, meal planning and food preparation, sex education, and mental health. These also were used during instruction in first aid; home care of ailing children and adults; safety measures found useful in both homes and industry; and even in the selection of a family physician and dentist and the utilization of health resources such as community agencies, visiting nurses, and public health facilities. The health occupations which enrollees could prepare for were nurse's aide, assistant in a medical or dental office, or assistant in the field of occupational and/or physical therapy.



### Guidance and Counseling

The key to success of the total program was considered by the administration to be that of guidance and counseling of the trainees. The counselors and enrollees worked together so that desirable goals could be set up and attained for each individual enrollee. The interests, needs, and abilities of each girl had to be considered. An evaluation of test data was used during counseling as well as the enrollee's self-evaluation.

Counseling was initiated by the counselor and was not merely available to the enrollee. Special emphasis was on the face-to-face relationship between the counselor and the trainee. Each trainee was assigned to a specific counselor. However, the counselor did not hesitate to refer the enrollee to another counselor if it seemed that counseling could be more effective with a particular enrollee (Ibid.)

### Activities

Certain activities such as student government seemed to be necessary and desirable to make the life of the enrollee more adequate. An effort was made to conduct campaigns and election of student officers in a manner similar to national and state elections. When the time came each girl was encouraged to vote though not required to do so. This placed the responsibility upon the enrollee and a student activity became a learning experience.

The Job Corps Center, in cooperation with the city of Omaha, was able to supply a program for recreation and social

services. Those included education in recreational, cultural, and leisure-time activities. Courses in gymnastics and swimming were conducted at the YMCA, YWCA, and the Jewish Community Center. City swimming pools were also used on occasion. The cultural program included guided tours to museums and attendance at concerts and plays (Ibid.)

Each girl was especially encouraged to participate in skating, bowling, or some leisure-time activity to help her develop self-confidence and self-respect. Scheduling each girl's activities to include a proper balance of instructional and recreational periods was felt to be necessary even if it meant considerable work for staff members.

A typical morning schedule included breakfast from 6:45 to 7:45 a.m. with three instructional periods beginning at 8:15 and ending at 11:45 a.m. Lunch was served from 12:00 noon until 1:00 p.m. The three afternoon classes began at 1:00 and ended at 4:30 p.m. Each girl had free time until dinner was served at 6:00 p.m. After dinner the girls participated in recreational activities either at the Center or outside. Curfew was at 10:00 with lights out at 11:00 p.m. during the week. No formal classes were held on Saturdays and Sundays. Girls were encouraged to use those days for recreation, shopping, meetings with counselors, laundry, and attendance at churches of their choice.

A motto prominently displayed in the Omaha Center seemed to sum up the situation. "Yard by yard, life is hard, Inch by inch, life's a cinch." Every effort possible was made to help each girl feel her worth as a person and be encouraged in her

endeavors in order to offset her background of poverty.

Although the Center had been grateful for the kind publicity of the press, it seemed that the reports were over-zealous at times. The girls were especially resentful when one newspaper (Dauner, 1965) said that many of the girls had never slept between sheets before. Certain reporters seemed to forget that the Job Corps girls had feelings just as other people do. The girls' situations were difficult enough even when reported truthfully.

Visitors left the Center with mixed feelings. Three hundred girls were receiving a chance which had not seemed possible a year before. The dedicated staff seemed to be doing an excellent job in more than adequate surroundings. Their ability to keep moral problems such as use of narcotics and sex involvement at a minimum was evidenced. There were girls scuffling on a dimly lighted stairway who were embarrassed at the sight of visitors and hurried off remarking that they really were not acting like ladies. Several girls were homesick and one asked a visitor how long she thought it would be before she would overcome the feeling. The Personnel Director had a pleasant word for each girl and called her by name. The girls looked pleased when Mr. Juroe recognized them. Throughout the building small groups of girls were busy at activities which made life meaningful to them; for example, the girls who were making blue icing for a cake to be used at a small shower for one who was soon to be married. Another small group under the direction of an instructor was making and decorating cookies to be served to small

children at a day care center the following day.

## CHAPTER V

### STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

#### Evaluation of the Poverty Program

The poverty program was so extensive and was organized so rapidly that Sargent Shriver and numerous others who assisted him were not surprised that there was much criticism. Thousands of people attempted to plan and administer a program which would reach 35,000,000 poor almost overnight. To those who realized the complexity of the program, it was almost a miracle that so much was accomplished in as brief a time.

As early as December, 1964, writers were concerned with the problems and lack of effectiveness of the program. Malabre (1964) noted that economists feared the tax cut would bring inflation long before the unemployment rate was reduced. The government had appropriated \$784,000,000 for the anti-poverty program, and it was felt that this amount was far too much expenditure to benefit so few. The original plan had been to start the Job Corps with only 30,000 trainees in 1965.

What the critics did not mention was that the Job Corps was only part of the extensive war on poverty. The organization was unbelievably complicated. Guidelines had to be set up for each part of the program, staffs had to be located and hired, equipment had to be assembled, and even the locations of the

centers had to be arranged. Many people and their attitudes had to be considered. Involved were the job seekers themselves, educators, business and government leaders, union leaders, and others.

Critics were alarmed that already there were more workers than available jobs due to the deactivation of military facilities which had eliminated 63,000 workers from the government payroll (Ibid.) Housewives in increasing numbers had entered the job world. High school dropouts were common and becoming more numerous. Young people of poverty were impatient to get into the job world in order to begin to earn money.

In January, 1965, three months after Congress had appropriated funds for the war on poverty, Saul Alinsky (1965) wrote critically of the program. He believed that it was a drastic, political blunder, and that the funds were used for political patronage and administered by untrained personnel. Describing the anti-poverty program as "history's greatest relief program for the benefit of the welfare industry," Alinsky further wrote that poverty was a "blue chip" investment, that the war on poverty had become big business, and that poverty meant being poor both in money and in political power.

At the time of Alinsky's early criticism there had not been enough time to get the program started. However, there were well-grounded reasons for criticisms; one example of which was the enormous salaries paid the staff members in the early days of the program. The large salaries were offered as inducement to get unusually well-qualified administrators and other

personnel. In an effort to organize the programs as rapidly as possible there were instances of large salaries being paid to not-so-well qualified persons (Price, 1965).

A year later, in January, 1966, Senator Everett Dierkson ("Set to Hit Job Corps," Kansas City Times, January 10, 1966, p. 1) was particularly critical of the Job Corps. Because there had been instances of questionable behavior at several of the Job Corps camps and centers, Dierkson felt that these occurrences illustrated the "incompetence, mismanagement and bumbling of the Job Corps."

Another criticism of the poverty program which was heard constantly was that the poor were not given enough voice in running the program. Some contended that the poor would know more about their needs than those who had never lived in poverty. That criticism showed up in almost every city that had a poverty program. However, when elections were held so that the people could elect their own representatives to the governmental board of the Community Action Programs, only a small percentage of those of voting age turned out to vote. Elections were held over again in some places after volunteers went from house to house in each voting area to explain the need for the vote. The OFO suggested that about twenty-seven percent of the membership of the Community Action Agency Board should be from the poor themselves. Only by hearing from and planning with the people of the poverty group could the work become effective and be what the poor really wanted in the way of assistance.

William Haddad (1965) neither agreed nor disagreed with

what had been done but attempted to explain and evaluate the poverty program after its first year. Haddad stressed that the poor must identify their problems, devise solutions, and execute those decisions. Unless the poor became involved in the program there would be no chance for their needs to be met according to their own decisions. He also said that from there on the poverty program could not aristocratically arise above politics and hope for the best unless it entered the struggle and won the battle.

Members of the House Labor Committee asked for a thorough examination of the Administration's war on poverty in January, 1966. They asked (1) that a bi-partisan committee be set up to investigate the operations of the Economic Opportunity Act, (2) that an independent audit be made of the use of 2.3 billion dollars which had been appropriated to the OEO for the poverty war, and (3) that a complete management survey of the OEO be conducted by one of the nation's outstanding management consultant firms. Representative William H. Ayres, senior Republican on the committee, commented that there was "mounting evidence of scandalous misuse of funds intended to help the poor" ("Ask Probe into Poverty War," Kansas City Star, January 14, 1966, p. 3). He agreed with the President that the United States was rich enough to afford both guns (Vietnam) and butter, but said that we should make certain that the "butter was not rancid."

Although political power should not have had any effect in administering the poverty programs, it did seem to be obvious at times, especially at the local level in large cities. One group which was not connected with politics set about publicizing



the good things about the Job Corps and encouraging the enrollees. Several sports and television heroes determined to overcome the idea that there was some social stigma attached to being in the Job Corps. The group wanted to show the boys that someone cared about them and to focus fresh attention on the Job Corps. Included in the group were Don Drysdale and Sandy Koufax of the Dodger baseball team and Chuck Connors, television star. These men visited Job Corps camps, gave pep talks to the underprivileged youths, and presented panel discussions on television. They emphasized that the Job Corps was not a give-away program but was a chance for young people to rise above their birth level and to help themselves. They pointed out that the Job Corps enrollees were not always dropouts; oftentimes they just did not know what they wanted to do in life ("Series Stars Back Job Corps," Denver Post, October 29, 1965).

Vice President Humphrey evaluated the poverty program one year after its inception when he said, "We know we will have to drop or change programs that won't work. This is a pragmatic program. What's best is what works. We will have the courage to drop a program when it needs to be dropped, change where change is needed" ("Poverty Study an Endless One," Kansas City Star, November 9, 1965, p. 7).

#### Reaction of the Job Corps Women

Certain communities where the Job Corps centers were located were hostile toward the center and others backed the efforts of the centers. According to the Kansas City Times ("Woe

at Job Corps Center," January 13, 1966), St. Petersburg, Florida, was considered hostile while Omaha, Nebraska, and Charleston, West Virginia were friendly. However, in January, 1966, the center at Charleston, West Virginia, was in trouble. A few girls had to be sent home because of drunkenness, prostitution, fights, thefts, truancy, and other offenses. The problems at the Center were taken care of as quickly and quietly as possible. Because of the understanding attitude of the community, the press was not as rough on the Job Corps here as in some communities where the city administration was more critical. Many enrollees at Charleston were interviewed regarding the misconduct of roommates and other girls. The girls were reluctant to speak of problems until they were sure that they could trust the outsider. Then they could hardly wait to tell what the Job Corps meant to them and what it might make of them. Most of the girls were grateful for the chance they were getting and did not want any situation to jeopardize that chance in their lives. One girl at the Charleston Center expressed her fears when she said, "I want to make it so bad in the Job Corps, and I want the Job Corps to make it so bad. But I go to bed at night scared to death." A Negro girl expressed love for her roommates. The roommates were white and they reciprocated her feelings. A few girls stressed how they had missed their teachers and friends during the Christmas vacation.

One girl who had dropped out of the Job Corps Center in Cleveland commented, "The War on Poverty is right in trying to train people but any real solution will rest with the individual.

The poor just need some encouragement so they can go on and help themselves" ("Look at Poverty from Their Own Personal Needs," Kansas City Star, February 22, 1966).

A special edition of the Goal Getter, the newspaper published by the Omaha Job Corps Center for Women, was distributed the day of the Center's dedication, December 2, 1965. Gwen Fowler, an enrollee, wrote a column entitled, "Why Did We Join?" The girls' answers included the opportunity to complete their education or to be trained for a job. Some admitted that they had wanted to get away from the slums and their home environments. Most of the girls were satisfied and grateful for what was being done for them. However, it was understandable that there would be a few incorrigibles in each group of approximately 300 girls.

#### Research

Poverty had long been the focus of attention from economists, social and economic historians, political officials and writers, and leaders of social movements. Those professional persons who were interested found that poverty involved specific people, families, and groups with "poverty-linked" characteristics that made it difficult or even impossible for them to fit into the economy. However, in spite of historical situations, such as two world wars and the movement of 20,000,000 people from farms to cities, the great majority of Americans had been able to escape poverty. That pattern caused the leaders, both governmental and sociological, to insist that poverty could be

treated, alleviated, or even ended (Chamber of Commerce of the United States, op. cit., p. 5).

In 1964 there were 1.2 million fewer of the total population who were classified as poor, than there had been a year earlier, according to Mollie Orshansky ("Non-White Children's Plight Worst in Poverty Scale," Denver Post, August 29, 1966, p. 7), who had done most of the statistical research on poverty used by the OEO. However, the total number of the Nation's poor still stood at 34.1 million in August of 1965, just one year after the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act. Orshansky's research also showed that the poor family was more likely not to hold its children as long as other households. The pattern tends to perpetuate poverty, as these young people, poor and uneducated, start families of their own.

Economist Sylvia Porter (1964) found that millions of teenagers were cutting their education short in the same pattern as their parents. For example, one of every three boys, sixteen years old, whose parents failed to complete grade school and whose family income was \$3,000 or less, had dropped out of school. But only one of every seventeen boys in the same age group whose parents were graduated from high school and whose family income was \$7,000 or more, had dropped out of school.

The Task Force on Economic Growth and Opportunity, an independent group of one hundred leaders of industry, business, and finance, was authorized by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States to bring to bear on the broad problem of poverty the independent, nonpartisan and constructive thinking of some

of the best academic, business, and other professional leaders. Using a research approach the Task Force (Chamber of Commerce of the United States, op. cit.) made recommendations which it felt could contribute to the development of practical and effective programs to help alleviate poverty. It was recommended that all existing poverty programs be examined and evaluated in terms of whether they contribute to or detract from other policies and programs aimed at achieving high levels of economic growth and employment so there would be little or no overlapping of effort.

Leon Keyserling (1963), an economist of considerable stature, compiled information in a book titled Progress or Poverty. Two chapters of particular interest with regard to the movement to alleviate poverty were "The Personal Characteristics of the Poor" and "The Economic Characteristics of the Poor."

Color was seen as a factor in poverty when research showed that in 1963, forty-three percent of all nonwhite families in the United States lived in poverty, while only sixteen percent of all white families were classified as poor. Poverty was more prevalent among families headed by women and, even when working, women usually received less pay than men. It was cited by Keyserling that among families with a male family head and a wife in the labor force, less than nine percent lived in poverty.

Among families and unattached persons there was a very high positive correlation between the amount of education and

the amount of poverty. Of 13.5 million families whose heads had four years of high school education, ten percent lived in poverty. For families where the heads had less education, the percentage of poverty was much higher. School dropouts are most often from among poor families. The school dropout was limited in job opportunities, lower earnings, and lack of security, perhaps for the remainder of his life. Unemployment was cited as a main factor in the poverty of forty percent of all poor families (Ibid.)

The foregoing discussion of part of the study which was done before and after the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act emphasized the need for the various programs of the Act, especially those for youth. Poverty could not be alleviated without jobs for the poor, and the unskilled could not get and hold jobs. Hence, the need for the Job Corps for both men and women before they married and started the poverty cycle all over again.

#### Implications

In the light of statistics which have been compiled and observations which have been made, it is difficult to understand why there are groups which profess to believe there is no poverty problem in America. Inevitably, there are always those who are against the spending of funds regardless of the worthwhileness of an effort. There are also those who find it difficult to give of themselves in making certain that a plan will succeed. That was the situation when some dedicated people tried to assure

the success of the War on Poverty.

S. M. Miller (Riessman, et al., 1964) wrote that many misread Galbraith's book The Affluent Society. He said Galbraith was not describing America but predicting possibilities as the rich became richer and the poor became poorer. People who read The Affluent Society found it easy to believe what they wanted to believe. Therefore, some believed that the poor were few in number and disappearing through the operation of a growing economy. Others believed that the inequalities of wealth and income were being reduced.

There seemed to be a need for the affluent to understand the problems of the poor. The poor reacted to ideas in certain ways. They had a different kind of pride and their attitudes were different from those of their upper class friends. No matter how poor a family was, and no matter how hungry or needy, its members attempted to retain a sense of living the way they chose. Though many of them realized the uselessness of some of their ways, many stubbornly stuck to those ways and insisted upon their right to be wrong. These then were the poor of 1964 and 1965.

Poverty can be measured from two viewpoints, either based on income or by using the relative approach in which a specified percentage of the population is thought of as poor. One is concerned about changes in conditions relative to that of other groups in society, for these changes reflect trends in equality. The latter approach was stressed at the time of the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act, though certain

guidelines had to be set up using income as a criteria for defining poverty.

The public needed to understand the problems of the poor but also the poor needed to understand their own problems (Verrett, 1966). Most of the families who lived on welfare in the 1960's had heard of the poverty legislation, but few of them actually understood its aims and what it could do for them. Some even carried a feeling of resentment toward state and federal programs and social workers. Before a worker could effectively explain the program to them, a feeling of mutual trust and respect had to be established. Many of the poor were proud people not looking for sympathy.

Certain implications were cited by Miller (Riessman, et al., op. cit.) such as that insufficient attention had been paid to the poor; that the middle class had profited most by welfare services; and that the varied character of the poor suggested that differential policies needed to be used to reach all segments. In discussing what kinds of programs might be used to improve the conditions of the poor, Miller suggested that perhaps the public and private agencies should concentrate on educating the youth of low income groups rather than a general improvement in family and individual functioning. He contended that the young low-educated of that time were more disadvantaged than those of the same age a generation before. Because of automation, the cities could not absorb these people into the work force. Some industries closed down and the need for special skills and education had increased. Education was undoubt-



edly the escape-route from poverty for both youth and adults.

Revelle (Blakeslee, 1965) remarked, "The new idea is that education is a life-long process, that it helps you to be somebody. We need to invent ways to keep educating ourselves through adult life, to give people confidence, a sense of worthwhileness in life."

President John F. Kennedy ("American Women," Report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women, 1963) said in October, 1960, "We are at the beginning of an era when the inroads of poverty, hunger, and disease will be lessened and when men and women everywhere will have it within their power to develop their potential capacities to the maximum."

President Lyndon B. Johnson continued the trend in the thinking of our leaders when he outlined the goal of the OEO. He said, "Our aim is not to relieve the symptoms of poverty, but to cure it and, above all, to prevent it" (Price, 1965, p. 40). Many agreed that alleviation of poverty was not enough; greater emphasis was needed on prevention, rehabilitation, and economic opportunity if poverty which would breed more poverty would be ended. Training for jobs seemed the most logical way to prevent poverty. However, many a dropout failed to realize that before he could begin job training he would necessarily have to improve his reading and writing skills. That was not a simple procedure. Therefore, patience was required both from the teacher and from the trainee. Educating the educators seemed a necessary goal to be attained before much progress could be expected. For instance, even a good teacher in a predominantly

middle class school would encounter different types of problems as a teacher in Appalachia or in teaching youth in Job Corps centers who had come from Appalachia or the slums of a city.

Sargent Shriver ("First-Hand Report on 'Poverty War'," U. S. News and World Report, February 23, 1966, p. 65) stated that teachers were recruited from among those people "who were excited by a new idea, a new opportunity, a new challenge, a new difficulty." When questioned regarding criticism that the Job Corps centers tried to inculcate middle-class values in youth from the slums, Shriver felt there was nothing wrong with that and said, "If everybody who went into the Job Corps came out with middle-class values, would that be retrogression?"

One of the greatest needs in the Job Corps program was for well-trained counselors. Each enrollee has many problems or he would not have been selected for the Job Corps. Intensive counseling, involving diagnosis of his problems, was the first step for the culturally deprived youth after rapport had been established. Counselors needed to consider the traits, values, motivation, interests, and aspirations of the poor. Levine (1965) said, "Reaching youth who have never been in a local employment office, who have never known anything but an environment of disadvantage and cultural deprivation and whose aspirations and motivations do not include training for holding a job, requires people who are technically, intellectually, socially, and psychologically prepared for it." Only a certain type of person could do the job properly. He needed to understand the environment and feeling of those whom he counseled.

Levine pointed out that counselors must have "heart, courage, and dedication."

With the help of dedicated counselors and teachers, the disadvantaged could only hope to someday become effective citizens, workers, and wives through a change in environment and through counseling, education, and occupational training. The Job Corps offered these possibilities. This report, then, must be considered a plea for better trained counselors and other personnel who work with the disadvantaged; for only through this help can the disadvantaged learn to do for themselves.

No one has denied that the Job Corps is an expensive program and a dollar and cents implication cannot be avoided. However, keeping a family on social welfare for the lifetime of the family is also expensive.

The cost for each trainee for the first year of the Job Corps ending June 30, 1966, was approximately \$7,700. The projected cost for the following year is about \$5,800 (Moore, 1966<sup>a</sup>). Robert Hoffman, director of the Job Corps for eleven midwestern states said that considering the Job Corps would probably be around for several years, that perhaps it was not so expensive after all. Hoffman pointed out that the high costs of the first couple of years might be compared to a motor car company completely retooling in order to come out with an entirely different product, and charging the whole thing off in the first year or two.

The economic aspect cannot be ignored and being able to get and keep a job after training is a main concern of the enrol-

lso and the administrators of the Job Corps program. The program is too young for conclusions in this area. However, the writer would suggest follow-up research on those "graduating" from the centers. Were the enrollees trained in the best possible way and for the right jobs? Were the youth able to keep a job even after getting one?

As nearly as possible the entire poverty program should be removed from politics. Also, more effort should be made to "sell" the centers to the communities. Director Singletary ("Job Corps Enters New Phase in Work," Kansas City Times, December 20, 1965) said everyone could name the four or five centers in which there had been trouble but he doubted that many people could name the other seventy centers where things had gone smoothly and public relations were good.

The personal development of the girl is the main goal, and Dr. Bennetta Washington believes these girls are the bleakest in the whole poverty picture. Human welfare must not be ignored as a factor in a strong nation.

These girls are of double concern because of the grave influence on the lives of succeeding generations. Women who are poor are likely not only to remain poor the rest of their own lives but also to raise children who will be deprived physically, educationally, and culturally. One of the most tragic aspects of poverty is that it is passed on from generation to generation. (Porter, 1965).

The writer agrees with Emerson who said, "The reward of a thing well done is to have done it." The reward for the Job Corps girls and others in poverty will be learning to do for themselves what others could already do.

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THE JOB CORPS FOR WOMEN

by

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After 1929, when the economic situation in the United States was of great concern to all, until 1963 there was a steady increase in family income. The improvement in the situation was so obvious that a large part of the population believed there was no poverty. As American society became more affluent, it was evident that among the poor were those with little education, fatherless families, aged poor, rural poor, and those displaced from jobs because of technological advancements.

A part of the better educated population began to realize that there could be cultural as well as economic poverty. The problems of the poor were many and varied. Gradually society became aware that there was poverty of a kind which would require the involvement of many people if it were to be alleviated. The problem was more than an economic one.

For many years it was considered much more important to prepare men than women for jobs, yet many women now work away from home and need to be trained in a saleable skill. For women in poverty the Job Corps seemed to be an answer.

The Congress of the United States passed the Economic Opportunity Act in August, 1964. The various parts of the Act were designed to improve the lives of specific groups of people. Title I of the Economic Opportunity Act provided for the Job Corps for both men and women.

The Job Corps was a program for youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one who were not in school but who were looking for jobs. The centers for the men were both urban and

rural while the centers for women were entirely urban. The plan was for the youth to be taught job skills and basic education and thereby be better prepared to enter the job world upon leaving the Corps. Only young people whose families were in the poverty group could apply. After a screening process, the enrollee was sent to a center at least two hundred miles from home. The enrollee was given clothing, board, room, medical care, spending money, and, upon leaving the Corps, a stipend of fifty dollars for each month of satisfactory service. Enrollees could be of any race or religion.

By June, 1966, there were seven Job Corps centers for women. The center which the writer visited was at Omaha, Nebraska, where the Burroughs Corporation had contracted for and had established a center. This center was selected as one example. Three hundred young women, of whom fifty percent were Negroes, were being trained in job skills. The physical facilities were adequate and the staff seemed excellent.

During 1965 and 1966 there was much criticism of the Job Corps and the entire poverty program. There is a continual need for more counselors and a faculty which is aware of the special problems of the culturally deprived youth.

The Job Corps was only one of many programs provided for by the Economic Opportunity Act but one of the most extensive.

