

AN EXPLORATION OF MANPOWER PLANNING
IN THE RURAL ENVIRONMENT

by

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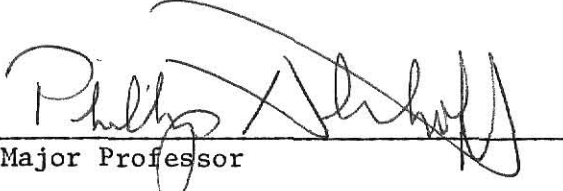
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CHAPTER I

RURAL MANPOWER PLANNING: GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Introduction

In these times of rising unemployment rates and changing technological labor requirements, manpower planning has become a primary concern of decision-makers at all levels of government. Manpower planning has taken many forms in the past. However its present operational definition is that of creating activities and services that would eliminate barriers so that the unemployed and the underemployed might gain meaningful employment.

The word, manpower, is a fairly new addition to the lexicon but there have always been manpower policies in the largest sense of the term--namely, ". . . policies affecting the size, skills and disposition of the working forces."¹ Indeed, one of the problems of defining manpower programs results from their varying forms through history. Immigration, slavery, land laws, and universal education policies were all essentially manpower policies and today manpower decisions are among the most important decisions made by national, state and local elected officials.² In recent years however, special concern over manpower policies has focused upon remedial programs, such as training, including support services, for those who need aid in finding a job immediately, developing adequate and competitive job skills, and in general, adjusting the un- or under-employed to the world of work. Some programs focus on the supply side of the labor market (i.e., on preparing the disadvantaged for gainful employment); other programs are directed toward

the demand side (i.e., toward opening doors for disadvantaged workers by subsidizing employers); finally, certain programs simply seek to improve the functioning of the labor market by attempting to match the supply and demand more effectively, and efficiently providing government controls that set standards, including minimum standards for low-income employment.³

The thrust of federal manpower policy since approximately 1966 has been in the direction of local labor market planning. This focus, perhaps better viewed as bias, has been hidden beneath terms like "coordination," "consolidation," "decentralization," "decategorization," and "special revenue sharing."

However, if planning is a process of attempting to devise solutions, the determination of the appropriate agency or level of government that would have the authority to make these determinations is what the overwhelming majority of the furor in manpower legislation and administrative policy over the last decade has been concerned with. For example, while local labor market planning is designed to create the greatest possible impact on the individuals served, these individuals, the un- and under-employed, have the smallest voice in the relevant decision making processes determining how the programs are formed and how they are adapted to the local environment. Those individuals who have the largest voice in the relevant decision making processes have been traditionally the program contractors (i.e., those agencies actually responsible for delivering manpower services to the local community). Generally, the program contractors have been local agencies formed for the primary purpose of delivering social and economic programs that provide such services as winterization and nutrition services for the aged, family planning services, legal services and other related supportive services to the disadvantaged.

Ironically, the chief resistance to local labor market planning has been from elements within the local areas themselves. The resistance has primarily

been from local program contractors who generally desired manpower planning to be accomplished in a way that was conducive to the perpetuation of the agency rather than the satisfying of needs of the disadvantaged.⁴ Any trend which would involve additional representation from all the relevant population categories in a given community involved in the planning process might jeopardize the status of a particular program contractor agency. Thus, it could well be the case that the agency is not capable, essentially due to limited input of delivering services adequately.

The resistance of program contractors to input from other community representatives concerning the manpower planning process has traditionally been a controversial subject at all levels of government. The thrust of federal manpower policy during the past decade has been in almost direct confrontation to the philosophies of local program contractors. That is, while the federal manpower administration has pushed for input to the manpower planning process from more segments of the community, the local program contractors have pushed for the input to be limited to primarily themselves.

The General Development of Manpower Planning

There have been several stages in the trend toward local area planning. These include: (1) the early attempts (1962 to 1964) to coordinate manpower programs focused consistently on the needs of certain common target groups such as underemployed women heads of household; (2) the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) (1964) which sought to consolidate all manpower programs under one roof in census tract areas which were marked by high levels of poverty; (3) the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) (1967) which sought to initiate parallel planning, in the form of advisory committees (called Camps Committees) represented by various business, social, and governmental elements within designated geographic areas; and (4) finally, the

decentralization-decategorization movement (1969) to give local elected officials the authority to adapt program offerings to the realities of their communities and to the needs of relevant individuals in their communities a movement which culminated in the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973.⁵ Throughout all these stages, the main thrust of these policy changes has been in the direction of local community involvement in decisions concerning manpower activities.⁶

During all stages, identifying problems, choosing objectives, examining alternatives, and implementing, monitoring, evaluating, and modifying programs have been traditional duties of the manpower planner. These duties consist essentially of determining who to serve and what types of employment to seek for them, of identifying the barriers which stand between them and satisfactory employment, of deciding what mix of services which seem most likely to overcome these barriers, of choosing the most efficient and effective system of delivery for this mix, and finally, of monitoring and evaluating the overall program. The most important factor which should be considered, given the continuation of the trend to localize manpower planning, is the nature of the local environment in which these duties must be performed.

Determining the characteristics of a local environment in relevance to manpower planning involves more than simply determining the employment needs of a given target population, since these needs are created or at least highly conditioned by environment. Appropriate identification of the specific nature of controlling elements within a specific environment should determine the employment needs of a given target population in terms of relative solutions. Relative solutions would be those that would solve the employment needs of a target population by eliminating or by effectively combating those forces of a local environment that would create barriers to employment.

There are many specific types of local environments within which manpower planning may be carried out. These range from relatively densely populated areas, such as Wichita, Kansas, with a population of 263,801, all of which is primarily located in one county, to relatively sparsely populated, essentially rural areas, such as Area I of the State of Kansas Balance of State (BOS) planning area which has a population of 330,804 scattered throughout 45 counties (i.e., 40,066 square miles).⁷ Of course, there are differences other than population size and density, e.g., the economic and political characteristics of a given area; however, the population size and density figures presented above illustrate that basically two very different general categories of local environments are involved in the administration of manpower planning programs. A BOS manpower planning area such as Area I represents a rural planning area while Wichita represents an urban planning area.

The General Focus of This Study

This study will focus upon the rural manpower planning area since the provisions of past and currently in force manpower planning legislation have been designed to accomodate the problems of un- and under-employed in the urban milieu, and since these programs therefore must be adjusted so that they can be applied to the rural manpower planning area. Not only the system of delivering manpower services, but also the services themselves must be modified in order to accomodate certain special problems generally existing in the rural planning area. This study will attempt to delineate the rural environment in terms of manpower needs and services and to illustrate what kinds of services are needed as well as how they should be delivered efficiently and effectively in the rural manpower planning area. As suggested above, traditionally manpower planning programs have not had much effect

on the rural environment since manpower program planners have attempted to apply urban orientated solutions to rural problems. The general result of this attempt has been the continuing outmigration of unskilled workers from rural areas to urban centers. Although the lack of adequate manpower planning is only one of the several reasons for this outmigration, it has the unfortunate spinoff effect of expanding rapidly the size of the unskilled and thus noncompetitive urban labor force.

Much has been written about manpower planning in the urban setting, and rightfully so, since this is the primary location of high unemployment rates, and thus of increasing poverty levels as well as the setting in which the technological changes are the most evident.⁹ Simply stated, there are more people in the urban setting who are in need of manpower services. As a result, this is where more of the funds for manpower planning are allocated and disbursed. Monies appropriated for manpower planning programs are divided almost proportionally among those areas where: (1) the population is greater; (2) the unemployment rate is higher; and (3) the poverty and welfare levels are higher. Consequently, the overwhelming majority of the relevant literature concerning policy and planning deals with the urban area, simply that is where the need is most obvious, where the bulk of available funds are spent, and where, since at least the mid-1960's, political power is concentrated.

However, a key question at this point is: why do the urban areas continue to experience ever growing unemployment rates and poverty and welfare levels? Among the many potential reasons could be that the past and currently in force manpower planning programs have not been sufficient to deal efficiently and effectively with their environments; but a second, and perhaps more important reason could be the mass migration of people from the rural to the urban areas, people who generally are unable to compete in the urban

labor market because of their lack of demanded skills. This migration pattern could be due in large part to the lack of or more likely inefficient and ineffective manpower planning in the rural areas. It is obvious that urban areas are experiencing great difficulties in attempting to hold the line regarding their unemployment rates and poverty and welfare levels. What they do not need is the addition of essentially unskilled rural workers to their already sizeable labor force. Rural manpower planning can play a key role in the future of the urban labor picture if it can succeed in preventing rural workers from migrating to the urban areas by employing them in their own, or perhaps another rural community, or failing in this, allowing them to migrate these urban with demanded skills.

The general focus of this study will be on the difficulty of adjusting a manpower program to the rural environment. To explain why this process is so difficult the accomplishment of efficient and effective manpower planning may be characterized as a dependent variable and the employment, population, and political characteristic of the manpower planning areas may be characterized as independent variables. These independent variables are products of the local environment. The primary contention of this study is that products of the environment do effect the nature and complexity of the manpower planning area. Since most manpower planning guides issued by the federal government are primarily concerned with urban areas, urban planning techniques are being used to design manpower planning programs in rural areas. An explanation of the employment, population, and political characteristics of the rural environment in terms of manpower needs and problems may explain the difficulty and the importance of designing applicable rural manpower programs in the rural manpower planning area.

The Nature of the Rural Manpower Planning Area

In order to illustrate the general characteristics of a rural manpower planning area, I shall examine in some detail Area III of the Kansas BOS manpower planning area. This Area was selected primarily because its characteristics are relatively typical of an average rural manpower planning area, especially in the midwestern and western states. The Kansas BOS planning area represents all political jurisdictions in Kansas except those of urban centers with populations of 100,000 or more (i.e., everything except Wichita, Topeka and Kansas City). The BOS area is also divided into five separate rural planning areas because of various economic, geographic, and population differences in various parts of the state. These differences are minor however, when compared to the differences between rural and urban planning areas and there are many similar manpower problems that each of the rural manpower planning areas face. The five rural manpower planning areas in Kansas BOS are: Area I or Western Kansas Manpower Planning Area (Cheyenne, Sherman, Wallace, Greeley, Hamilton, Stanton, Morton, Rawlins, Thomas, Logan, Wichita, Kearny, Grant, Stevens, Scott, Finney, Haskell, Seward, Decatur, Sheridan, Gove, Lane, Gray, Meade, Norton, Graham, Trego, Ness, Hodgeman, Ford, Clark, Phillips, Rooks, Ellis, Rush, Pawnee, Edwards, Kiowa, Comanche, Smith, Osborne, Russell, Barton, Stafford, Pratt, and Barber Counties); Area II or South Central Manpower Planning Area (Rice, Reno, Kingman, Harper, McPherson, Harvey, Sedgwick, Sumner, Butler, Cowley, Greenwood, Elk, and Chautauqua Counties); Area III or North Central Manpower Planning Area (Jewell, Mitchell, Lincoln, Ellsworth, Republic, Cloud, Ottawa, Saline, Clay, Dickinson, Marion, Riley, Geary, Morris, Chase, Pottawatomie, Wabaunsee and Lyon Counties); Area IV or Southeast Manpower Planning Area (Woodson, Wilson, Montgomery, Allen, Neosho, LaBette, Bourbon, Crawford,

and Cherokee Counties); and finally, Area V or Northeast Manpower Planning Area (Washington, Marshall, Nemaha, Jackson, Shawnee, Osage, Coffey, Brown, Doniphan, Atchison, Jefferson, Douglas, Franklin, Anderson, Miami, and Linn Counties).¹⁰

Area III is essentially an average rural manpower planning area in terms of geographic area (18 counties), population (275,821), growth centers (4), and economic base (agriculture). The growth centers (i.e., Emporia, Junction City, Manhattan, and Salina) tend to depend primarily on agriculture rather than on businesses and industries for its primary economic base. In these growth centers however, manufacturing and government usually pay the highest wages, job location (i.e., the growth center in which the work is located), rather than job title (i.e., the precise nature of the work), seems to determine the salary or wage paid for a given job. For example, a welder may earn \$2.50 an hour in one part of the area, while the same welder may earn \$3.50 an hour in another part of the area.

As regards manpower planning in general, this is a problem generally not found in the urban settings. The urban environment is composed of a limited geographic area; and since manpower planning programs have been designed with urban problems primarily in mind, they are not really adequate to deal with the various, and possibly conflicting geographical sections within a rural manpower planning area.

Area III is approximately 150 miles square with, as stated above, a total population of 275,821 dispersed over 18 counties. This obviously contrasts sharply with any given urban manpower planning area which may have about the same population, but which would be concentrated in one, two or perhaps three counties. The availability of services is obviously much less to the widely distributed population of the rural manpower planning area

than it is to the compact population of the urban manpower planning area. While the client of an urban manpower planning system may, in some cases, have to travel across the city or even the urban area to take advantage of an employment possibility not available close to his/her home, the client of a rural manpower planning system may have to travel as much as a hundred miles in order to gain the same advantage. This situation creates a serious problem concerning transportation services, or perhaps relocation services, that would not be especially pressing in the urban manpower planning system.

The dispersed nature of the population of a rural manpower planning area has certain spinoff effects. For example, Area III, like other rural manpower planning areas, has little concentration of service resources; specifically, each community in the area has its own utility services and service maintenance systems. No single community in the area can afford the level of service resources that could be made available if the population of the entire manpower planning area were under the authority of one political jurisdiction, especially as regards to taxing and spending policy decisions.

In order to detail this general problem somewhat, it should be pointed out that there are 980 units of local planning of one sort or another as well as many other local government agencies in Area III.¹¹ One hundred and twenty-four of these are city governments, 18 are county governments, 315 are township governments, 47 are school districts, 494 are other regional governmental and/or planning units. With this many political jurisdictions in one manpower planning area, it is not difficult to realize that a general lack of cooperation as well as efficiency and effectiveness in service resources distribution exists.

Importantly, the lack of concentration of service resources generally discourages industries, especially larger industries, from locating in the

area. That is to say, not only the lack of qualified available manpower services, but also the lack of industrial as well as governmental unity discourages industries from investing large sums of capital in any one section of a rural manpower planning area. Consequently, there exists in the rural manpower planning area, numerous small industries instead of the perhaps fewer, but much larger ones which exist in the urban manpower planning area. The recruitment of manufacturing industries, a desired goal in any type of manpower planning area, is not a very realistic goal in most rural manpower planning areas, since, in addition to the problems already noted, manufacturing industries require the ready availability of significantly large supplies of raw materials, power, and various finished goods as well as routes of transportation. Due in part to the absence of anything even approaching centralized planning in rural areas until relatively recently, factors of industrial production are usually not available in Rural America.

Another characteristic of the rural manpower planning area is that there may be one or more "pockets" in the area which are culturally and economically very different from the remainder of that area. For example, in Area I there exists numerous previously migrant workers who have settled in the Garden City area. These individuals have special needs which differ from those of most of the remainder of the population in Area I. They originally migrated from Mexico and/or from Mexican-American culture concentrations in other states, primarily Texas, thus require services, such as bilingual education classes and assistance in learning at least the unique work orientated customs of the midwest as well as orientation to such pre-employment fundamentals, proper job application procedures, employer requirements, and employee rights.

A somewhat similar situation exists in Area III in Geary County, and to a certain extent in Riley County where Fort Riley is located. On numerous

occasions relatives and/or friends of soldiers stationed at Fort Riley remain in the area after military commitments of their relatives and/or friends at the Fort have been terminated. These individuals generally remain in the area either because they qualify for certain benefits at the Fort or because they simply do not have the financial resources to relocate. These individuals are usually unfamiliar with the various employment opportunities and services available, and this unfamiliarity creates an additional barrier to employment for these people.

Also in Area III, a special situation exists in Geary County--namely, it ranks second among all Kansas counties in terms of percentage of Blacks (13.2 percent); given the county's total population. This is sort of unique since Area III is 98 percent White.¹² These individuals face additional barriers to employment, barriers not faced by the average disadvantaged person in Area III. They face mental barriers created by the emotional pressure of the surrounding, and many times prejudicial White population, and physical barriers created by the lack of meaningful employment opportunities in the Geary County area. Because of the existence of racial prejudice commonly found in the predominantly White rural communities in the area, the Black population of Geary County is reluctant to leave their immediate location, and predominantly rural communities are reluctant to allow Blacks into their neighborhoods. Blacks are not only mistrusting of White employers, but are also reluctant to apply for services from agencies staffed by Whites for aid in improving their employment potentials. The employment orientated problems of Blacks are clearly different from those of the rest of the Non-Black disadvantaged of Area III, but they make up an important part of the total disadvantaged population of the area and thus must be considered as significant in the overall manpower planning process for the area.

If Area III is a relatively average rural manpower planning area, then planning systems applicable to this area should tend to be applicable to other rural manpower planning areas. It should be obvious that each area has its own specific issues of concern, but the basic problems concerning the general areas among other things, transportation and relocation, job opportunities, governmental planning and cooperation, "pocket" populations, and availabilities of all kinds of services suggest that rural areas are quite distinct from urban areas in terms of both solutions to manpower problems and the various applications of those solutions. Of course, fluctuations in the national economy affect the rural as well as the urban population, but the nature of the rural environment means that certain specific types of variables tend to complicate the situation.

The Nature of Operational Manpower Planning

For a manpower planning system to be efficient and effective in eliminating the various barriers to employment to the disadvantaged, whether rural or urban, it must deal with many existing and potential variables, but there are three essential questions that the planners in the system should answer: (1) for what kinds of employment can the enrollees in the program be prepared; (2) how can the disadvantaged be recruited into the program; and (3) how can the system implement policies designed to eliminate barriers to employment. It is significant that given these three questions, there are two "hows" and one "what." The "hows" in manpower planning are more important than the "what" because if a program is not workable in a given environment, be it rural or urban, then it is not practical and thus is a waste of the taxpayer's money.

The determination of who should be trained is one set of issues, but determining precisely how to recruit the target population and precisely

how to train them with what resources, in terms of the local environment of course, are added dimensions which are particularly important in the rural manpower planning area.

The first question--for what kinds of employment can the enrollees in the program be prepared--concerns projecting all existing and all realistically potential employment possibilities. In this regard, the rural manpower planner may have to improvise more than his/her urban counterpart. In the rural area there may be few, if any jobs, at least in the immediate vicinity and/or there may not be adequate training facilities readily available. The rural manpower planner then must determine the feasibility of program enrollee traveling or relocating in order to take advantage of a job opportunity and/or the training necessary to qualify for that, or for any other, employment opportunity.

The problems involved in determining public and private employment opportunities in the rural manpower planning area concern more than the characteristics of the area. They also concern the economic and social attitudes of the citizens, as well as the cultural framework and economic development level of each specific community in the area. The nature of the governmental institutions access to means of transportation, the availability of resources in general, will also aid in determining a community's economic base. If governmental institutions such as universities and sizeable governmental agencies are present, then usually the economic base will be centered around public employment. However, if there are sufficient resources for industrial development and if the local decision makers desire and can recruit industry, then usually the economic base will be centered around private employment. In many rural localities unfortunately, neither condition is present so that the determination of the nature of quality employment in the locality

depends on local attitudes and community involvement in meeting the needs of the disadvantaged.

The second question--how can the disadvantaged be recruited into the program--concerns defining the barriers to employment for the disadvantaged and the methods of recruiting them into the manpower program. Above it was indicated that the environment must be understood so as to define the relevant manpower problems and to devise solutions to those problems. In the case of the rural manpower planning area, the basic problem is the invisability--to the manpower planner at least--of the disadvantaged portion of the total population because of both the geographic dispersal of the population and the general mistrust of local governmental agencies.

The third question--how can the system implement policies to eliminate barriers to employment--concerns the utilization of local resources to efficiently and effectively deliver manpower oriented services. The determination of which local resource will be productive and which may be counter-productive, in terms of the delivery manpower orientated services, can be a difficult process in a rural area because of the variations in local communities in general and because of the variations in local social service organizations in specific. Some of these organizations may wish to perform their functions in traditional manners not necessarily conducive to manpower planning goals and objectives. Therefore, the rural manpower planner must design a specific system to deliver manpower services over an area which is perhaps twenty times larger geographically than that of an urban area. In addition, he/she will have to develop a specific system that is applicable to many different kinds of local environments and political jurisdictions. The degree to which a manpower planner answers the questions of for what kinds of employment can the enrollees be prepared, how can the

disadvantaged be recruited into the program, and how can the system implement policies designed to eliminate barriers to employment will determine the efficientness and effectiveness of his/her design of an applicable manpower operational system.

Conclusions

Although manpower planning has been around in a general sense for years, it has only become a reality in its present state in the rural environment during the last couple of years. Manpower planning as a process of eliminating barriers to employment for the disadvantaged has mostly been an activity of the urban environment because of its concentrations of people and power. Now however, with the advent of rural manpower planning, new barriers to employment may be faced as well as new population characteristics and new political jurisdictions. Manpower planning systems of the past have been designed to urban manpower and to operate in an urban milieu. The rural environment is different however in terms of geographic size, location of population, size of industries, economic base, and political jurisdictions and consequently, a different type of manpower planning system must be designed to assure efficient and effective delivery of manpower services to the rural environment. This must be accomplished in an atmosphere of hostility created by inexperienced and uncooperative local elected officials and jealous former manpower program contractors.

To discuss the legislative background of manpower planning programs and the basic factors surrounding the three questions of operational manpower planning in the rural environment, this study will be divided into four parts with each part being discussed in Chapters II through V. Chapter II will discuss past and current manpower legislation and the administrative and eligibility requirements of the present legislation. It will explain the

evolvment of federal manpower policy since 1962 and how that pattern of evolvment has created an interesting and sometimes even hostile atmosphere for present day manpower planners. Chapter III will discuss the problems of determining what jobs the disadvantaged must be trained for and how that process is much more complicated in the rural manpower planning area than it is in the urban manpower planning area. The primary area of concern will be the accurate determination of employment opportunities and employer attitudes in the rural manpower planning area. Chapter IV will discuss the problems of determining the characteristics of the disadvantaged in the rural manpower planning area. The second operational question of--how can the disadvantaged be recruited into the program--begs to know what the characteristics of the recruited population are. The primary area of concern in this discussion will be to deliniate the differences between rural and urban disadvantaged populations. Chapter V discusses the problems involved in implementing a manpower operational system that will be designed to eliminate the barriers to employment for the disadvantaged. The primary area of concern will be to illustrate the difference of rural and urban forces that create barriers to employment. These four divisions of discussion should present a comprehensive rationale for the need for a different type of manpower planning in the rural area and a realistic explanation of why rural manpower planning has not yet reached the degree of efficiency attained by urban manpower planning.

CHAPTER I

FOOTNOTES

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CHAPTER II

THE EVOLUTION AND PRESENT STATUS OF COMPREHENSIVE MANPOWER PLANNING

Introduction

The discussion in this chapter is divided into three parts: (1) a brief history of comprehensive manpower legislation; (2) an explanation of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973; and (3) the administration of CETA programs. The three parts of this discussion explain what historical legislative actions and failures led to the formation of CETA and how the goals and objectives of the current legislation correct or approach differently the mistakes of past legislative attempts. They will also explain the administrative structure under which CETA are to be delivered.

In order to thoroughly discuss manpower planning today, one should understand the evolution of comprehensive manpower legislation. One should be knowledgeable about the present act (CETA) and the circumstances that led up to its creation, since CETA is the culmination of several years of legislative attempts to combat rising unemployment levels in the United States. There were some successes and failures in earlier attempts, but each piece of legislation only attempted to correct the failures of its predecessor. CETA, then, is the current evolutionary culmination of manpower planning legislation but undoubtedly it will not be the last. Changing conditions in the cultural environment and the emergence of new ideas will necessitate

new legislation in the future. The degree to which CETA has improved manpower planning will be determined eventually by the employment opportunities it is able to provide constructively to the disadvantaged population of the country.

A Brief History of Comprehensive Manpower Legislation

Comprehensive manpower planning involves the process of bringing together under one roof several categorical manpower programs (i.e., programs each designed for a single purpose such as providing skill training). Its goal is to do away with duplication of services and allow planning to be done in terms of the needs of the area to be served, rather than in terms of needs of the program deliverer (i.e., the agency responsible for actually delivering one or more manpower services). When manpower planning was discussed in the 1940's and the 1950's, the discussion would encompass a wide range of legislative attempts and administrative agencies. For example, the Department of Labor (DOL), the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW), and the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) all had programs that fell under the general heading of manpower.¹ Some programs provided grants so that clients could afford skill training, while others provided funds to build facilities that would provide training for the unemployed. Some programs were designed to provide manpower services to all disadvantaged, while others were designed to serve specific target groups with specific barriers to employment. There were manpower programs designed to provide work experience for working age adults; others were designed to provide work experience for older citizens, and still others were designed to provide work experience for youth. The program deliverer was both the planner and evaluator of these categorical programs.

The first attempt to consolidate these categorical programs was the

passage of the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962. It provided initially for the research of employment problems, both on a national and on a local basis, and later through amendments for provisions that would allow for comprehensive rather than for categorical manpower planning. Thus, the overall effect of manpower planning programs were to be researched and evaluated on a comprehensive rather than an individual basis. MDTA was the second (after the Area Redevelopment Act) of the New Frontier-Great Society poverty programs and the first to survive the rigors of political and economic experience. It was developed because, in spite of the fact that there were several manpower programs in existence, the unemployment rate was rising gradually each year. MDTA was important because it established a pattern that influenced the manpower and the antipoverty programs which followed.² It established a procedure for evaluating the needs for services based on the total situation of a community rather than upon a community's need for one particular service.

MDTA was established with two main titles. Title I was concerned with research and evaluation, Title II was concerned with the actual program activities. Both Titles were amended several times between 1962, when the act was created, and 1969, when it was realized that an entirely new piece of legislation was needed.

Title I provided for the establishment of a National Manpower Advisory Committee with members drawn from labor, management and the general public. In addition, advisory groups with similar memberships were to be set up on the state and the local levels. Initially, the act required 50 percent matching funds from the localities, but this was lowered to 10 percent by subsequent amendments. The main requirement of Title I, which was contained in all the amendments, was the Manpower Report to the President. This report

was prepared by the Manpower Advisory Committee and was supposed to study the progress of manpower planning programs for that year and to analyze their effects. This study was supposed to serve as a basis for next years manpower planning process. Reports were to be made also at the local level to serve as a basis for devising specific plans in each community. Designers of the legislation felt that the most constructive and unbiased advice on manpower needs could be obtained through advisory groups representing all segments of the employment community both at the national and at the local levels.³ The advisory groups were to include program deliverers, but their input was to be only technical in nature. Program deliverers were to present program information, while the rest of the group made evaluations and recommendations.

The initial expectation of Congress, when it passed Title II, was that the act would provide for one-third of the program funds being spent for on the job training (OJT) activities and two-thirds of the program funds being spent for classroom training activities.⁴ Instead, the proportion of funds spent for OJT was only six percent in 1963, 12 percent in 1964, and 19 percent in 1965.⁵ OJT involved subsidizing an employer for half of an employee's salary for a certain length of time if that employer would agree to train and hire a disadvantaged person. Key congressional figures and many advisory groups complained periodically that the OJT program had not filled their expectations, but the lack of activity in this area continued for two reasons: (1) the vocational education organizations had a powerful lobby that put constant pressure on the DOL to emphasize classroom skill training, and perhaps more importantly, (2) the promotion of OJT was more difficult than development of institutional projects. Specifically, employers were still hesitant to hire disadvantaged workers even though they were subsidized; and they could afford to be choosy because there was a surplus of workers

in the available labor market.

Although MDTA had to its credit numerous accomplishments which more than justified its cost, it did not achieve its original goal. Its original goal was to lower the national unemployment rate which had been rising since 1955. The act was passed under the assumption that widespread job vacancies could be filled by providing skills for the unemployed. The assumption was unjustified because many people were unable to qualify for the program and because those originally unemployed continued to find it difficult to find employment.⁶

However, as mentioned above, there were several accomplishments. Tens of thousands of people were trained under the act and were employed more steadily and thus earned higher incomes than they probably would have if they had not participated in the program. The Annual Manpower Report to the President summarized the accomplishments of various manpower planning programs throughout the country and evaluated them in terms of the obtainment of the goals and objectives of MDTA. The accomplishments raised the manpower planning policy to a position second only to fiscal and monetary policy in the hierarchy of economic policy-making. As a result, federal, state and local governments were involved through advisory committees in various forms of manpower planning for the first time. MDTA's experimental projects developed new tools for serving the disadvantaged and the unemployed, tools which were to become basic strategies in the "War Against Poverty."

The primary indicator of the success of manpower planning programs, the unemployment rate, failed to be affected by the MDTA programs. Even with the advent of structural changes provided by MDTA, categorical programs were still not efficiently and effectively helping the people they were designed to serve. Amendments as early as 1964 began to be added to both

titles of the legislation in order to correct this inadequacy. Thus, more encouragement would be given in Title I, and provisions for an expanded variety of programs would be provided in Title II.

Since program deliverers were ignoring the advice of advisory groups, MDTA program administrators decided to provide additional input by promoting more and better participation. Attendance at meetings, especially at the local levels, had been sparse because of lack of interest. Local elected officials were not interested in participating because it meant another project involving money and time devoted to a problem that was not very visible. Manpower planning simply was not a high priority with local officials who were concerned primarily with capital improvements, housing, and economic development, etc. Local employers were not interested in attending manpower planning meetings because they were not currently in need of labor. In some cases, employers were looking for cheap labor, but MDTA programs did not seem to provide a highly profitable vehicle for recruiting this type of labor. Because of the local apathy concerning manpower planning, most local advisory groups merely rubber stamped the recommendations of program deliverers to allow manpower to remain under their control.

In order to combat this apathy at the local level, amendments were added to Title I designed to lower the cost of manpower planning to local governments. The maintaining cost of local advisory groups were reduced from 50 percent to 10 percent. More and better participation urged, and DOL officials came personally into the field to stress the importance of the advisory groups. More and better participation was also encouraged at the national level. MDTA officials met with national business leaders to discuss labor needs and ways in which MDTA could be used to help the disadvantaged and the unemployed gain meaningful employment. Some positive results did result

from these meetings. OJT program activity became more popular by the end of 1965 because of the tightening labor market, and because of the discussions between MDTA and national business leaders. Large corporate organizations began to take advantage of the availability of subsidized employment. A contract was signed with the National Tool, Die and Precision Machining Association under which it hired 1200 people under OJT contracts. Contracts were also written with the National Tire Dealers and Retreaders Association and the Chrysler Corporation.⁷

Amendments were added to Title II to provide for programs other than just OJT and Skill Training. Programs for ethnic groups, youth and older citizens were provided that were similar to the categorical programs established before MDTA. The difference was now there was supposed to be a central manpower planning system that would eliminate duplication of effort and create constructive use of tax dollars. The creation of more programs meant the creation of more program deliverers to exert pressure on local advisory groups.. Although more and better participation in the advisory groups was generated by the reduced costs, and federal executive branch encouragement, the local and national advisory groups were still finding it difficult to provide adequate input into the manpower planning process. Their limited resources were not sufficient to evaluate the volume of information about each manpower planning program and to handle all the pressure being exerted by program deliverers.

The program deliverers were not anxious for the advisory groups to achieve credibility because they wanted to continue controlling their own planning processes. The delivering of manpower programs was becoming a "big business" and many program deliverers were making huge profits due to MDTA spending in certain areas. Skill training in particular was a highly profitable

activity.⁷ By the end of 1967, there were 108 training facilities, used exclusively for MDTA programs, located throughout the country. With a total training capacity of over 67,000, between 70 and 80 of these sites met the legal definition of a skill training center (i.e., a central facility serving all types of training programs and providing counseling, prevocational training, basic education, and skill training in a wide variety of occupations). All of the centers contracted directly with the federal government for funds were especially interested in promoting their services because they had a lot of money invested in facilities.

Not only were skill training institutions continuing to control their own planning process, but the program deliverers of other manpower programs such as youth and elderly work experience programs were also interested in controlling their own planning processes, either by influencing the local advisory group input or by ignoring their advice. Many times program deliverers for ethnic groups, youth, and older citizens were established almost entirely for the purpose of delivering programs to these population groups. They also feared centralized manpower planning because of the very nature of their existence. Many were Community Action Agencies (CAA) formed by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. They were formed to provide services for disadvantaged people who the local governments were either unable or unwilling to serve. They often worked in direct opposition to the local governments and those powerful elements that influenced the local decision making process.⁹ The relationship was relatively evenly balanced since the local governments had the power while the CAA's had the money. The CAA's feared that if the local powerful elements had the authority to make decisions about local manpower planning programs, they would probably recommend a re-routing of money from CAA's to agencies that they could control more easily. This would mean

fewer services to the disadvantaged of the community because the local governments did not consider the needs of the disadvantaged a major priority, and it would mean, incidentally, the loss of a lot of jobs for CAA personnel. These CAA's, like the skill training institutions, essentially brought the problem upon themselves as a result of their self serving type of manpower planning, but they hoped that through better manpower planning combined with resistance to comprehensive manpower planning and ideas they could retain power, the decision-making process.

By 1967 coordination of federal manpower planning programs had become a major issue. By 1967, in addition to MDTA, the Economic Opportunity Act had created the Job Corps, the Neighbor Youth Corps, the Mainstream Program, the manpower components of Community Action Programs, the New Careers, and Special Impact Programs. They were all categorical programs that did isolated manpower planning with little regard for the advisory group recommendations, even though the local advisory groups were achieving greater participation from the local communities.

With greater participation, the advisory groups were becoming more proficient in their activities, but they needed something to give them greater credibility so that local program deliverers would be prone to listen to their recommendations. In early 1967, the federal manpower planning administration won approval from these other agencies who were providing manpower planning programs for a Cooperating Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS). The Departments of Labor, Health, Education and Welfare, Commerce, Housing and Urban Development, and the Office of Economic Opportunity all agreed to cooperate in a central manpower planning system. Collectively, they would provide the local advisory groups with more funds to study local labor markets and to encourage the program deliverers to work with the

local advisory groups.

The CAMPS program was the first real attempt by federal agencies to cooperate in manpower planning. It also established more credibility for the local advisory groups. Local elected officials (specifically governors and mayors) were encouraged to establish and to participate in local advisory groups that were now to be called CAMPS committees. There were to be area, state and regional CAMPS committees. Final approval, however, of state and regional manpower plans, as well as of individual projects, would remain the prerogative of the individual federal agencies. In other words, if the federal agencies would get sufficient pressure from a given local program deliverer they could still overrule the recommendations of CAMPS committees. Although they were not becoming more powerful in terms of program design (i.e., legislatively designated authority to establish program policies and guidelines), the local CAMPS committees were performing several tasks that increased their credibility and stature. Members of the local CAMPS committees were drawn from the same categories as those members of the local advisory groups originally specified by Title I of MDTA, and their tasks were to include: (1) to act as a liaison with the National Manpower Advisory Committee; (2) to interpret the national manpower planning programs for governors and staff; (3) to promote the overall state manpower planning programs; and (4) to examine and evaluate proposals for manpower training programs.

After 1968, the complaints began to mount concerning the cost of CAMPS. Local CAMPS committees were receiving more money than before, but they were also required to perform more duties since membership in these committees was voluntary, and since the allotted funding was covering only part of the expenses necessary to thoroughly study the labor market, local participants became frustrated, especially since they felt that the program deliverers

did not listen to them anyway. They felt they could be efficient and effective only if they were given administrative, as well as planning powers for manpower programs. The national manpower planning administration began to realize that an entirely new piece of legislation would be needed to make comprehensive manpower planning operative. The powers of determining manpower program priorities would have to be taken away from the individual program deliverers and placed with organizations such as CAMPS committees, possessing the abilities to make comprehensive manpower planning decisions.

There was continuing resistance from skill training institutions and other program deliverers to this trend to consolidate manpower planning. The increasing demonstrated ability of CAMPS committees was beginning to worry the categorical program deliverers. They began to admit there was a need to consolidate manpower program planning, but were reluctant to give the authority to other elements in the community. These program deliverers began to put pressure on the national manpower administration to delay decategorization for as long as possible, much to the dismay of Congress and the Nixon Administration.

Ironically, it was not the need for decategorization that finally caused new legislation to be passed. It was the need to reduce the costs of manpower planning programs. Rodger Davidson, a proponent of then President Nixon's position on manpower planning, pointed out that there were more than a thousand different programs in existence during the late 1960's. Nixon, in his never ending battle to cut the cost of people oriented programs, first proposed the Comprehensive Manpower Reform Act in August, 1969, and introduced the Manpower Revenue Sharing Act of 1971 to Congress eighteen months later. Although neither bill passed, widespread support for manpower planning reform was evident during the congressional hearings and debates.¹⁰

In the summer of 1973, the House Select Subcommittee on Labor and the Senate Subcommittee on Employment, Poverty, and Migratory Labor began to develop new legislation in consultation with the Nixon Administration. In July the Job Training and Community Services Act of 1973 and The Comprehensive Manpower Act of 1973 were introduced. The final legislation, The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973, was developed in a House-Senate Conference Committee.

The major achievement of CETA was neither decentralization nor decategorization. This had already been attempted in 1962 with the original MDTA legislation and in 1967 with the CAMPS agreement. The major achievement of the act was the definition of the relationship between all levels of government and local program deliverers such as CAA's. In the new decentralized and decategorized system, only the mayors, the county commissioners, and the governors had statutory rights to administer manpower planning programs. The local program deliverers would have to contract with them rather than with the federal government. Local elected officials now had not only planning, but also administrative powers in local manpower activities. That is to say, they could dictate what kinds of local manpower programs would be run and who would run them.

Even though local program deliverers knew since 1969 that a reorganization of manpower planning programs would eventually occur, they still reacted with shock and dismay when the final event took place in 1973. They were hoping at least to retain some power in the manpower planning process. They could still participate in local advisory groups, which under CETA were called Planning Councils, but the tables were turned now and the local elected officials did not have to listen to the advise of the program deliverers, especially if it was different from the majority of others on the planning

council.

During the evolvement of comprehensive manpower planning, more than just the name of advisory groups changed. The advisory groups at the beginning had only the power to make suggestions. Later, as CAMPS committees, they had more funds to do quality research and to provide better input into the manpower planning process. Finally, as planning councils, they were to include local elected officials who would administer as well as plan manpower activities. Intimidation was the first reaction of local program deliverers to this latest stage of comprehensive manpower planning. They threatened to sue local governments for reasons of incompetency and favoritism, and they eventually threatened to sue the federal government because they maintained the legislation was unconstitutional. They threatened to tie up CETA program funds indefinitely through various litigations unless they could achieve their goal in having a powerful voice in the distribution of funds. The federal government and most state governments called their bluff, however, and stated that they were willing to go to court. Essentially they made the program deliverers look like the villains in the matter by pointing out that it was their various litigations that were holding up funds for programs designed for individuals in need. Consequently, the majority of litigations were dropped, but CETA was clearly off to a rocky start.

An Explanation of the Comprehensive Employment
and Training Act of 1973

The purpose of this act is ". . .to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed persons, and to assure that training and other services lead to maximum employment opportunities and enhance self sufficiency by establishing a

flexable system of federal, state and local plans . . ."¹¹ The goals and objectives are not really much different than those of post manpower legislative acts. The main difference is that CETA involves total administration of all manpower planning services. Only local elected officials would be eligible to contract with the federal government and to administer comprehensive manpower planning programs; in addition, program deliverers had to contract with the local elected officials.

CETA defines the disadvantaged as those individuals whose family income for the past twelve months is below the federal DOL poverty guidelines. The amount may vary according to family size. The guidelines are: \$2,800 a year for a single person and \$900 more a year for each additional person in the family.¹² For instance, the poverty level income for a family of a husband, a wife and two children would be \$5,500 a year. CETA originally expanded the term "disadvantaged" to include those people who were either unemployed for at least 30 days or working only parttime (i.e., less than 40 hours a week), but looking for full time work. The program was tightened to include only those people whose incomes were below the poverty guidelines because many individuals who were really not poor were quitting their jobs or reducing their weekly hours of work to qualify for CETA programs. CETA, like MDTA, wanted to concentrate on the traditionally poor, and thus those people most in need of services. The designers of CETA did not want a repeat of the same problems as in the case of the early stages of MDTA when people were quitting their jobs to qualify for additional training. Also, as with MDTA, they wanted CETA to provide a vehicle that would allow the poor to compete adequately for jobs in the local labor market.

The administrative goals of the designers of CETA were two-fold. First, they wanted to combine categorical programs into a comprehensive

system; and second, they wanted to carefully specify the administrative roles of federal, state and local governments in providing manpower planning services. The act reflected the philosophy of a Republican administration which sought local control over local programs of all types. The combination of categorical programs was supposed to make the programs more economically efficient and effective, and the responsibility for the success or failure of the programs would be placed ultimately on the local elected officials.

There are six titles in CETA. The first title, however, is the only one of prime concern to local elected officials because it provides for funds to be used at the discretion of the local elected officials to provide comprehensive manpower services that are relevant to local needs. Title II through VI provide for categorical programs that are applicable only under certain situations. While local elected officials are the only eligible applicants for Title I funds, any potential service deliverer may be eligible for the funds of Titles II through VI. The federal manpower administration still determines what agency or local elected official may deliver the categorical program by analyzing the specific situation for which the funds have become necessary.

Seventy percent of CETA allocations to states each year is for the categorical programs of Titles II through VI and the other 30 percent is the comprehensive programs of Title I. Local elected officials who qualify to apply for Title I funds are called Prime Sponsors. A Prime Sponsor is the top elected official or the designated representative of the top elected official of a political jurisdiction that includes at least 100,000 people. Title I funds are allotted to Prime Sponsors according to a formula based on the following: 50 percent of the funds are based on last years allotment; 37.5 percent is based on the number of unemployed in the Prime Sponsor

planning area; and 12.5 percent are based on the number of families with incomes below \$9,000.¹³

Prime Sponsors may utilize Title I funds to establish comprehensive manpower services such as recruitment of potential clients, orientation, counseling, testing, placement, classroom instruction, on the job training, allowances for persons in training, supportive services, and transitional public employment jobs.¹⁴ CETA, like MDTA, provides three main services that are designed to eliminate barriers to employment for the disadvantaged: (1) it provides for testing and counseling in order to determine the employment barriers of a client; (2) it provides for the acquisition of needed skills by paying tuition at an available school, as well as an allowance on which to live while the client is learning a skill; and (3) it provides work experience for a client by subsidizing an employer for a certain amount of time, depending on the situation. The specifics of the design and the mix of manpower planning programs is up to the Prime Sponsors. The amount of money devoted to any particular program depends on the defined need of the local area. The end result, however, is the placement of disadvantaged individuals in meaningful unsubsidized employment. The degree of success of each Prime Sponsor is judged by the number of placements and the costs per placement.

CETA give the state no substantial authority over local manpower planning, but it does establish state manpower planning councils, each with a staff appointed by the governor, to review and make recommendations concerning Prime Sponsor's plans and to review the result of manpower planning program operations. The Prime Sponsors do not have to accept the recommendations of these councils, but they must explain their reasons for nonacceptance to the national manpower planning administration.

The federal government still retains some degree of control in the manpower planning process. Under CETA provisions, the Prime Sponsor must design comprehensive manpower plans for each fiscal year. The federal manpower administration must approve these plans before the local Prime Sponsors can receive funding. Thus a federal supervisory role is provided for both in the prior approval of the plan, and the subsequent monitoring which is designed to insure that actual performance complies with the plan, to say nothing of statutory requirements. The federal supervisory role is limited, however, to the achievement of broad objectives rather than the details of manpower planning program design; in fact, the act specifically prohibits the federal manpower administration from disapproval of an entire plan because of opposition to one particular activity within that plan.

Prime Sponsors are thus under a lot of pressure to deliver CETA manpower planning programs constructively. They have the national manpower administration looking over their shoulders and are watched carefully by program deliverers who are jealous of their power and are waiting to point out any of their failures. The CETA structure gives Prime Sponsors a lot of flexibility to deliver manpower planning programs in a way that is in harmony with the environment. However, they require the assistance of the rest of the community to help them define the community's needs accurately and to withstand the pressures of the community's special interest groups.

The Administration of CETA Programs

CETA is administered at the national level by the Manpower Administration. This office is a branch of the Department of Labor. The Manpower Administration administers programs both at the national level through national organizations and at the local level through local Prime Sponsors. (The Manpower Administration also administers the U.S. Employment Service, the Bureau of Apprenticeship

and Training, the Unemployment Insurance Service, and the Work Incentive Program as well as CETA.)

CETA is designed to maximize local participation. The Manpower Administration must administer at least 80 percent of CETA funds through local Prime Sponsors. The local governments who qualify as Prime Sponsors by representing at least 100,000 people, may participate directly in the manpower planning process. Those local governments who do not qualify as Prime Sponsors may join one of the Prime Sponsors that represent 100,000 people in what is called a consortium or they may join the Balance-of-State Prime Sponsor. A consortium is based upon an agreement involving one or more nonqualifying governments joining a qualified Prime Sponsor to jointly apply for funds. Thus, they base their manpower planning on the total needs of the areas. If a nonqualifying local government does not wish to be included with a Prime Sponsor, it can be included in the Balance-of-State Prime Sponsorship, which is represented by the governor's office. The Balance-of-State (BOS) area includes all areas of the state without political jurisdictions of 100,000 or more people. In other words, the BOS manpower planning area represents primarily rural environments while the other Prime Sponsor planning areas represent urban manpower planning areas.

The manpower planning for the BOS area is conducted by an agency appointed by the governor's office. The BOS manpower planning area may be divided into several smaller manpower planning areas, such as Areas I through V in Kansas, but nevertheless, only one grant application is prepared for the total BOS manpower planning area. The grant application may be the sum total for each of the subplanning areas, or it may be one plan for the entire BOS area.

It is up to the responsibility of the BOS Prime Sponsor to determine

into how many subplanning areas the BOS will be divided. The shape and number of divisions will depend essentially on the population characteristics, the economic patterns, and the geographic characteristics of the proposed division. In each of these subplanning areas there must be an area task force which determines the areas need and reports it to the BOS Manpower Planning Council. These task forces are just like the advisory groups and CAMPS committees of MDTA in that they should have representation from all segments of communities. It is especially important that local elected officials be represented on the local task forces because even if they do not represent governments that qualify as Prime Sponsors, they should have some input into the manpower planning process for the area in which their government is located. As suggested above, one of the primary objectives of CETA is to place the responsibility of decision-making in the hands of local elected officials. This is just as important in the BOS manpower planning area as it is in the other Prime Sponsor manpower planning areas.

The governor qualifies as the Prime Sponsor of the BOS area because he is the highest ranking elected official in the region. The governor not only has the responsibility for submitting a plan for the BOS area, but also must establish a manpower planning council to review all the Prime Sponsor plans. Members of this council are appointed by the governor and are to represent the various interests of the state. Each year a report is made by the council to the federal Manpower Administration concerning how the plans of the various Prime Sponsors relate to one another and what the total effect will be upon the state. This council may also make recommendations to the BOS Prime Sponsor or any other Prime Sponsor concerning changes it thinks should be made in the manpower plans for that year. The Prime Sponsors do not have to accept those recommendations of the manpower planning council

but they must give written reasons why they do not accept them, both to the council and to the Manpower Administration. If the positive termination rate (i.e., rate of successful completions), is low in a given year, then the Prime Sponsor will be encouraged strongly by the Manpower Administration to heed the views of the council in the next planning year.

The positive termination rate is the primary factor used in determining the effectiveness of a Prime Sponsor as far as administering manpower planning programs are concerned. There are three ways a client may be terminated from a CETA program. The termination may be positive, neutral or negative. In order to receive a positive termination, a client must obtain unsubsidized employment for at least 90 days within at least 30 days after leaving a CETA program. In order to be considered a neutral termination, a client must enroll in some school, enter another specific CETA program, or enter the military service within 30 days after leaving a CETA program. In order to receive a negative termination, a client must remain unemployed for at least 30 days after leaving a CETA program. The success rate of a CETA program is determined by the number of positive versus negative terminations after the neutral terminations have been subtracted from the total. For example, if the total number of terminations was 12 and two were neutral, and if there were eight positive terminations and two negative terminations, then the positive termination rate would be 80 percent. If the positive termination rate were to remain low (i.e., under 60 percent), the Manpower Administration could recommend that the Prime Sponsor either change its administrative system or face the loss of CETA funds.

Prime Sponsors are given a lot of flexibility in the area of administrative structure design, but the Manpower Administration does impose a few requirements. The most important requirement is that the staff be divided into two sections:

planning and operations. Precisely how the Prime Sponsors design these two sections is essentially up to them. CETA designers felt that if planning staff was kept separate from operational staff, then specific program inadequacies would be pointed out more quickly and thus the efforts of each staff could work in a system of checks and balances.

The planning division is responsible for determining the manpower needs of a planning area. It must evaluate the characteristics of the population, the characteristics of the labor market, and any other elements in the community necessary to determine what manpower planning programs are needed as well as the best way to deliver the services specified by those programs. It must also evaluate the activities of past manpower program planning activities in order to determine if changes need to be made in the nature of the programs and/or the structure of the program service delivery system. After making the evaluations, the planning section must develop an area plan each year for the grant application.

The operational staff is responsible for day-to-day manpower planning program activities. It may either deliver manpower planning programs itself or subcontract delivery to local program deliverers. If it does subcontract the delivery, it must monitor the activities of the contracting parties to insure that those activities are achieving the goals specified by the planning section. The operational section must also collect certain data, specifically, they must collect statistics concerning client characteristics for each manpower planning program activity, for positive, negative, and neutral terminations, and for per client cost for each manpower planning program. These statistics are used by the planning section to plan for the next fiscal year and by the Manpower Administration to evaluate the quality of administration of manpower planning programs by the Prime Sponsor.

The separation of duties in this manner may lead to a more efficient and effective administration, but lack of communication between the two sections may negate all the advantages gained. The planning section may be planning for program activities that are impossible for the operations section to deliver, or the operations section may be delivering program activities in ways that are inconsistent with the plans devised by the planning section. Chapters III, IV, and V show, in terms of some selected issues, how communication between the two sections are important, especially in a rural manpower planning area where the environment is much different than the urban environment, and environment for which CETA was actually designed.

Conclusions

Comprehensive manpower planning legislation has a relatively brief history. Certain special interest groups attempted to postpone it for as long as possible, while conservative Republicans attempted to focus manpower planning decision-making at the local level. Although both forces have been opposing each other for the past decade, the root of the activities has not been a concern for the disadvantaged. The concern of those who favored categorized programs was based on the amount of money already invested in skill training centers and in other various manpower planning program delivering facilities. Program delivery had become a very profitable "business" and many local administrators of manpower programs were making high salaries and had generous expense accounts. Their concern was also based upon the fear of loss of power. Since the CAA's were formed, in fact, to oppose certain policies of local governments, they feared that these local governments would find ways to reduce their power if they were allowed authority over planning manpower programs.

The concern of those who favored decentralization primarily wanted to

cut the cost of social service programs in general. Social service programs were not a major priority of the Nixon Administration, except in terms of cutting their cost. The legislative proponents of comprehensive manpower planning knew social service programs were not a high priority for most levels of government, but they wanted all the responsibility placed at this level so that the local elected officials could take the blame for the failure of social service programs in general and manpower planning programs in specific.

Thus, CETA was created in an atmosphere of controversy, and local government leaders are now feeling the same pressures formerly felt by national leaders. Prime Sponsors have hired professional staffs to plan adequately for the distribution of funds. Many of these staff members have been professionally qualified, but many others have been political appointees who are subject to certain special interest groups in the community. The prospect of effective and efficient manpower planning in urban areas, where there are concentrations of various special interest powers, looks bleak under CETA. Those in power are not especially willing to go out of their way to help the disadvantaged unless their power is based on the disadvantaged segment of the population. CETA can help the disadvantaged in the rural environment, however, because there is single concentration of power in the rural manpower planning area since there are several political units of government instead of a relatively few in the urban manpower planning area. In addition, primarily as a result of the sparcity of the population, there has not been manpower planning of any kind available in most rural localities until recently. All rural communities and areas should have a chance to have a voice in the manpower planning process, and no specific authority should have a chance to influence BOS manpower planning process. Since the BOS manpower

planning is conducted by the governor's office, the influence of decision-makers by local power groups should be minimal. The problems in rural manpower planning come in defining the characteristics of the population and the labor market and in encouraging citizens to participate fully in the manpower planning process.

CHAPTER II

FOOTNOTES

1. Rodger Davidson, The Politics of Comprehensive Manpower Legislation (Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press, 1972), p. 3-5.
2. Garth Magnum and John Walsh, A Decade of Manpower Development and Training (Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1973), p. 17, 18.
3. Garth Magnum, MDTA-A Foundation of Federal Manpower Policy (Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press, 1968), p. 31.
4. Ibid., p. 37.
5. Ibid., p. 60.
6. Ibid.
7. Ibid., p. 36.
8. Rodger Davidson, The Politics of Comprehensive Manpower Legislation (Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press, 1972), p. 6.
9. Ibid., p. 17.
10. U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, A New Approach to Manpower (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1974), p. 2.
11. U. S. Congress, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, 93rd Congress, 1st Session, 1973.
12. Kansas, Department of Human Resources, Comprehensive Manpower Planning and Services Division, Operation Guide for Manpower Service and Delivery System (Topeka: Kansas State Printing Office, 1975), p. 23.
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14. U. S. Congress, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, 93rd Congress, 1st Session, 1973.
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CHAPTER III

THE RURAL EMPLOYERS

Introduction

The determination of employment demands and surpluses for a given manpower planning area is called "the labor market analysis." The purposes of this chapter are to describe the differences between the labor markets of rural and urban environments and to explain the factors that must be considered when applying CETA programs to rural employers.

The differences between the rural and urban labor markets should be acknowledged because a dependable labor market analysis depends upon a correct identification of the characteristics of the particular labor market. The planning guides available to manpower planners today utilize mostly urban situations in their explanations of labor market analysis for various manpower planning areas. To assume that the labor markets of the rural planning area have the same or even essentially the same, employment characteristics as those of the urban planning area is incorrect. For example, The Manpower Planning Guide and the Handbook for Productive Employment of the Disadvantaged are two guides containing explanations in terms of an urban environment.¹ These explanations illustrate matching big city employment needs with big city disadvantaged needs. Neither the labor markets needs, nor the needs of the disadvantaged, in the rural environment will be as specific as those shown in the examples in these publications.

In order to illustrate the differences between the employers in the

rural and the urban environments, the relevant labor markets will be divided into two general categories: private and public. The private employment category includes all employers in business to make a profit. This includes such activities as for example, construction, services, manufacturing, and wholesale and retail trade. The public employment category includes all governmental agencies and institutions as well as all privately owned non-profit organizations. These public employers are concerned primarily with delivering services to all or some of the public.

There are two reasons for this two-fold method of categorization. One is that the emphasis of employment opportunities in each category will depend on the state of the local economy. If the local economy is on the upswing, there will be more employment opportunities in the private sector, while if the local economy is on the downswing, more employment opportunities will be available in the public sector. The second reason is that the emphasis of CETA programs in each category will determine the number of people who will be served in a given fiscal year. Although the cost of providing skill training for positions in either the public or the private sector is relatively the same, the cost of providing work experience for each category varies. Specifically, it is more expensive to provide work experience for positions in the public sector than in the private sector. If the cost per position is higher, then the number of individuals served will be lower because each area receives a block grant, regardless of the number of people who might be served.

When the quality of the local economy is sound, the private employers are making profits and perhaps thinking of expanding their operations. Thus, the demand for manpower in the private sector exceeds that of the public sector. With labor demand exceeding the available supply, employers are more

open-minded in their hiring policies and are more likely to hire someone normally considered a high risk type employee. As the economy slows down, the need for manpower also decreases, and the private employers become more selective in their hiring procedures. Consequently, public employment becomes the dominant area of employment opportunity. Public employers have certain services to deliver regardless of the economic situation. Therefore, while the level of private employment is contingent upon economic trends, national and/or local, the level of public employment opportunities increases at a slow continuous rate to satisfy the increasing need for additional personnel. Generally, however, the quality of the local economy may be used as a rather accurate measuring stick for private versus public employment emphasis.

Once the determination of private and public employment opportunities is made, the determination of appropriate training types can be made. Table 3-1 illustrates the average cost of major CETA programs. The type of manpower planning program needed for an individual to gain an employment opportunity in the private sector may be different than in the public sector. On the Job Training (OJT) may be used to gain job experience with the private employer, while Public Service Employment (PSE) may be used to gain job experience with a public employer. OJT provides for subsidization of half an enrollee's salary for four to eight months, while PSE involves full subsidization of an enrollee's salary for an entire year.² Thus, if more clients are prepared for employment with public agencies, fewer individuals will be served because the average cost per client will be higher. Clearly, the determination of employment opportunity is an important factor in predicting how many clients may be served and perhaps, more importantly, at what cost.

TABLE 3-1

CETA PROGRAM CATEGORY COSTS IN KANSAS
BALANCE-OF-STATE AREA

| Training Category | Cost ^(a) |
|---------------------------|---------------------|
| Adult Work Experience | \$3,550 |
| Skill Training | 2,312 |
| Public Service Employment | 7,200 |
| On the Job Training | 1,900 |

(a) Average per client cost based on CETA program expenditures in FY '75.

Source: Kansas, Department of Human Resources, Comprehensive Manpower Services and Delivery System, Program Operation Plan FY '76, (Topeka, Kansas: January 24, 1976).

Private Employers in the Rural Area

There are three basic differences between rural and urban private employment characteristics: (1) rural employers represent several different general environments; (2) rural employers generally have a smaller number of employees; and (3) fewer rural employers are involved in manufacturing.

The main difference between private employers in the rural manpower planning area and the urban manpower planning area is rural employers represent several different general environments, while urban employers represent only one general environment. An overall labor market analysis can be performed for all the employers of an urban area because any important element of the economy is relevant to all the employers. However, labor market analysis in the rural area needs to be performed for each community within the area. While urban planners have only one set of characteristics with which to deal, rural planners could have sixty or seventy. Each community in the rural area has its own characteristics in terms of nature of industrial activity, degree of industrial activity, and general type of economic base.

Table 3-2 shows a wide variation in the number of employees per county in Area III. It shows a range of from 340 employees in Chase County to 14,887 employees in Saline County. Industrial activity varies from county to county. While the degree of industrial activity varies in proportionate to the population level, the nature of industrial activity does not. Lyon and Saline Counties are the manufacturing centers of Area III as well as population centers; but Geary and Riley Counties, which are also population centers, do not have as high a percentage of employees involved in industrial activity as such lesser populated counties as Clay, Dickinson, and Ellsworth. This is because the economy in Geary and Riley Counties center respectively around a major military installation and a major university. Private employers in these two counties are primarily concerned with providing retail trade and services to the enlisted personnel and employees of Fort Riley and the students and employees of Kansas State University. These two institutions undoubtedly form the general economic base of the two counties, which in turn forms the nature of their private employers activities.

While all rural manpower planning areas may not be as diverse as Area III, each has individual communities within its boundaries, each of which has its own environmental characteristics and thus its own general economic base. The sum of employment opportunities for a rural manpower planning area is the aggregate sum of employment opportunities of all the communities within that area. Because each county possesses at least slightly different environmental characteristics, they should not lose their individuality when the various labor markets within them are assimilated into a projected labor market analysis for an entire rural manpower planning area. For instance, it is not only necessary to know that 37 welders are needed in Area III, but also to know that eighteen are needed in Emporia, fifteen are needed in Salina,

TABLE 3-2
EMPLOYEES AND EMPLOYERS BY COUNTY
IN AREA III

| County | Population | Employees | Employers | Percent of Employees in Manufacturing |
|--------------|------------|-----------|-----------|--|
| Chase | 3,587 | 340 | 78 | 2.6 |
| Clay | 10,055 | 1,720 | 342 | 32.6 |
| Dickinson | 23,974 | 3,758 | 477 | 22.5 |
| Ellsworth | 7,204 | 1,846 | 175 | 43.6 |
| Geary | 24,137 | 3,994 | 470 | 11.0 |
| Jewell | 6,095 | 441 | 111 | 1.8 |
| Lincoln | 4,770 | 684 | 107 | 19.0 |
| Lyon | 30,031 | 8,363 | 583 | 40.1 |
| Marion | 15,818 | 1,974 | 301 | 17.3 |
| Mitchell | 8,220 | 1,654 | 208 | 17.2 |
| Morris | 6,981 | 850 | 152 | 16.7 |
| Ottawa | 6,491 | 1,566 | 133 | 10.9 |
| Pottawatomie | 12,759 | 1,922 | 227 | 3.7 |
| Republic | 8,343 | 1,572 | 223 | 13.1 |
| Riley | 40,121 | 8,160 | 793 | 5.3 |
| Saline | 46,463 | 14,887 | 1,201 | 19.5 |
| Wabaunsee | 6,879 | 576 | 118 | 4.3 |
| Cloud | 13,965 | 2,917 | 242 | 7.6 |
| Total | | 57,227 | 4,941 | 19.1 |

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, County Business Patterns 1974
(Washington, D.C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1974).

and the other four are needed in smaller communities throughout the area.

The state employment service and vocational education department produce data on manpower needs on a regional basis. These data become meaningful to the rural manpower planner only when they can be broken down and analyzed on a single community basis. The ability to apply these regional data to a given community depends on identification of that community's characteristics. Two sources for the development of this ability are the area coordinator and the area task force. The area coordinator is a representative of the BOS Prime Sponsor. He/she has the primary responsibility of relating local area manpower needs to BOS Prime Sponsor goals and objectives. The Area Task

Force is a manpower advisory group that should be represented by all elements of the community. Its primary responsibility is to provide local input into the manpower planning decision-making process.

A second difference between private employers in rural manpower planning area and those in the urban manpower planning area is the average size of industry in each area. The number of employees per employer in Area III is 11.7. The number of employees per employer in the Wichita planning area is 17.7.³ The average employer in the rural environment is about two-thirds the size of his/her counterpart in the urban environment. This condition is mainly due, of course, to the size of community which each employer serves. Rural employers are serving smaller communities and are thus smaller in terms of capacities and work forces, while urban employers are serving larger communities and thus possess relative growth potential. The general situation resulting is that rural employers are not able to hire several employees at a time like their counterparts in the urban manpower planning area because of the limited size of their enterprises. In fiscal year 1975, 43 OJT contracts were signed with employers in Area III. Not one of the contracts was for more than four positions.⁴ If one company were to hire all 43 positions, there would be only one set of policies and one set of job descriptions with which to deal. While the urban manpower planner may experience this situation often, the rural manpower planner may have to deal with as many as 43 different hiring policies and 43 different job descriptions for occupations that may be categorically the same. Again, the diversity of the rural environment causes manpower planning to become a relatively complicated process.

A third difference between private employers in the rural and urban manpower planning area is that fewer rural employers are involved in manufacturing. The percent of private employees involved in manufacturing in

Area III is 19.1 percent; on the other hand, 34.5 percent of the private employees in the Wichita manpower planning area were involved in manufacturing, and 43.8 percent in the Kansas City manpower planning area.⁵ The significance of the difference in importance of manufacturing in the two manpower planning areas is that manufacturing trades have always been encouraged by manpower programs since the early stages of MDTA.⁶ Obviously if manufacturing plays a lesser role in the rural manpower planning area then traditional training in manufacturing trades would be unapplicable. In order to allow rural disadvantaged workers or potential workers to take advantage of job opportunities within their own environment, they should be trained in occupations applicable to the industries in that environment. However, the largest fields of employment in Area III, in addition to government, are retail and service industries.

The private employers in Area III are primarily involved in delivering retail and services trade to the surrounding agricultural communities; nevertheless, some growth centers and intermediate size cities have other populations they also serve. In some communities there are the college or university populations to serve. In others the populations may represent "retirement centers," "bedroom communities," or "transportation depots." Appropriate occupations that would serve these populations would include, among others: medical assistants, clerks and typists, sales managers, various repair orientated occupations and various unskilled occupations. The rural growth centers and rural communities of all sizes are not highly involved with manufacturing, primarily because manufacturers are reluctant to locate in a rural environment. This is a result of the lack of utilities, manpower, and other necessary resources available in the rural environment. The availability of manpower is a self-perpetuating problem because the lack of employment and other opportunities encourages outmigration. Local governments

do not have sufficient funds to provide utilities and other necessary resources that would tend to attract manufacturing. In addition, rural communities are usually located some distance away from the transportation depots necessary to handle the transport of the manufacturer's supplies and products. Those manufacturers who produce products for use other than in the immediate area and who do locate in a rural area usually locate by a major highway, such as Interstate 70 or Interstate 35, or by a major railroad depot, such as the Santa Fe depot in Emporia.

TABLE 3-3

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN AREA III
BY INDUSTRIAL CATEGORY

| Category | Number | Employed | Percent Change |
|--|--------|----------|----------------|
| | 1965 | 1980 | |
| Mining | 706 | 588 | -16.7 |
| Contract Construction | 4,765 | 5,711 | 19.8 |
| Transportation Equipment Manufacturing | 1,574 | 2,578 | 67.8 |
| Printing | 581 | 828 | 42.5 |
| Machine and Metal Fabrication | 2,396 | 3,042 | 27.0 |
| Other Manufacturing | 770 | 936 | 21.6 |
| Wholesale Trade | 3,450 | 4,199 | 21.7 |
| Retail Trade | 17,803 | 24,104 | 35.4 |
| Services | 12,572 | 17,863 | 42.1 |
| Government | 21,830 | 33,085 | 51.6 |
| Food and Kindred Products | 2,669 | 3,091 | -15.8 |
| Utilities | 1,217 | 1,476 | 1.3 |
| Total | 70,333 | 97,501 | 27.9 |

Source: Kansas, Institute of Social and Environmental Studies,
Kansas Statistical Abstract 1974 (Topeka, Kansas:
State Printing Office, 1974).

The lack of employment activity in the manufacturing area in the rural environment may cease to be a problem in the future. For example, according to M. Jarvin Emerson, manufacturing activity is increasing in Area III.⁷

Table 3-3 shows that equipment manufacturing is the fastest rising industrial activity in Area III. Table 3-4 shows that over the last few years manufacturing has begun to play a larger role in the economy of Area III. The percentage of wage and salary disbursements in manufacturing has been increasing at a faster rate than that of any other economic activity, including government, trade and services. Although the activity of manufacturing is increasing each year, it still is of much less importance in the rural area than in the urban area, and this situation will continue until resources in the rural environment are sufficient for manufacturing to locate and to expand.

TABLE 3-4
PERCENT OF NONFARM WAGE AND SALARY
DISBURSEMENTS IN AREA III

| Category | Year | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|
| | 1967 | 1969 | 1971 | 1973 | 1974 |
| Manufacturing | 10.0 | 10.0 | 12.0 | 14.6 | 14.8 |
| Mining | .7 | .6 | .5 | .4 | .3 |
| Contract Construction | 5.8 | 5.8 | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.9 |
| Transportation and Public Utilities | 7.7 | 7.0 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 6.1 |
| Trade | 24.5 | 24.8 | 25.4 | 25.5 | 24.8 |
| Finance | 3.9 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 3.9 | 3.9 |
| Services | 15.9 | 16.6 | 16.5 | 16.4 | 16.2 |
| Government | 31.5 | 31.2 | 30.4 | 29.3 | 29.0 |

Source: Kansas State Employment Service, Department of Research on Planning Percent of Nonfarm Wage and Salary (Topeka, Kansas: 1975).

Because the economics of rural manpower planning tend to be more varied in general as well as less concerned with manufacturing and smaller in size in specific, the definition of the characteristics of the labor market tend to be a segmented process. Private employment opportunities have to be determined essentially on an individual basis. Thus, the total employment

opportunities in the rural area will be the aggregate sum of the opportunities of each employer in the area. The types of services provided in each community, as well as the skills needed to provide those services, should be determined. The overall attitude and economic situation of each employer within each community should be studied in order to determine barriers to employment and ways in which private employers can be encouraged to hire the disadvantaged while still making a profit.

Dealing With Employers in the Rural Area

With these factors, as well as others adding to the complication of the labor market analysis process, the rural manpower planner needs to make certain special considerations when dealing with rural private employers for manpower planning programs to have effect. These include at least three important considerations: (1) the disadvantaged should be sold to the employers; (2) meaningful employment for the disadvantaged should be identified; and (3) the types of skills needed for this employment for the disadvantaged should be determined. In dealing with the rural private employers, the local characteristics surrounding these three factors should be weighed against each other in order to accurately establish what employment opportunities for the disadvantaged can be obtained through CETA services.

Selling the Disadvantaged

The Spencerian theory of "survival of the fittest" is present in one of its strongest forms among rural private employers.⁸ The private employer in general is wary of hiring anyone who requires assistance in acquiring employment and is especially cautious concerning any federal program. Federal programs mean restrictions, and restrictions could mean the potential loss of profits. In addition, the larger employers do not want to hire a manpower

planning client because they can "skim" the better employees from smaller, lower paying firms, while the smaller firms are cautious of hiring a person with a bad or perhaps non-existent work record because their profit margins are usually so low that they cannot afford to take risks. The subsidization of half of the enrollee's salary during the training period may encourage both the larger and smaller employers to take the risk of hiring the less experienced manpower planning client. The typical manpower planning client is disadvantaged, nevertheless, and there is a negative stigma placed on that individual, particularly in the rural environment.

While CETA services may combat some of an employer's economic fears, it may not be as successful in overcoming his/her moralistic orientated fears. The Spencerian attitude of rural employers is inherited primarily from the Agrarian cultural ethic that continues to exist in the rural manpower planning area. Many individuals who have migrated to the rural environment to engage in Agrarian activities did not do so in order to make more money, but to earn a living in their own individualistic fashion. They did not like working with or for somebody else and often resented anyone who did. They also took great pride in helping themselves. The rural was thought to be an environment such as that, as long as an individual worked hard, he/she could make it on his/her own. Any charity or other assistance that could not be paid back would spoil the integrity of this agrarian cultural ethic.⁹ Because of the dominance of agriculturally oriented industry in the rural manpower planning area, this overall view has remained part of the reality that affects the attitudes and policies of many local employers. In order to convince local employers to hire the disadvantaged clients through CETA programs, the program must be shown to be a nonpolluting agent if introduced into the economic stream of the community. CETA must be shown as a remedy for the real pollutants of the

economic stream of the community--namely, artificial barriers to employment. Thus not only the disadvantaged, but also the specific CETA program must be sold to the rural private employer.

The employer's apprehension of the quality of the client can be met by stressing the screening process of CETA operations and by explaining how all clients are counseled and tested before they are referred to any specific program activity. Before CETA can be used by an employer, that employer must be convinced that lack of a certain CETA service is the only barrier standing between the client and employment. Figuring out roughly what to say to the employer in order to convince him/her that the program is really beneficial is one problem, but figuring out how to communicate that message is another problem. The selling of the CETA program is harder in the rural manpower planning area because while there are several employers to whom to sell the program, each has his/her own bias toward hiring the disadvantaged. Employers in the rural environment are not as organized, and do not communicate as much as those in the urban environment, so they cannot be approached on a mass basis. There are separate communications media for each community so advertisements and other information dissemination procedures are a more involved process than they would be if they were administered in the urban manpower planning area. The selling of the program is also difficult because many rural employers have located in the rural environment to avoid the restrictions and the various agreements necessary in the urban environment. In addition, in all too many cases, any type of formal cooperative program is against their way of doing business. They demand to be their own boss. They do not feel they need assistance in accomplishing their goals, and they do not feel others need it either.

Identifying Meaningful Employment for the Disadvantaged

Meaningful employment is employment that has a livable starting wage and possesses reasonable expectations for advancement. In Kansas, The Governor's Committee on Manpower Planning defined a livable wage to be at least \$2.50 an hour for an average size family of four. CETA will not provide skill training or work experience for individuals in order to place them in jobs that have starting wages below this amount. This presents a difficult situation in the rural environment because the average wage is low, and in some communities no employer may pay any more than \$2.50 an hour.

Many employers move to the rural environment because they are looking for cheap labor. They know that employment opportunities are highly competitive and want to take advantage of the resulting relatively low wage rates. Many are looking for female workers who will subsidize their husband's income and consequently work for the minimum wage. For example, trailer home manufacturers and wiring firms are notorious for this practice and thus are not prime opportunities for employment. There may be individuals who can handle only this kind of employment, but in such cases only direct referral is the extent of CETA operations as regards to job placement. Utilizing CETA funds to place an enrollee in a minimum wage job with little or no chance of advancement is usually a waste of the taxpayers money because the client may eventually become frustrated at not being able to be truly self-supporting and independent and thus may eventually return to the ranks of the unemployed. Many times the client can make more money from welfare or unemployment insurance than from working at a low paying job. Clearly, CETA would not be helping this individual significantly if it prepared the client for a job at a low wage rate.

Determining Types of Skills Needed for
the Employment of the Disadvantaged

While employers should be surveyed to determine the quality of employment they can provide, they should also be researched concerning their entry level requirements. The level of skills necessary should be attainable both through the personal resources of potential clients (i.e., economic and physical capabilities) and through available training facilities. The skills needed should not be so professional that CETA clients are not able to handle the training. Drafting and computer technology are areas of study encouraged by many technical schools because of the widespread demand and relatively high wage rate. There are few individuals, however, who meet both the entry level requirements of these courses and the CETA poverty guidelines. Even less demanding professional skills, such as licensed practical nursing or medical and dental laboratory technicians, require at least a twelfth grade education as a qualification for skill training. Many CETA enrollees may not qualify for entry to these areas, but in many cases pertaining to general education, classes will prepare them for the specified entry requirements. Other skills, such as welding, various machinest occupations, and auto mechanics require few entry level requirements other than determination and dependability.

The skill must be obtainable in the manpower planning area. There is no use in attempting to train for an occupation if the existing facilities are inadequate, if the institutions are uncooperative, or if there are insufficient numbers of people employed in a particular field. Even if the need for the skill is present, skill training can be a frustrating experience if any one of these factors exist.

If there is a skill needed in one part of the manpower planning area

and if a training facility is available in another part of the area, the clients desiring enrollment in the class must be screened so that only those enrollees who are willing to relocate are allowed to enroll. This may sound elementary, but improper screening occurred often when the location of employment opportunities was not clearly recognized. In fiscal year 1975, the first year of CETA operations in Kansas, eighteen secretary/bookkeepers were trained in Salina. Three refused to relocate after training, consequently two returned to welfare, while a third obtained employment as a clerk. All three non-positive placements could have been avoided if only those enrollees who were willing to relocate had been allowed to enroll in the class. The screening staff does not have to know where the enrollee will have to relocate but it should know whether or not the employment opportunity necessitates relocation. Given the vastness of the rural manpower planning area, an enrollee may have to move as much as a hundred miles to take advantage of skill training or of an employment opportunity. Obviously, a great deal more effort and incentive is required for the rural client to relocate or as much as a hundred miles to take advantage of an opportunity than it does for an urban client to travel a few miles across town. Therefore, the location of training facilities and the location of employment opportunity are both important elements in the determination of a client's ability to take advantage of CETA in the rural environment.

The vastness of the rural manpower planning area necessitates individual contacts with employers and individuals and organizations influential with employers in order to obtain accurate employment opportunity information. A primary force that could provide the resources (i.e., a central information system) and the incentives (i.e., provision of economic and political rewards) are necessary for local employers to provide accurate employment opportunity information which would be the local elected officials. Because the employers

of the rural manpower planning area are located in many different political jurisdictions, however, there are few political systems that have the power and the funds to influence activities and policies of local employers. Consequently, employers are free to act almost as they wish because of the local governments desperate attempts to retain the economic activity that already exists. The absence of political authority and the limited capacities of rural governments cause them to be influenced by opinions and attitudes of local employers rather than the governments influencing the employers. The local political structures have become reactive rather than initiating. Therefore, the selling of the disadvantaged, the identification of meaningful employment opportunities for the disadvantaged and the determination of skills necessary to obtain those employment opportunities, must be done at the individual employer level.

The bypassing of local units of government can be a difficult, if not delicate process. While local political officials may realize they have little control over economic activity in their area, they may resent being reminded of this fact. The presence of a federal program such as CETA collecting and dispersing employment information may be helpful to the local disadvantaged population and to the local employers, but it may also illustrate the inability of local political institutions to serve their constituents adequately. Because of the lack of taxing and encompassing legislative authority, many local political officials already feel relatively powerless. If they can become involved in the process of implementing CETA programs, however, they may accept some of the responsibility for successful programs. Nevertheless, encouragement to participate may need to come from the employers themselves. Because of the importance of the employer to local elected officials, local employer needs and recommendations will usually influence public policy

significantly. If the local political officials feel that the local employer wants CETA programs in the local community, the political structure will often tend to become involved with those programs.

Public Employers in the Rural

Manpower Planning Area

Public employment is one of the fastest growing categories of employment in all manpower planning areas. According to the projections of Table 3-3 and the figures of Table 3-4, government is and will continue to be a very important employment category in the rural environment. The figures from these tables represent changes in governmental employment only. They do not account for the other part of public employment, the non-profit agencies. They do not account for the recent increases in employment possibilities provided by such private non-profit organizations as Big Lakes Developmental Center, North Central Flint Hills Area Agency on Aging, or the Central Kansas Alcoholic Foundation. By training people for positions with governmental agencies and private, non-profit organizations will be able to provide more services to the local community and more employment opportunities will be available for the disadvantaged.

Before the governmental agency and social service organization future employment opportunity figures are interpreted too optimistically, it should be pointed out that many of the positions are of a highly professional nature. Positions such as teachers, administrators, and other professional employment possibilities are not directly attainable through CETA programs.

Many such positions require four or more years of schooling beyond secondary school. CETA regulations state that no more than two years of training can be provided for an individual.¹⁰ CETA programs, however may prepare a client for additional training not offered by CETA, but would prepare a client for

a professional position.

There is one basic difference between public employers in the rural area and those in the urban area. In the rural manpower planning area there are several regional, county, and city governments, instead of the relatively lesser amount in the urban area. There are over 900 political jurisdictions in Area III while many urban manpower planning areas will not have over 100 political jurisdictions. Like the private employers, the urban and rural employers will each represent a different environment, but they will also represent different levels and styles of political authority.

In an urban manpower planning area there may be several different jurisdictions present, but because of their close proximity, their needs in terms of political manpower planning services may be similar. If those needs are not similar, or if the local political officials of each jurisdiction do not wish to cooperate with each other, they may become a Prime Sponsorship themselves rather than becoming a part of a larger Prime Sponsorship of the entire urban area. Local political officials representing regional, county, or city governments may all qualify as CETA Prime Sponsors and contract directly with the federal government for CETA funds. Potential disagreements between various levels of government are relatively easy to identify because of the different constituencies each governmental unit is designed to serve. For example, city government would be concerned with manpower planning needs of the population within the city, while a county government would be concerned with the manpower needs of the population within the entire county. A regional government, on the other hand, might need to consider the needs of the populations of several cities and counties. Regardless of which level of government the delivery of manpower planning programs would be most efficient and effective, the level at which the local constituency feels the most represented is the one normally

utilized. Most governments in rural environments are not allowed even this "luxury." Their only input is through the area task forces mentioned in Chapter II. Therefore, the input from the various rural governments only adds confusion to the rural manpower planning process. The input may conflict from one local geological area to another, and it may conflict from one level of government to another. Even though all these inputs from various governments may conflict directly with each other, they are all to be represented to one plan by one Prime Sponsor.

Rural county governments are in various stages of development, depending on the quality of political and administrative leadership decisions concerning community priorities. Some county governments are in need of manpower planning because of the expansion of public services or because of competition with private employers, while others cannot expand manpower levels even with subsidization of salaries and wages because there are not even sufficient funds available to provide tools and supplies for additional workers. The majority of counties have low wage rates when compared to private employers and even city employers, and some find ways to avoid the minimum wage.¹¹

Rural city governments usually have fewer responsibilities than rural county governments but have comparably more tax resources from which to draw because of their concentrated economy. They do not have the highway maintenance, police, or other responsibilities of county officials. Their street maintenance, police, and other responsibilities are in a compact area and therefore can be done on a more economical basis. Like the counties, they vary in their stages of development and efficiency. (Concerning cities in the rural manpower planning area, incorporated cities are the only ones considered because unincorporated cities do not have municipal governments and thus generally no employees.) Both the county and city governments are slowly,

but surely being forced by the federal government to expand their services, causing gradual increases in manpower planning needs each year. However, the rate of increase will surely be proportionate to the local government's (at whatever level) potential resources.

The expanding social service organizations in rural areas are experiencing a new era in the growth of the organizational structures as compared to those in urban areas. While social service organizations are still growing in urban areas, their main years of growth occurred as a result of the "New Frontier" and "Great Society" programs of the early and middle 1960's. The expansion of social service programs have only begun to increase rapidly in the rural areas. For example, the North Central Flint Hills Agency on Aging has opened several senior citizen centers during the last two years in communities such as Council Grove, Hillsboro, Cawker City, and Belleville. Many of the skills for their positions, such as program operator, bus driver, residential assistant, and bookkeeper, can be learned with limited training or through on the job training in less than a years time. As in the case of governmental employers, the cooperation of non-profit organization employers is necessary for the determination of employment possibilities for CETA clients in public service employment.

In the rural manpower planning area the determination of public employment opportunities should be accomplished on a local level with rural governments and on a regional level with many non-profit organizations. Rural county and city governments are not experienced in cooperating or communicating on a regional basis because of the lack of strongly institutionalized regional political structures and are not used to long range planning because of limited funds and adequate administrative powers. Private, non-profit organizations, however, are usually formed with long range goals firmly in mind

even before they initiate operations. They may be part of a federally funded agency such as the North Central Flint Hills Agency on Aging which covers the same 18 counties as Area III, or they may be formed for a single ongoing purpose such as the Brown-Grand Opera House Foundation in Concordia. In either case private, non-profit organizations have a more definite view of other future activities. The federally funded agencies have to have long range plans to apply for federal funds. The local single purpose agencies have to have future plans to justify their current fund raising activities. Both organizations are also usually organized or coordinated on a regional basis in order to qualify for funds and/or to coordinate activities. The local governmental agencies, on the other hand, face the need for an ever increasing amount of services as well as a decreasing amount of funds with which to provide those services.

Dealing With Public Employers in the Rural Area

In applying CETA programs to the various public employers of the rural manpower planning area, there are three factors to consider: (1) potential expansion of services, (2) job obtainability and meaningfulness, and (3) receptivity of local government to social service programs.

Potential Expansion of Services

Potential expansion of services by local governmental agencies or private non-profit organizations is the most important factor to examine when attempting to place people in public employment. Public employers may have decided to expand their work forces but currently lack the necessary funding. If extra funding is expected in the near future, CETA can act as a catalyst by involving manpower planning activities. If the local agency or organization agrees to hire a disadvantaged person, CETA may subsidize the employer for that person's

salary for up to a year or whenever the future funding becomes a reality.

The relevant officials must be made to understand that they will probably be hiring a less experienced worker in exchange for their subsidization and that they will be expected to continue employing these personnel on an unsubsidization basis after the year is over. The relevant officials sometimes have a tendency to get carried away when dealing with subsidization programs not only because they are so desperate for manpower, but also because they are unrealistic about the possibility of future funding. Even though they may realize that they are supposed to eventually fund the subsidized positions, the prospect of free labor in the present may cause their predictions of future funding to be overly optimistic. Since CETA regulations provide for few penalties for public employers who do not retain clients after the subsidization period, these employers may apply for as many subsidized positions as CETA funding will allow. The fact that CETA is a federally funded program gives them even more of an incentive to be devious. They may gain some satisfaction for past frustrations with federal programs. Most communities in the rural manpower planning area are too small to qualify for many federal grants even though they may be in relatively desperate need. Therefore, they may feel that they can even the odds a little if they can get some money from some federal program, even if they do not meet the programs goals precisely.

Job Obtainability and Meaningfulness

The job must be obtainable in that it must be within the client's potential to qualify. Traditionally, local governmental agencies have requested highly professional positions through CETA, primarily because of the high expense of the salaries and wages of those positions. In some cases they have obtained them because of "loopholes" in the legislation. For example, college graduates usually qualify for CETA because their income has been very low during the

years they have been in school, and if the position contracted through CETA requires a college degree, these individuals must be referred for the position. Placing college educated individuals in jobs is not exactly in accordance with the goals of CETA. While these people technically qualify as CETA clients, they are most often not those most in need of manpower planning services. The college graduate has been poor for the past few years, not because he/she could not find a job, but because he/she has been in school. The person who has been trying to support his/her family on an income below the poverty guidelines are clearly more deserving of CETA services.

In order to be meaningful, a job should pay a livable wage and offer some chance of advancement. Many rural public employers have found ways to economize by cutting the working hours of some positions to 30 or 35 hours per week. It is the goal of CETA to place people in full-time employment. This means at least 40 hours per week. These less than full-time positions are thus discouraged as potential employment possibilities for CETA clients. They may be the only jobs available in the community, but they are not meaningful employment and should not be included in the local labor market analysis.

Receptivity of Local Governments Social Service Programs

The receptivity of local public employers to federal programs is important because the lack of receptivity on the part of local political officials can lead to a reluctance in providing information concerning job opportunities in both the public and the private sectors. Local political officials may be defensive when approached by outside programmers. Often their past experiences with federal programs has been frustrating, given that some problems existed that did not qualify for funds they felt they needed, and given that

some programs that they did not feel they needed were forced on them. Thus, they feel they have had enough trouble without becoming involved with CETA. CETA cannot be forced upon local political officials of course, even if a high potentiality success can be demonstrated. If CETA can be shown to work by cooperating with agencies and organizations, then gradually reluctant local political officials will begin to explore how CETA can be of benefit to them as well as, hopefully, to the disadvantaged of the community.

Rural agencies and organizations may be reluctant to utilize a social service program such as CETA because of the Spencerian attitude of the community or because of simple mistrust of federal programs. The most persuasive of these apprehensions are usually concerned with economics. Rural non-profit organizations usually operate on an extremely limited budget and any miscalculation on the part of responsible officials can result in severe economic consequences. Rural public employers, like rural private employers, represent various environments but unlike the private employer, they must perform not only well functionally but also in a manner that is generally acceptable to the public. While the private employer is concerned primarily with making a profit, the public employer is concerned primarily with satisfying the demands made by certain constituents or certain constituency groups. Combating the relatively conservative attitudes of public employers is especially difficult in the rural environment. The private employer may be encouraged to overcome his personal bias if doing this helps him/her make a profit, but the public employer must be encouraged to overcome not only his/her own particular bias but also the biases within the constituency. Local governmental agencies can afford to be a reactionary political force primarily because of their lack of resources, including funds. Thus, the logical starting point in selling CETA to a rural public employer would be to influence powerful elements within

the community. As a matter of fact, individuals in the community, such as major employers, bankers, ministers, and other well known citizens may be the real decision-makers in the community.

The local elected political officials, except in growth centers, actually exercise little power. The political officials of growth centers may, because of a larger tax base, have control over a certain amount of discretionary funding but county commissioners of less populated counties and mayors of small towns may have a very limited amount of funding to provide the basic governmental necessities required by the constituency. They usually depend partly upon the local attitudes of the community and partly upon the technical advice of public employees to make decisions. Since the local political officials depend upon the local notables for advice, perhaps it would be better for the provisions of CETA to be explained to the local notables rather than to local political officials.

Conclusions

Labor markets in the rural manpower planning area are more dispersed and more diverse than those in the urban manpower planning area. They basically vary in terms of the nature of the economics and the character of their environments. The rural private employers are different than their urban counterparts in that they represent several different environments, they each have a smaller number of workers, and they are less involved in manufacturing. The public employers are different in that they conduct very little long range planning and they rely on the business and other leaders to assist in decisions concerning, among other things, employment policies. The labor market of the rural manpower planning area tends to that of several individual community labor markets. The total manpower needs of the rural manpower planning area are consequently, the aggregate sum of all the individual manpower needs

of the various communities in that area. The degree of accuracy of the labor market analysis in the rural manpower planning area is proportionate to the degree of individual community identity (i.e., the knowledge of local community manpower needs). This identity comes from knowledge of the status of the communities, the capabilities and attitudes of their formal and informal leaders, and the number and nature of supportive services.

The resentment of private employers in the rural environment toward federal programs, including federal employment programs, will also be transmitted to local decision-makers because local political officials prize the employers that choose to exist in their jurisdictions. Any inconvenience that might be imposed on a local private employer might be perceived as a threat to the local community itself because the employers are critical to the economic base of the local community. Since the employers are scarce in rural communities, those employers who do exist are highly appreciated. For example, the Whitacke Cable Company was welcomed with open arms by Junction City, even though the company started employees at the minimum wage. In the view of the local citizenry, low paying jobs are better than no jobs at all. The concern for the local private employers comes not only from the local citizenry or the local political officials, but also from the private employers themselves. John Friedman, a regional scientist, contends that industries locating in local underdeveloped areas consider influence of local decision-makers more important than any other factor in deciding where to locate.¹² To the local private employer and the local political official government, especially federal government programs means regulations, and regulations could mean the eventual exodus of local private employers. This would be costly indeed to the local community.

The rural public employers exist in a relatively conservative, relatively

isolated atmosphere which forms a basis for many of the barriers to employment or the disadvantaged. This atmosphere discourages public employers and political officials from providing employment opportunities not consistent with those of the rest of the community. Because of the lack of resources and consequent lack of power, the local rural governments become a reflecting instrument of the community rather than one that guides the community. Therefore, local political officials are hardly the real source of local factors that determine the future expansion of public services, the job obtainability and meaningfulness of those public service jobs, and the receptivity of government to social service programs.

Selling the disadvantaged, identifying meaningful employment opportunities, identifying the skill needed for those jobs, and the other factors necessary in determining the labor market analysis for both private and public employers cannot be done efficiently and effectively without the cooperation of various public and private segments of the community. In order to receive that cooperation CETA manpower planners must adopt their structures of their planning and operational systems to meet the needs of rural private and public employers. The rural private employers may form an informational base for both the labor needs of the local community and the policies of the local governmental agencies and the private, non-profit organizations. Knowledge of the actual local community policy-makers and decision-makers may be an important ingredient in efficient and effective determination of the labor market analysis in rural manpower planning areas. The encouragement of those people to cooperate in providing labor market information and accepting CETA programs may depend however on the amount of conflict between the satisfying of employment needs of the local disadvantaged and satisfying the needs of the private and public rural employers.

CHAPTER III

FOOTNOTES

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6. Kansas, Department of Human Resources, Comprehensive Manpower Services Division, Summary of OJT Characteristics (Topeka, 1967), p. 1, 2.

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8. Lynn Curtis, private interview held in the State Office Building, Topeka, Kansas, January 13, 1976.

9. Grant McConnell, The Decline of Agrarian Democracy (Berkley - Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1953), p. 1-35.

10. U. S. Congress, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, 93rd Congress, 1st Session, 1973.

11. Mike Pritchard, private interview held in his office at Topeka, Kansas, July 28, 1975.

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CHAPTER IV

THE RURAL DISADVANTAGED

Introduction

The purposes of this chapter are to describe the characteristics of the rural poor and to explain how barriers to their employment differ from those of the urban poor. The difference between rural and urban populations can be illustrated by comparing the characteristics of Area III, which is a rural manpower planning area, to those of Wichita, which is an urban manpower planning area. As is the case with labor market analysis, the most important step in determining population characteristics in the rural manpower planning area is defining the environmental factors that create those characteristics. The rural population, particularly the rural poor, needs to be examined in terms of the local environment. Once a determination is made as to how the rural poor differ from the urban poor; then, a determination can be made concerning how specific manpower planning systems should be designed so that they are applicable to the rural environment as well as what specific manpower planning services, such as work experience and skill training, are needed in order to make the rural poor more competitive in the labor market.

There are two sources of statistics that essentially describe the characteristics of the rural poor. These are: state agency e.g., Social Rehabilitation Service and Employment Service, data and Census data e.g., Population Characteristics by County. Of course, data from both sources can be misleading when accepted at face value, but when analyzed in terms of the nature of the

local environment, the data will reveal some relevant information.

The information generated from state agency data relevant to the rural manpower planning area are often inaccurate because rural populations do not utilize these agencies to the extent as urban populations. Since the state agencies only generate data based on the number of people they have served, the lack of participation in the rural manpower planning area would reduce the relevance of these data. Therefore, at first glance, one might think that the general lack of local participation means that there is a general absence of need for welfare services and, especially, employment services in the rural manpower planning area, but a closer look, such as that undertaken in the next section, illustrates that the lack of state agency utilization is due to a lack of trust both by potential clients and by employers as well as by the vast geography rather than to a lack of need.

The general unreliability of state agency welfare and employment service data is not the only misleading statistical source in the rural manpower planning area. Even the U. S. census data can be misleading if examined on an areawide basis. The many local environments within a rural manpower planning area may vary as much as the several rural manpower planning areas within the state. The rural population must be analyzed at the lowest jurisdictional level in order to discover useful characteristics of that population. As in the case of the local labor market characteristics, an analysis of the population characteristics should illustrate the aggregate sum of the needs of each community within the rural manpower planning area. Merely adding county census information together in an areawide total before analization may not reflect the employment problems of the individual counties or the true characteristics of the populations of these individual counties. Rural populations may not seem as poor as urban populations, given a superficial

examination, but an in-depth analysis of the statistics at the community level will show that economic conditions are much worse in the rural environment. The poor in the rural area are just as prevalent, if not more so, than in the urban area. They are simply less visible.

Misleading Social Service Agency Data

By looking at welfare and unemployment statistics alone, one might assume that the people of the rural areas are not as poor as the people of the urban areas. The unemployment rate is lower in the rural areas; the number of people receiving welfare assistance is lower in the rural area; and the amount of money spent on welfare is lower in the rural areas. For instance, the average unemployment rate for 1975 was 3.2 percent in Area III while it was 6.2 percent in Wichita.¹ Also, welfare assistance costs \$49.08 per capita in Area III, while it costs \$119.36 per capita in Wichita.² The personnel of the various state agencies will admit however, that these differences in costs can be attributed to lack of use by local citizens in the rural environment.³ The general lack of utilization of rural social service agencies can be attributed to the distrust of people in the rural manpower planning area, the distrust of local employers in the rural manpower planning area, and the vast geography of the rural manpower planning area.

Distrust of People in the Rural Manpower

Planning Area

The Spencerian attitude existing in the rural area was discussed in the last chapter insofar as it applies to rural employers, but it also applies to rural populations as well. Being poor and/or unemployed may be regarded as an unavoidable circumstance by many people in the urban area, while it may be regarded as a personal embarrassment by most people in the rural area. A

potential rural client may refuse to admit to him or herself that he/she requires assistance in improving his/her particular economic situation because such an acknowledgement may be equated with failure. If the potential client does convince him or herself that he/she needs help, the client may be afraid of what the other people in the community will think and say. They, consequently, will not go to the welfare or employment office for fear of being recognized. Rural communities are usually sufficiently small so that most members of the community know the status, economic and otherwise, of the other members of the community. For one member of the community to apply for public assistance seems to imply that he/she is a lesser quality person than those of the rest of the community. The rest of the community may even become concerned about the image of the entire population. The rural attitude toward poverty is exemplified by the comment of a leader of a rural growth center in Area III when questioned about the relevance of a CETA service in his community. He said, "I'm afraid we would not be able to use any of those services because, you see, we do not have any disadvantaged people in our town."⁴ Of course he knew there was at least some poverty in his town but he did not want to admit it because of the image it could create for the rest of the community.

Distrust of Employers in the Rural Manpower

Planning Area

Employers in the rural area are wary of utilizing the employment service agencies in particular because they fear being exposed to government hiring rules and regulations. As long as they control their own recruiting procedures, they do not have to be concerned with government rules and "red tape." In sum, employment service agencies represent the government, and the government represents regulations. Of course, the businesses that have government contracts (i.e., producing goods or services on contract to the federal government),

are forced to list their openings with the employment service agencies, but there are relatively few of these businesses in the rural manpower planning area. In order for businesses to accomodate most federal governmental needs, they must have a large capacity, and in Chapter III it was mentioned that businesses in rural areas tend to have small capacities. Since rural businessmen are usually not forced to utilize employment service agencies and the labor market is relatively competitive, the employers may consider the employment agencies only as a last resort to recruit their work forces. This lack of utilization by employers may give employment service agencies a perpetuating situation of decreasing credibility. The lack of utilization of employers may cause the agencies to be less knowledgeable about job openings, and the less knowledgeable about job openings the agencies are, the less job seekers will utilize the agencies; and the less people utilize the employment agencies, the less knowledgeable the agencies will be about available work forces.

The Vast Geography of the Rural Manpower

Planning Area

Due to the vast geography of the rural manpower planning area, local inhabitants may find welfare service offices and employment service offices inconvenient to use. There is usually only one employment office per six county region and only one welfare office per county in the rural areas. If potential clients do not live near one of these offices, they may not even know what services these offices have to offer given that they even know they exist. Since Area III, which is an average size rural manpower planning area containing eighteen counties, but only four employment offices, there are fourteen counties not having employment offices. Since each county is approximately 35 miles square, this means that most of the people in 78 percent of the manpower planning area must travel at least 35 miles to utilize an

employment office. Also, while each county has a welfare office in the county seat, those potential clients who live in other areas in the county may not have the desire and/or the means of transportation to travel to that office. Generally however, with the price of auto maintenance and gas on the upswing, and the given absence of public transportation in rural areas, disadvantaged individuals become marooned, so to speak, in isolated communities perhaps unaware of and more often unable to take advantage of opportunities and services available outside the community.

The lack of utilization of local welfare and employment service agencies in the rural areas does suggest a lack of credibility for the data generated by those agencies, but these data should not be discounted entirely. The employment service agencies data reflect the types of jobs most requested by the employers who do utilize the agencies, and they reflect the jobs most sought by the applicants who do utilize the agencies. On the other hand, the welfare service agencies data reflected the general characteristics of those who did apply for assistance. Thus, the data from these two types of agencies are helpful in studying rural population characteristics, but several other factors in the local environment such as local geographies and local social attitudes, must be considered in order to gain a realistic understanding of the nature of the rural poor.

The Rural Population

In manpower handbooks the term, population analysis, means the study of population characteristics of a particular manpower planning area.⁵ Labor market analysis is the first stage of the manpower planning process while population analysis is the second stage. As in the case of labor market analysis, the process of evaluating the characteristics of the population must be done correctly in order to enable an efficient and effective mechanism

to be constructed so that the disadvantaged members of the population can be provided with manpower planning services.

While the goal in labor market analysis is to determine job opportunities in an area, the goal of population analysis is to determine the characteristics of the disadvantaged population as well as how they differ from the characteristics of the remainder of the population. While labor market analysis provides information concerning potential employment opportunities, population analysis provides information concerning potential enrollees in manpower planning programs. Hopefully, the determination of the characteristics of the disadvantaged will suggest both the elements necessary to recruit them into manpower planning programs, and those necessary to eliminate barriers to employment. Specifically, the population analysis will serve as a basis for the determination of what groups of the disadvantaged are most in need of manpower planning services. These priority groups are called target groups, and are established by a combination of factors involving: (1) those most in need, and (2) those that are most able to benefit from services.

In addition to the above, a discussion of population analysis in the rural environment is important because rural populations, like rural labor markets, have characteristics different from urban populations. Although manpower planning manuals provide information on conducting labor market analysis and population analysis in general, their suggestions concerning procedures essentially assume an urban atmosphere.⁶ An acknowledgement of the differences in both the general population and the target groups in rural and urban areas is necessary before any specific CETA program can be implemented. In order to attempt to apply urban operational techniques to a rural area can only frustrate the goals and efforts of the rural manpower planning process.

Before the target groups are determined, the characteristics of the

general population of the manpower planning area should be analyzed to determine the nature of the environment in which the target groups are embedded and to understand the reasons why the members of the target groups are in their particular situation. There are three basic types of information that will create an understandable picture of the total population characteristics of a manpower planning area. These are age, race and income level characteristics. The major source of these data is the Kansas General Population Characteristics of the U. S. Bureau of Census. These data for rural counties are not as extensive as those for urban counties which are usually located in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's). A SMSA is an urban area that contains at least 50,000 people. Since all urban Prime Sponsors must represent jurisdictions of at least 100,000 people, they all represent SMSA's. Balance of State (BOS) Prime Sponsors do represent at least 100,000 people, but they do not represent SMSA's because they do not represent one encompassing jurisdiction. SMSA data are helpful to the urban manpower planning process because they present a picture of the entire manpower planning area. The rural manpower planning process, however, must be able to get by as best it can with only the tabulation of county data, both at the various manpower planning area level and at the BOS planning area level.

Since the boundries of Area III, as well as those of most rural manpower planning areas, do not conform to any given statistical unit, the data used to describe the entire manpower planning area must be the aggregate sum of the relevant data from the various counties within the area. Further, relevant data from each county are as important as the total relevant data of the rural manpower planning area. Since a rural manpower planning area is comprised of various individual communities, the overriding effects of one community may alter the image of the entire manpower planning area. However, by acknowledging

the extreme factors and by deleting them from the total, if and when necessary, a more realistic picture of the general population of the rural manpower planning area can be established.

By analyzing the age, race, and income level characteristics of the rural area and by comparing them to those of the urban area, the relevant population differences of the two environments may be illustrated. These data alone do not complete the analysis of the rural manpower planning area. They are merely one segment of the total description of the rural environment. There are many other factors such as family size, mobility, and education that could be used to describe the differences in rural and urban populations, but those factors involving age, race, and income level illustrate some of the more obvious differences.

Age

The age characteristics of the rural manpower planning areas do seem to differ from those of the urban manpower planning areas to a limited degree. By examining population data from Area III and by comparing them to those of Wichita, the two populations seem to have about the same age characteristics. Table 4-1 and population pyramids 4-2 and 4-4 show a high degree of similarity between Area III and Wichita when the total population of Area III is considered. They show that the younger age groups represent a slightly larger percentage of the population in the urban sector, while the older age groups represent a slightly larger percentage of the population in the rural sector. The working age groups (i.e., those in groups between the ages of 19 and 65), seem to be approximately the same in terms of percentage for the two areas. The assumption that both areas have approximately the same percentage of people in the working age groups is misleading however. There is a phenomenon in Area III that explains this situation. There is a sizable military

**THIS BOOK
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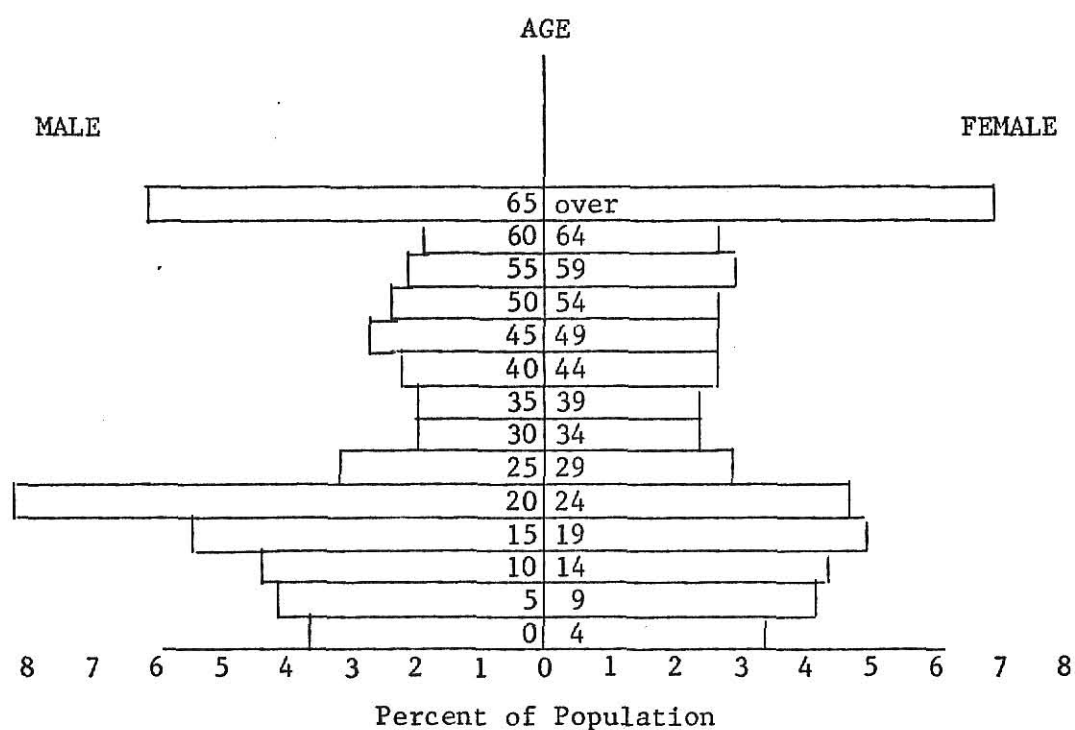
TABLE 4-1
AGE GROUP DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AREA III
AND WICHITA

| Age Group | Area III | | Area III (a) | | Wichita | |
|--------------|----------|--------|--------------|--------|---------|--------|
| | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| 0- 4 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 4.4 | 4.3 |
| 5- 9 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 4.9 |
| 10-14 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 5.3 |
| 15-19 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.8 |
| 20-24 | 8.5 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 4.5 |
| 25-29 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 3.3 |
| 30-34 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.9 |
| 35-39 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 2.9 |
| 40-44 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 3.0 |
| 45-49 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 3.1 |
| 50-54 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 1.7 |
| 55-59 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.9 | 2.2 | 2.4 |
| 60-64 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 1.7 | 2.0 |
| 65 & over | 5.5 | 7.4 | 2.4 | 8.5 | 3.3 | 5.1 |

(a) Without Riley County

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census
General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970
(Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1970).

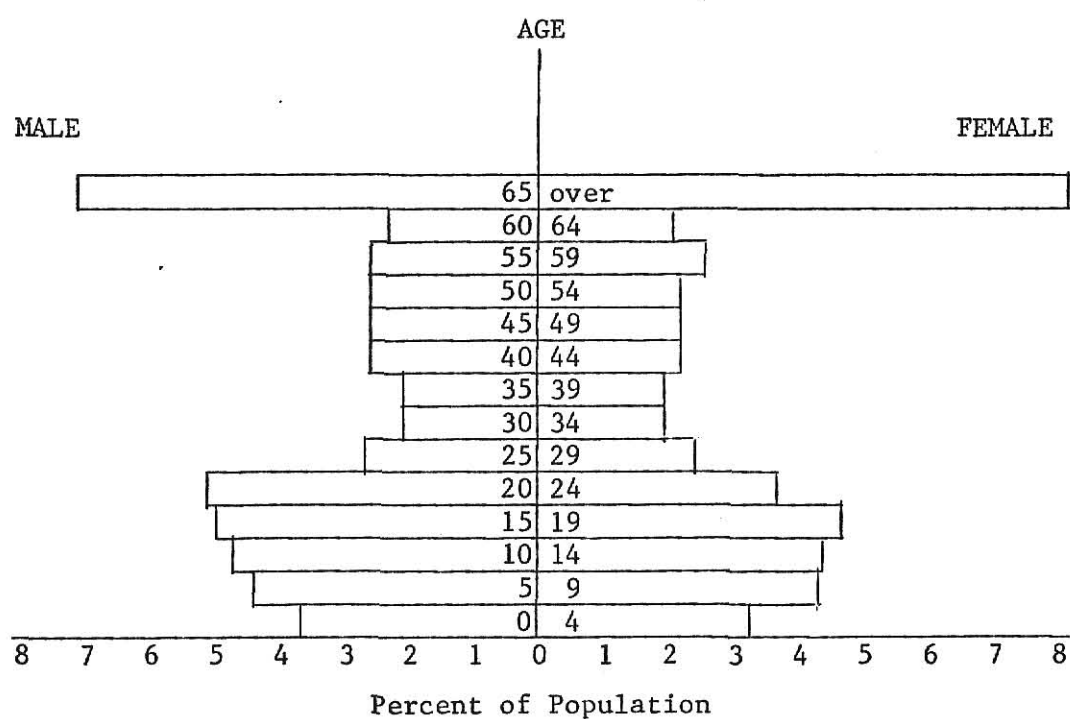
TABLE 4-2
POPULATION PYRAMID OF AREA III
(WITH RILEY COUNTY)



Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census
General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970
(Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1970).

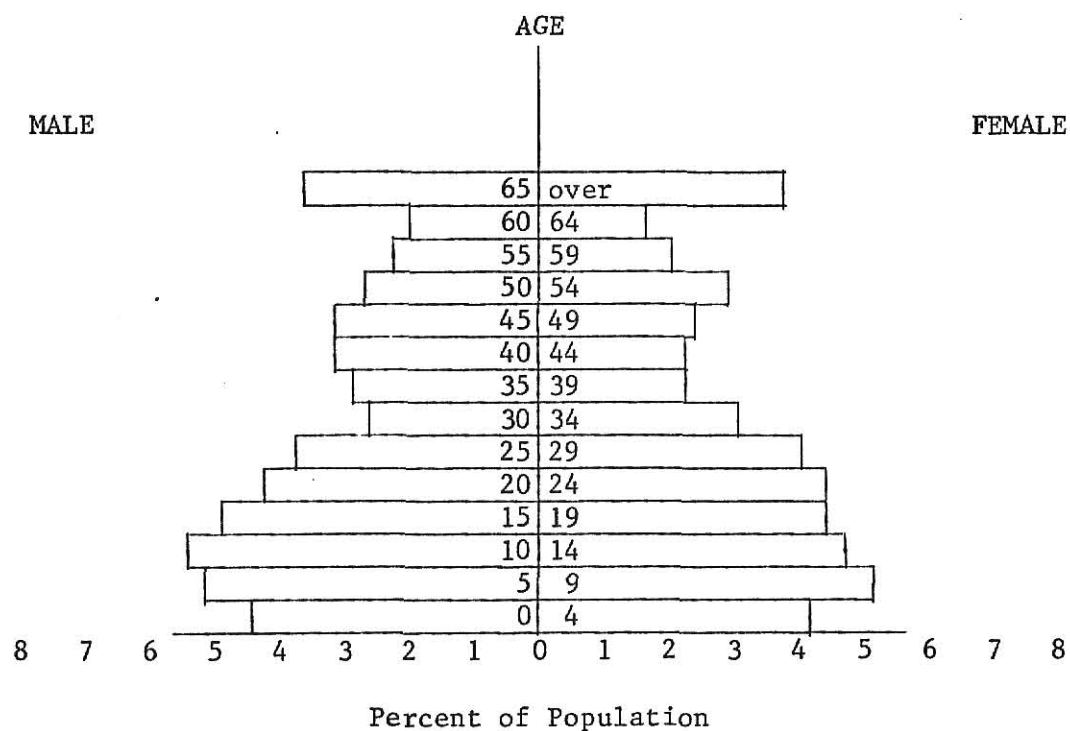
TABLE 4-3

POPULATION PYRIMID OF AREA III
(WITHOUT RILEY COUNTY)



Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census
General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970
 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1970).

TABLE 4-4
POPULATION PYRAMID OF WICHITA



Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census
General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970
 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1970).

reservation, Fort Riley, in Riley County which has a population that, while included in the total population of Area III, deviates from that of the rest of the manpower planning area in terms of age characteristics. Riley County contains approximately half of the total male population between the ages of 20 and 24 in Area III.⁷ The majority of those people are members of the U. S. Army and thus should not be counted as part of the relevant population of the area, given that this population unrealistically effects the total picture of the general population in Area III. Obviously, the members of the military are not competing for jobs and consequently have little impact on the local manpower planning situation. The military installation itself may provide for additional civilian employment, and the presence of the soldiers may bolster the economy, but the military population itself has a limited effect on either the local employment situation or the total employment situation of Area III.

Thus, Riley County's general population does affect the overall population picture in Area III in that it represents 20 percent of Area III's eighteen county total. By subcontracting Riley County's population from the Area III total and by figuring the age group percentages on a seventeen county basis, the population pyramids differ in their appearances. Population pyramid 4-3 is constructed without using Riley County's population and looks markedly different than 4-2 which contains Riley County's population. The younger age groups in Area III remain about the same, but the working age groups become smaller and the older age groups become larger, especially in the female category. This represents a more realistic picture of the difference in the age structures of Area III and Wichita.

There are two reasons that can explain why there are significantly more older people in the rural manpower planning areas than in the urban manpower planning

areas. The first reason is that older people from the urban areas many times move to the rural areas to retire because of the quieter pace of activity and the lower cost of living found in the rural environment. The second reason is that people of the prime working ages are migrating out of the rural areas because of lack of jobs, taking with them their families. The combination of in migration of older people and the outmigration of working age people and their families, which represents the middle and younger age groups, cause the percentage of older people to increase almost every year in rural manpower planning areas.

There are three interrelated ratios that typify the age structure of an area. They are the youth dependency ratio, the aged dependency ratio, and the total dependency ratio.⁸ The youth dependency ratio is figured by dividing the number of people from zero to 18 years of age by the number of people between the ages of eighteen and sixty-five. The resulting ratio represents the proportion of the population which are too young to actively participate in the labor market and therefore are supported by the people in the prime working ages. The aged dependency ratio is figured by dividing the number of people over sixty-five by the number of people between the ages of eighteen and sixty-five. The resulting ratio represents the proportion of people who are too old to actively participate in the labor market and therefore are supported by the people in the prime working ages. The total dependency ratio is figured by adding the total number of people below eighteen years of age and the number of people over sixty-five years of age and dividing the total by the number of people between the ages of eighteen and sixty-five. The resulting ratio represents the proportion of people who do not actively participate in the labor force and therefore are supported by the rest of the population.

Since CETA is concerned with obtaining meaningful employment for the disadvantaged who are seeking full-time employment, it should deal with only those people who are in the prime working ages. The characteristics of the nonproductive members of the manpower planning area are important in an indirect sense, however, because they play a part in creating the environment which the potential client may reside. For instance, if the ratio of nonproductive versus productive members of a given manpower planning area is higher than other comparable manpower planning areas, the determination may be made that the available job market is not very lucrative and that those members of the area who would normally be considered nonproductive could actually be considered productive and competing with traditionally productive members for the available employment opportunities. The target groups who would need manpower planning services may have to include people who would normally not be considered as among those seeking full-time employment. The presence of high dependency ratios may also provide an insight to the barriers to job seekers and the nature of employment opportunities in the area. For instance, if the youth dependency ratio is high, then child care may be deemed a necessary service so that the disadvantaged can obtain meaningful training and/or employment. If the aged dependency ratio is high, it may be clear that a large portion of the available employment opportunities will be in the aging services fields. Although the majority of determinations that can be made from these ratios only indirectly affect CETA administration, they nevertheless play an important role in understanding the environment in which the manpower planning process must take place.

Table 4-5 shows that, without including Riley County in the total population, the youth dependency ratio of Area III and Wichita are more similar if Riley County's population is included. Without the population of Riley

County being added, the aged dependency ratio is almost twice that of Wichita. The significance of this analysis is that it shows that there are a lot fewer people, in terms of percentages, in the prime working ages in Area III than might have been originally assumed.

TABLE 4-5
AGE DEPENDENCY RATIOS OF AREA III
AND WICHITA

| Category | Area III | Area III ^(a) | Wichita |
|-------------------------|----------|-------------------------|---------|
| Youth Dependency Ratio | 54.7 | 64.3 | 68.0 |
| Aged Dependency Ratio | 23.1 | 28.9 | 15.3 |
| Total Dependency Ratios | 77.9 | 93.3 | 83.3 |
| Percent of Working Age | 56.2 | 51.7 | 54.5 |
| Median Ages | 26.0 | 30.0 | 25.9 |

(a) Minus Riley County population.

The larger percentage of older persons in Area III will affect the nature of the economy and the policies of local decision-makers. Not only the older citizens themselves, but also the nature of the administrators of the local rest homes, senior citizen service organizations, and public agencies and private businesses that cater to the older citizens may tend to influence local decision-makers to recommend CETA programs that will benefit their goals rather than the goals of the CETA legislation. As long as the goals of senior citizens and the public and private institutions upon which they depend coincide with the goals of CETA in terms of placing people in unsubsidized, meaningful employment, there will be few problems in the coordination of activities. A problem may occur if the goals and objectives of the aging programs and the CETA programs conflict. For instance, the manpower needed for an aged services agency may be too technically orientated for CETA training. The needed position may require more than a year of training and/or a lengthy amount of work

experience.

As noted in the previous chapters, CETA is designed for those people who lack skill and/or work experience. Unless a person can obtain the necessary training for a position within a years time through vocational training or obtain the needed skills while on the job, through subsidization employment, CETA cannot play a part on providing employment opportunities to the disadvantaged. Unless the employers accept the limitations of CETA guidelines, the accomplishment of CETA goals and objectives will not be met. Continued attempts to solve an unworkable situation may lead to frustration and antagonism on both the part of the CETA staff and local employers. For example, in Area III the Marion Council on Aging wanted to hire a CETA client on a subsidized basis to run its senior citizen's center at a local hospital. It was willing to hire a disadvantaged person if they could be subsidized for nine months. It felt it could retain the person after the subsidization period because it was hoping for the passage of a tax levee to support the center. The problem developed when all persons referred to the center by CETA "failed" the interview. The Council wanted someone with both knowledge and experience of aging service centers. It was certain in the beginning that it could find a disadvantaged person who met their prescribed technical qualifications, but as the interviewing process continued, the Council became frustrated and began to encourage the CETA representative to relax requirements somewhat so that it could find someone to fill the position. The CETA representative became frustrated when after bending the rules slightly, the Council still could not find anyone to fill their position. The situation created hard feelings not only on the part of the Council against CETA, but also on the part of local officials against CETA in general. Since employment opportunities are at a premium in the rural area, the needs of prominent employers such as a senior citizen

center, rank as high priorities to local decision-makers. Thus, any outside influence that would generate activities contrary to those needs might well be met with apathy at best.

Race

Although manpower planning areas, especially in the Midwest, will have low percentages of ethnic minority groups within the general populations, the rural areas will generally have even lower percentages. Area III has only a 4.2 percent ethnic minority population, while Wichita has an 11.7 percent ethnic minority population.⁹ Thus, ethnic minorities are even more of a minority, so to speak, in the rural environment. As a result, their voice in the local decision-making process will be even less than that of their counterparts in the urban environment. In addition, the level of racial prejudice will generally be higher in the rural than in the urban area. While the level of racial prejudice in the urban area seems to decrease in proportion to the lack of contact with racial groups, the level of racial prejudice in the rural sector seems to grow in proportion to the lack of contact of racial groups. Although the number of ethnic minorities in the rural manpower planning areas is usually small, the level of racial prejudice tends to be relatively high because Midwestern rural societies in particular seem to change attitudes slower than urban, rural, coastal and even rural Southern societies; as a result, they tend to view ethnic minorities as they were viewed in the 1940's and the 1950's. Further, the more isolated the environment, the slower the relevant attitudes tend to change. For example, an employment office manager in Area III remarked in 1975 that it was unfair of the state to require him to find jobs for ethnic minorities because they were either too dumb or too lazy to work. This attitude is certainly an extreme example, but it illustrates the relatively conservative attitude existing not only among rural populations

in general, but also among rural social service officials. Finally, the Spencerian attitude of the Agrarian society adds to racial prejudice in the rural environments. The rural Whites generally resent money being spent on ethnic minorities because they believe these minorities are uneducated and poor because they are basically inferior in both ability and motivation. Any minority who does become educated and skilled is termed a "credit to his race." This type of attitude seems to be decreasing in most parts of the nation, but continues to exist in the rural areas, primarily because of the isolation and White economic frustrations.

In a Gallup Poll taken in 1974, various groups of people were polled to determine, among other things, the relationship of their attitudes toward Blacks and their place of residence.¹⁰ In the urban areas those who lived in the more affluent, predominantly White neighborhoods had a more tolerant attitude toward Blacks, while a relatively high number of those who lived in agricultural areas, also predominantly White, had a less tolerant view toward Blacks. Because of the racially orientated attitude in the rural manpower planning area, in which these agricultural areas are of course located, Blacks in particular will have a significant barrier to surmount in order to find meaningful employment. An ethnic minorities in general will be much harder to place in the rural manpower planning area. Those ethnic minorities that do exist in the rural areas live in concentrated locations, giving that location an entirely different racial composition than the remainder of the manpower planning area. Almost all rural manpower planning areas will experience this type of situation. For example, in Western Kansas, Spanish speaking migrant-workers have settled close to sugar beet producing areas around Garden City and Goodland;¹¹ and in Eastern Kansas, the Indian reservation near Horton serves as a concentration point for Native Americans.¹² In Area III the

relevant example is the Black population of Junction City.

While Area III is predominantly White, it contains a county that has a higher percentage of Black population than most urban manpower planning areas in Kansas. Specifically, Geary County, with Junction City containing the bulk of the population, has the second highest percentage of Black population in the state. This county has a 12.4 percent Black population, while Wichita has only an 11.7 percent Black population.¹³ The most significant problem of the disadvantaged Black population is the lack of awareness of the employment opportunities that exist outside their own immediate area. Since the surrounding rural communities are predominantly White and the level of racial prejudice is high, there is very little communications concerning employment opportunities between the Black population in Geary County and the surrounding communities. As indicated previously, in order to be able to take advantage of meaningful employment possibilities in the rural environment, one must consider more than one community. Because of the overwhelming White populations and the high level of racial prejudice of surrounding communities, Blacks, as well as other ethnics, are reluctant to leave their own community unless they have the courage, to say nothing of economic resources, to move to an urban environment where they may still be unprepared to participate competitively in the local labor market.

Two major barriers to employment for Blacks in the rural environment, racial prejudice and a general unwillingness to locate in communities other than their own, are not usually experienced by the average disadvantaged person in the rural manpower planning area. A White disadvantaged person may slip right into a position if no one ever discovered he/she was disadvantaged but, needless to say, an ethnic minority is recognized immediately. Because of the additional barriers created by racial prejudice especially the ethnic

minorities of the rural manpower planning area must be even more qualified than their White counterparts. While rural employers express emphatically that they will hire "qualified Negroes," what this statement really means is that White employers may be qualified without question, but that ethnics must demonstrate their qualifications before employment.¹⁴ Of course, to imply that racial prejudice exists only in rural manpower planning areas would be a gross exaggeration, but the important facts to remember are that racial prejudice affects minorities in rural manpower planning areas more acutely than it does urban manpower planning areas, and that it arises from different circumstances in the rural manpower planning area. In both the rural and urban atmospheres the ethnic must deal with discrimination in terms of hiring practices, but there are few organizations in the rural manpower planning area to assist the ethnic competition for employment opportunities on an equal status with Whites. Most social service agencies and employment service agencies in the rural areas have almost all White staffs, and this seems grim to ethnics, particularly in a basically all White community. Predictably, there is little communication between the surrounding communities and the neighborhoods in the community in which the minority population resides. If the ethnic does find employment outside his/her immediate community, he/she will probably be the first ethnic to work in that area, so not only the quality of his/her work, but also his/her personality and life style will be scrutinized closely by the members of the local community. His/her experience may akin to that of Jackie Robinson becoming the first Black major league baseball player. Instead of becoming the first ethnic major league baseball player, he/she will become the ethnic worker in a former all White environment.

It may seem improper to deal so extensively with the employment barriers to members of ethnic minority groups in the rural manpower planning area

because they comprise such a small percentage of the total population. They are, however, an important part of the total population. They are also the most hard pressed among the disadvantaged rural population and the most likely to migrate to urban centers because of the presence of other ethnic minorities in those centers. One of the reasons for performing manpower planning in the rural environment is to slow the migration of unskilled workers from the rural to the urban areas. Therefore, the utility of CETA to Area III will depend in large part on its applicability to ethnic minority groups.

Income

Income is the final and most important among the population characteristics of the rural area that defines manpower planning needs. The average income in the rural sector is roughly four-fifths of that in the urban sector.¹⁵ This is important because the relative incomes of various population groups within a given environment are illustrative of the status level of each group in the community. Also the poverty level income characteristics of the rural manpower planning area can be compared to that of the urban manpower planning area. However, in order to compare the two environments fully both the general income characteristics and the poverty level income characteristics should be discussed separately. A comparison of general income characteristics would illustrate differences in the quality of the economies, while a comparison of the poverty level income characteristics would show the differences in the poor populations. A complete description shows the rural manpower planning area to be much poorer than the urban manpower planning area.

General Income Characteristics

Given the level of racial bias, the fact that rural minority family incomes are more similar to rural White family incomes than urban minority

population incomes are to urban White family incomes, may seem surprising (see Table 4-6). The situation does not mean however, that rural employers are less biased than urban employers. Rather, it means that there exists less of a range in pay in the rural manpower planning areas. If the bulk of the jobs are low paying, then the bulk of employees will receive low pay, no matter who they are. An example of the results of the pay scale in the rural sector is that while only 50 percent of the families in Wichita earn less than \$10,000 a year, 69 percent of the wage families in Area III earn less than \$10,000 a year.¹⁶ Since the average salaries of rural and urban areas are similar there must be a very few families in the rural areas whose incomes are high enough to raise the area average.

TABLE 4-6
FAMILY INCOME CHARACTERISTICS OF AREA III
AND WICHITA

| Category | Area III | Wichita |
|---|----------|---------|
| Median Family Income | \$7,396 | \$9,523 |
| White Family Median Income | 7,468 | 9,817 |
| Black Family Median Income | 5,313 | 6,066 |
| Percentage of Family Incomes below \$5,000 | 29.0 | 11.9 |
| Percentage of Family Incomes below \$10,000 | 68.9 | 53.4 |
| Percentage of Family Incomes below \$15,000 | 89.1 | 81.5 |
| Percentage of Family Incomes above \$25,000 | 2.4 | 4.9 |

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census
General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970
(Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1970).

In the rural area the cost of living is lower, but the standard of living is also lower. An example of lower standard of living in the rural environment is the general lack of new housing. The ratio of deteriorating and dilapidated housing to adequate housing in the rural areas is high concern of rural regional planners.¹⁷ Poor housing conditions are one of the self-perpetuating factors

that discourages economic development in the rural sector. It is difficult for a business to locate in an area if there is limited housing available for employees; however it is also difficult to encourage housing construction in an area where a majority of people may not be able to afford new housing. In the rural area the number of people who can afford new housing is so minimal that contractors cannot build enough homes to make the activity profitable, given the economies of scale. The average cost of a new three or four bedroom house in Area III is currently about \$40,000.¹⁸ According to Maurice Unger, the average low income family can afford to spend no more than one-fourth of its income for housing.¹⁹ The payments on a \$40,000 house will be at least \$300 a month.²⁰ This means the owner would have to earn about \$1,200 a month to afford a new house. This example may seem slightly inappropriate because \$1,200 a month is not exactly considered a low income, but it illustrates a primary reason for the general lack of adequate housing in the rural manpower planning area. Since the average family income in Area III is \$7,396, and since 69 percent of the families make less than \$10,000 a year, it is unlikely that many rural families will be able to afford new housing.

Another result of the low wage scale in the rural environment is that local citizens and decision-makers are less receptive to long-range projects. Rural citizens are used to living from paycheck to paycheck because of their low incomes and thus expect to see immediate results from their salaries as well as their tax dollars. Rural planning in general is segmented and short-ranged. The long-range planning goals of CETA seem alien to the rural governmental way of planning. This segmented and short-range planning decreases the potential for knowledge of future expansions of the work force. If public officials know in the present of future manpower needs, and are willing to plan

for those needs, CETA resources can be used in the form of skill training or wage subsidization in order to establish an able work force to be available when future funding becomes a reality. Without knowledge of future funding, however, CETA resources will be of little benefit because the people trained may go right back to the ranks of the unemployed. Local officials need the additional tax dollars from constituents to finance long-range projects and/or generate funds for matching federal grants in aid for needed projects. Because of local attitudes and weak taxing authority, short-range planning, like the state of the local economy, is a self-perpetuating problem in the rural manpower planning area.

To revitalize the economy and to attract businesses to the area, local governments must generate some funds of their own as well as receive some from state and federal sources to halt the continuation of economic decay in the rural manpower planning area. Quality businesses need incentives to move into the rural areas. They need many of the same conveniences as already exist in the urban areas. Coordination between CETA and local officials can provide a start for the funding of facilities. Thus, the economic betterment of the community is an incentive for local decision-makers to utilize CETA in planning long-range projects. Prompting CETA as a resource in accomplishing the economic betterment of the community may be difficult because of the newness of the program and the focus toward the disadvantaged, but local officials may be desperate for any resources that can assist in solving their worsening economic situation.

Poverty Level Income Characteristics

There are three types of data that may be studied in order to determine the characteristics of the rural poor. They are census data (i.e., General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970), welfare and employment data, and

program participant data. The General Population Characteristics data gives an overall perspective of the status of the poor populations, while the welfare and employment data illustrates what areas have the highest welfare and unemployment costs. The program participant data show the characteristics of clients who have received CETA services since the program began in February of 1975. It covers operations of fiscal year '75 and fiscal year '76 up to February, 1976.

According to the 1970 census data, there are the same number of families in Area III as there are in Wichita. Table 4-7 illustrates comparisons of poverty statistics based on census information. There is a larger percentage of people and families in the rural area having incomes below the poverty guidelines established by the federal Department of Labor (DOL). These poverty guidelines, as shown in Table 4-8, are so low that a family receiving as much as 125 percent of the poverty guidelines could still be considered poor because of the expense of housing, groceries and essential items a family may need to exist. For example, DOL guidelines specify \$4,600 as the maximum amount of annual income a family of three may earn to be considered economically disadvantaged. If a family earned 125 percent of the poverty level income, they still only would earn \$5,750 or about \$480 a month. After taxes the net pay would be about \$400 a month. Rent, utilities, and groceries alone may cost a family of three almost \$400 a month and maybe even more. In Area III 17.8 percent of the families have incomes below 125 percent of the poverty guidelines as compared to 11.9 percent in Wichita as shown in Table 4-7. If families with incomes of 125 percent of the poverty level may be considered poor, then families with incomes below 150 percent of the poverty level income may be considered near-poor. There are even more differences in the percentages of the rural and urban areas in this category. The percentage of families with less than 150 percent of the poverty is 24.9

percent in Area III while it is only 16.3 percent in Wichita. While 11.2 percent of the White families in Area III have incomes below the poverty level, 30.8 percent of the Black families have incomes below this level. Even though Black families have a higher percentage of their total with incomes below the poverty level, they represent such a small percentage of the total population that they represent a small percentage of the total number of families with incomes below the poverty level particularly in the rural manpower planning area.

TABLE 4-7

POVERTY INCOME CHARACTERISTICS OF AREA III AND WICHITA

| Category | Area III | Wichita |
|--|----------|---------|
| Total families in Area | 72,174 | 72,490 |
| Percent of families below the pov. level | 11.8 | 8.1 |
| Percent of Black families below the pov. level ... | 30.8 | 36.2 |
| Percent of White families below the pov. level ... | 11.2 | 10.1 |
| Percent of Female heads of household below the poverty level | 38.0 | 47.3 |
| Percent of families below 125% of the pov. level . | 17.8 | 11.9 |
| Percent of families below 150% of the pov. level . | 24.9 | 16.3 |
| Percent of families receiving Welfare | 2.6 | 7.3 |
| Percent of families Unemployed | 2.0 | 7.2 |

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census
General Population Characteristics, Kansas 1970
 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1970).

It becomes apparent from these data that individuals and families may fall into a priority group because of their economic background rather than because of their ethnic background. This general criteria for establishing priority groups, however, can lead to an inappropriate manpower planning process. An ethnic may be eligible for a CETA program because he/she is economically disadvantaged, but this is probably a result of the level of

TABLE 4-8

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR POVERTY GUIDELINES

| Family Size | Maximum Annual Income |
|-------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | \$2,800 |
| 2 | 3,700 |
| 3 | 4,600 |
| 4 | 5,500 |
| 5 | 6,400 |
| 6 | 7,300 |
| 7(a) | 8,200 |

(a) Add \$900. for each additional member.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower
Administration, Prime Sponsor Issuance
No. 26-76, (Washington, D.C.: April 1, 1976.)

racial prejudice in the rural manpower planning area; that is the color of his/her skin has been a major factor in creating his/her particular economic situation so it should be a major factor in providing him/her CETA services to alleviate that situation. Women constitute another group in a situation similar to that of ethnic minorities. In Area III 7.4 percent of the total families have female heads of household. Even though 38 percent of the total female heads of household have incomes below the poverty guidelines, they represent only 24.8 percent of the total families who have incomes below the poverty guidelines. Female heads of household constitute a relatively small part of the total poverty level group, but their significance increases when the issue of discrimination is taken into consideration. Like ethnic minorities, they face barriers to employment arising from local prejudices. Women, like ethnic minorities, are in many cases competing for nontraditional jobs in rural labor markets, simply because such traditionally female occupations such as waitress and secretary seldom generate enough money to support a family.

Despite the obvious conclusion that the population of rural manpower

planning areas in general are poorer than populations of urban manpower planning areas, only 2.6 percent of the families in Area III, compared to 7.3 percent in Wichita, received some kind of welfare assistance.²¹ The unemployment rate in Area III is around 3 percent compared to 7.2 percent in Wichita.²² These data are produced by welfare and employment services. They obviously are not true indicators of the level of poverty income in the rural manpower planning area because of their conflict with the determinations made by analyzing census information.

The analysis of past program participants is relevant insofar as that most of the subjects involved were economically disadvantaged and were all determined to be in need of CETA services. Table 4-9 illustrates the 310 participants in CETA programs since February 1, 1975. The table divides the participants in five main program activities in which they participated. The five main categories are: (1) Public Service Employment (PSE); (2) Adult Work Experience (AWE); (3) Class Size Skill Training; (4) Skill Training (individual referral); and (5) On the Job Training (OJT). PSE involves the subsidization of a disadvantaged person's salary to a public or private non-profit agency for up to a year if the employer agrees to transfer the person to his/her own payroll at the end of that year. AWE involves CETA paying a person directly \$2.30 an hour for up to 26 weeks while that person works at a public or a private non-profit agency to gain enough work experience to compete for an unsubsidized employment opportunity. Skill Training involves CETA enrolling a person in a vocational school for training up to a year while paying for his/her tuition, books, supplies, transportation, child care, and a living allowance of \$2.30 for each hour of class time. Class Size Skill Training involves the same services as regular Skill Training but it also involves setting up a special class for CETA students rather than enrolling a student in regular

TABLE 4-9

PAST CETA PROGRAM PARTICIPANT (BY ACTIVITY)
CHARACTERISTICS OF AREA III

| Category | Total | PSE | AWE | Skill Tr. (a) | Skill Tr. (b) | OJT |
|-------------------|-------|-----|-----|---------------|---------------|-----|
| Total Clients | 310 | 18 | 24 | 33 | 170 | 65 |
| Male | 139 | 5 | 9 | 5 | 64 | 56 |
| Female | 171 | 13 | 15 | 28 | 106 | 9 |
| <u>Age</u> | | | | | | |
| 18 and under | 24 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 15 | 2 |
| 19-21 | 78 | 1 | 3 | 8 | 50 | 16 |
| 22-44 | 195 | 15 | 13 | 22 | 101 | 44 |
| 45-54 | 11 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 3 |
| 55-64 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 65 and over | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <u>Education</u> | | | | | | |
| High School Grad | 179 | 10 | 13 | 22 | 97 | 37 |
| Eighth Grade Grad | 107 | 8 | 11 | 11 | 49 | 28 |
| <u>Welfare</u> | | | | | | |
| AFCD | 45 | 3 | 5 | 10 | 33 | 4 |
| Other | 19 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 13 | 4 |
| <u>Race</u> | | | | | | |
| Black | 34 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 21 | 4 |
| White | 263 | 16 | 19 | 26 | 141 | 61 |
| Other | 13 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 8 | 1 |

(a) Class size training.

(b) Individual referral.

Source: Kansas Department of Human Resources, Comprehensive Manpower Services Division, CETA Activity Report (Topeka, Kansas: February 1, 1976.)

classes. OJT involves subsidizing a public or private employer for half of a persons salary if the employer agrees to transition the person on to his/her unsubsidized payroll at the end of the funding period. A few significant trends have developed in the characteristics of the clients that have been enrolled in these various programs.

Despite the overwhelming number of male heads of household in Area III, only 45 percent of the total number of participants have been males. There could have been two reasons for this. One could be that the women in the local environment are more desperate to find employment that will pay a supportive salary. The second could be that women in the rural environment are unprepared to be competitive in the local labor market.

In the first case many women are victimized by those businesses that locate in the rural manpower planning area in search of cheap labor. Since many women work to supplement their husband's salary in the rural area, they are usually content to work for a minimal wage. This situation creates a hardship for the female head of household who has an entire family to support. The cost for a woman to support a family is the same as it would be for a man, but since men are the traditional breadwinners, they receive the better paying jobs. This condition exists in both the rural and the urban areas, but low paying businesses are attracted to the rural areas because of the lack of competition of better paying businesses. Consequently, female heads of household may be faced with the need to acquire skills necessary for them to compete with their male counterparts in the labor market. It is significant that the bulk of female participation in CETA has been in Skill Training programs. This is a primary route for a woman to take to be more competitive in the labor market because she needs visable skills she can sell to the employer.

In the second case (i.e., of women unprepared to enter the labor market),

this may be due more to local customs than to the characteristics of the labor market. While the woman's role is changing rapidly in urban areas, women in the rural environment may be victims of geographical segments of the nation that have lagged behind the urban environment in terms of philosophy and customs. Just as clothing fashions tend to appear late in the rural area, changes in philosophy and customs tend to appear late also. While women in the urban areas may be becoming more occupationally goal orientated and thus more career minded, many of the women entering CETA training in the rural area may have had no previous desire or incentive to prepare themselves for employment. Their accumulated occupational skills may consist of little more than those learned years ago in a high school typing or shorthand class. Although attitudes are changing slowly but surely in the rural area, many women needing CETA services have been trained only in the traditional position of home manager instead of home provider.

A second trend that emerges from the program participant data is that many clients have not been high school graduates. Since only 58 percent of the participants have finished high school, general education services are obviously a primary need of CETA clients. Although many employers may not require a high school education for certain jobs, the acquisition of a high school diploma or equivalency can be an important factor in competing for those jobs. In addition, general education services may prepare a participant for employment or additional skill training. Many vocational institutions require a twelfth grade reading level for entry into such classes as Licensed Practical Nurse training and advanced secretarial training. The fact that a participant lacks a high school diploma however, may indicate more than only a need for general educational services so that he/she may take advantage of skill training or an employment opportunity. It may also mean that the

individual was not disciplined or motivated to exist within the structures of a school, and therefore, additional counseling may be necessary to allow the participant to gain the full benefit of CETA services.

The Nature of Barriers to Employment in the Rural Manpower Planning Area

Such factors as the general unavailability of relevant data, the existence of prejudice, the nature of general and poverty income characteristics and the trends in past program participant data are in addition to four specific barriers to employment for the disadvantaged population in the rural manpower planning area. These barriers involve: (1) transportation, (2) communication, (3) work skills, and (4) work experience. For CETA programs to become effective and efficient in the rural environment, CETA administration must deal with problems in these areas.

Transportation

Transportation is one of the most obvious problems in the rural manpower planning area. Businesses and employment service agencies, as well as skill training facilities, are often located as far as a hundred miles apart. Unlike their counterparts in the urban manpower planning area, the rural disadvantaged may have to travel or relocate several, if not many miles in order to take advantage of an employment opportunity or a CETA service. Traveling or relocating that far costs money, and the typical disadvantaged family cannot afford the expense unless it assured a well paying job. In addition, even if assured of a well paying job, its economic condition may be such that it cannot afford to borrow or to raise somehow the money necessary to travel or relocate. For someone who cannot afford to travel or relocate in order to take advantage of an employment opportunity or skill training, existence at

a poverty level income or worse, can be self perpetuating.

While the cost involved for a single person to travel or relocate may not be especially prohibitive, the cost factor for a person who is the head of a family, for whom most CETA programs are intended, can be critical. Of course, if the head of a household relocates his/her family, the cost involved will be more than that for only one person. Further, if the head of a household chooses to leave his/her family behind and to return to it on nonworking days, as some do, the result may be an additional strain on a family structure already burdened by a poverty level income. In any case, the head of a household may be risking a great deal in order to obtain employment. Since the average disadvantaged person usually has not experienced an illustrious work record, he/she may not feel the chance of obtaining long term, well paying employment is balanced by the costs involved and the potential risk in terms of emotional strain.

Communication

Related to the problem of transportation is the problem of communication. The communication problem, like the transportation problem, results in part from the geographic vastness of the rural manpower planning area. The rural job seeker is usually situated in a small community, which is only a small part of the total rural manpower planning area. While the urban job seeker has access to television and radio stations and newspapers which cover the entire manpower planning area, the rural job seeker usually has access primarily to locally orientated media. There are a few regionally orientated newspapers in rural manpower planning areas, e.g., the Salina Journal in Area III, but most of the media relevant locally orientated. Employment service agencies in the rural manpower planning area usually carry information concerning employment opportunities not only locally and regionally, but also on a

statewide basis, but there is a problem of access since there are only a few employment service agencies in the rural areas.

There is presently no system in the rural manpower planning area that would gather employment opportunity as well as information and disperse it adequately throughout all the communities in the area. Thus, it is difficult for the rural job seeker to obtain information about employment opportunities outside his/her own community unless some aspect of the media or an employment service agency advertises those opportunities. The cost of traveling from community to community to search for employment opportunity information would be prohibitive, given the budget of the average rural disadvantaged person. The result of such travel would probably be negative at any rate because the rural communities are so isolated in general terms that an individual from one community would have little identification with, and thus little opportunity in another community.

Work Skills

Lack of work skills is a barrier to employment in both the urban and the rural manpower planning areas. In the rural manpower planning area it is a special barrier to ethnics and women, both of whom are forced to prove their "qualifications" for employment because of local definitions of appropriate occupational roles and general conservative bias. There are primarily four reasons why disadvantaged persons have not been able to take advantage of skill training services in rural manpower planning areas. First, the disadvantaged person may not be able to afford the skill training. If a person is already disadvantaged, he/she can hardly afford the additional expense of attending school. Further, if a disadvantaged person is employed, he/she can hardly afford to quit a job to attend school. Finally, if the person attempts to work a sufficient number of hours in order to support a

family and attend school at the same time, he/she may not do well at either. Second, the disadvantaged person may not possess the specific entry level requirements for a certain class. For example, many skill classes, such as Licensed Practical Nurse (LPN) training, requires at least a twelfth grade education. Those who do not meet this requirement must complete Adult Basic Education (ABE) courses in order to prepare themselves for a skill training class. These ABE courses are not always available and are often unattractive to many because they remind them of their past failures in high school. Third, as mentioned above, the skill training centers in the rural manpower planning area are usually miles apart. In order to take advantage of skill training, the disadvantaged person must either commute or relocate. In all too many cases, acceptance of either of these alternatives may cost more than the average disadvantaged person can afford. Fourth, the disadvantaged person must be able to compete with non-disadvantaged persons openings in skill training classes. Local private and public schools are concerned with placement rates; therefore, they are selective in their acceptance procedures. At the present time they can afford to be selective because of the popularity of vocational training in the rural area. For example, last year the Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School turned away more students than it enrolled.²² Applicants with below or even average educational and work records may be screened out in favor of more potentially successful applicants.

Although skill training is not as crucial to obtaining employment in the rural manpower planning area as it is in the urban manpower planning area, it remains prime requisite for halting the migration of unskilled workers from the rural to the urban areas. Because a disadvantaged person may not be able to enter vocational training in the rural manpower planning area, he/she may feel that the business activity and the general availability of

services in the urban area is a more beneficial atmosphere for obtaining employment.

Work Experience

Lack of work or experience is a particularly troublesome barrier to employment for the disadvantaged person in the rural environment. Many employers in the rural manpower planning area contend that they are simply looking for "dependable workers." By not fully defining what they mean by "dependable workers," they are able to exercise their own specific brand of bias. There are those employers, however, who are honestly looking for dependable workers who they can trust primarily because their profit margins are so small that they cannot afford to risk hiring an inexperienced employee. These employers usually require only that their applicants have a work record that illustrates a history of ability and competence. The experience sought may or may not be of a specialized nature, but in any case, it should constitute a reference sufficiently sound for the employer to hire the individual. Just as it is difficult for a person to get a loan if he/she has not borrowed money previously, it is difficult for a person to get a job if he/she has not worked previously.

Conclusions

The characteristics of the rural populations differ from those of the urban populations. The rural populations are generally poorer, older, and have far fewer ethnics and women in the labor force. Although welfare and employment service data show the urban areas to be poorer the attitudinal and geographical forces of the rural environment cause the data to be misleading because of lack of local utilization. This lack of utilization of welfare and employment service data is caused by the mistrust and peer pressure of local

people, the mistrust of local employers and the inaccessability of local offices. The rural areas are older in terms of population characteristics since more people in the prime working ages outmigrate because of the lack of economic opportunity, and since more older people immigrate because of the attractiveness of the rural environment for retirement. Far fewer ethnics and women are represented in the rural labor force because of local racial prejudices and because of traditional definitions of occupational roles.

These reasons for the difference in the population characteristics of the two types of manpower planning areas are more important than the differences themselves because they represent the sources of the barriers to employment to the disadvantaged in terms of the local environment. For example, in the rural manpower planning area, racial and sexual biases are products of years of beliefs. Unlike in the urban environment where ethnics and women are more traditional members of the labor force, rural employers do not consider ethnics and women as competitive in the labor force unless they have very obvious skills. Also, people who are poor are generally considered deserving of manpower planning assistance because so few people in the rural environment have received such assistance in the past. Specifically because of the sparcity and the dispersed nature of the population, rural communities have not been eligible for numerous federal assistance programs, especially federal assistance programs designed for the disadvantaged, and consequently, have developed an attitude of self-reliance.

The rural disadvantaged, particularly ethnics and women, are located in an area that is apathetic concerning, and perhaps even hostile to their situation. Added to this is the fact that relevant resources, such as skill training and work experience, are difficult for the disadvantaged person in the rural area to obtain. In sum, in order to overcome the barriers to

employment in the rural manpower planning area, not only must the inadequacies of the job seeker be defined and corrected, but the local attitudes standing between a job seeker and a job must be defined and corrected also.

CHAPTER IV

FOOTNOTES

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CHAPTER V

DELIVERING CETA PROGRAM SERVICES IN THE RURAL MANPOWER PLANNING AREA

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the problems encountered in implementing CETA program services--e.g., job referral, skill training and work experience,--in the rural manpower planning area. The problems are usually created by the transportation, communication, and community involvement inadequacies found in the rural environment as well as political apathy, employer attitudes, and the segmentation of rural governmental planning. Theoretically, once these formulative factors can be explained in terms of the local environment, a constructive analysis can begin to solve the problems of implicating CETA program services in the rural manpower planning area.

The degree of efficiency and effectiveness achieved in delivering CETA program services in the rural environment will depend heavily on the nature of the operational structure (i.e., the system designed to deliver CETA program services throughout the manpower planning area), as well as the geographic, social, and political characteristics of the specific manpower planning area. Developing a relevant operational structure in the rural manpower planning area can be much more difficult than developing one in the urban manpower planning area, primarily because of the absence in the rural area of some type of encompassing political administrative structure that would both identify with, and be responsible for the design of a program service delivery

system. Although a specific state office has responsibility for designing the CETA service delivery structure for the Balance of State (BOS) manpower planning area, as specified in the CETA act, it can only deliver program services on a statewide basis.¹ Most of a states welfare, employment, health, and other program services of this kind are delivered in a similar manner throughout the state by means of a network of state agencies. The BOS manpower planning area, however, is divided into several sub-areas; each designated as a rural manpower planning area and each of which has its own particular needs. Although the rural manpower planning areas may be homogenous in terms of economic and population characteristics, they may vary greatly in terms of the environmental factors which condition those characteristics; and it is those environmental factors which may determine the nature and scope of a particular program service. For instance, a need for transportation and relocation services may be important in all rural manpower planning areas, but obviously that need is of a different magnitude in Area I of the Kansas BOS Prime Sponsorship which includes 48 counties than it is in Area IV which includes only nine counties. Those differences among rural manpower planning areas in terms of manpower needs consequently necessitate a variety of program service delivery structures.

As a result, the BOS Prime Sponsor is faced with the decision of whether to establish a program service delivery structure within its own state agency system that is relevant to each rural manpower planning area or to subcontract the delivery of CETA program services to organizations in the specific areas which it feels possesses both knowledge of the local environment and competency to perform the process of regional CETA program service delivery. In either case the Prime Sponsor must determine what the most appropriate operational structure should be for each rural manpower planning area. Thus, the Prime

Sponsor has taken from the Federal Manpower Administration the responsibility of the decision of the appropriate method of local delivery of manpower program services. This shift of responsibility is one of the most important differences between CETA and previous manpower planning legislation. How well the Prime Sponsor understands the characteristics of the local manpower planning area and the capabilities and attitudes of local officials will determine how successfully a Prime Sponsor designs a CETA operational structure and consequently achieves the goals of the legislation.

Given analysis presented in the last two chapters, the designers of the operational structure for CETA program services in the rural manpower planning area will face three main areas of concern: (1) client recruitment; (2) coordination with local agencies; and (3) program relevance. The design of the operational structure must allow the program service deliverer (i.e., the Prime Sponsor or the designated subcontractor), for a particular area to address these four concerns on a regional basis. That is, the operational structure must apply to all communities within a rural manpower planning area. The problems are regional, thus the solutions must also be regional. Utilizing Area III as an example, the problems encountered in the search for solutions in each of the three areas of concern in the rural manpower planning area will be discussed.

Client Recruitment

The main problem concerning client recruitment in rural manpower planning is that of accessibility. The few employment opportunities that do exist in the rural area are so competitive in nature that the disadvantaged population may never even hear of them. The recruitment phase of rural-oriented CETA operational structure should first, make CETA program services known and available to all potential clients, and second, convince potential clients

that the CETA manpower can really assist him/her in obtaining meaningful employment. The former task necessitates locating places where disadvantaged individuals can go to for information, and the latter task necessitates eliminating the negative connotations disadvantaged individuals have placed on past social programs in general and manpower planning in specific.

"Discovering" the Disadvantaged

Locating appropriate media that will carry CETA information to the disadvantaged is a difficult process in the rural manpower planning area because the rural media are mostly locally oriented, and few carry much information helpful to the disadvantaged in any form. Ethnics may be reached through the Human Relations Commissions found in the growth centers, but a general lack of these commissions by poor Whites limits their utility. A Human Relations Commission Director for Salina often relates a story that exemplifies the situation. He says that once a man came into his office and told him he thought he had been fired from a job unjustly and wondered if the Human Relations Commission could help him even though he was White.² The Director expressed frustration because only a small percentage of White people in need utilized his commission's services because of racial misconceptions.

The utilization of welfare and employment agencies to provide CETA information to the disadvantaged can also be frustrating. One of the reasons CETA was established was because legislators did not feel that existing governmental agencies were satisfactorily meeting the needs of the disadvantaged.³ This disturbed the state administrators of state welfare and employment service agencies, and they allowed their feelings to filter down to their employees at the local level. The administrators were upset first, because the legislators decided they were not doing an adequate job, and secondly, because the money to improve program services would not be directly given

to the agencies any longer. Given the resulting hostility, local agency personnel may not be inclined to encourage local clients to participate in CETA program services. This attitude is especially prevalent among many of the Kansas State Employment Service (KSES) personnel.

Because of low participation rates and low job placement rates, KSES has received fewer funds each year for the last three years.⁴ Consequently, KSES has been desperate to receive manpower planning funds in order to avoid further cuts in personnel. When KSES did not receive from the Kansas BOS Prime Sponsor the contract for delivering manpower program services in the Western Kansas manpower planning area, the local KSES agency personnel were ordered by their central office not to cooperate with the recruiting activities of local CETA program service deliverers.⁵ In Area III the KSES did receive a contract for most of CETA services but did not receive the contract to perform the Adult Work Experience (AWE) or the Skill Training (ST) services. The opinion of some local KSES personnel has been that the KSES central office did not encourage local personnel to cooperate with other agencies delivering CETA program services, but rather hoped to make these other agencies look bad.⁶ The level of cooperation varies, of course, depending on the local KSES personnel. For instance, if local KSES personnel feel that their prime loyalty is to their superiors, then they may discourage potential clients from participating in CETA program services, whereas if they feel their first priority is to the individuals they serve, they may continue to refer clients to various CETA program service deliverers.

"Selling" the Disadvantaged

Once the potential clients are "discovered," they may need to be convinced that they can benefit from CETA program services. While in the urban areas antipoverty programs have existed in some number for years, they are fairly

recent arrivals to the rural areas, since rural areas have not qualified for many social service programs because of their low welfare and unemployment rates. The advent of a new program like CETA may seem too good to be true, so to speak, to the potential client. Thus, the agency performing CETA recruitment must be one with which the potential client can identify. Since CETA is so new, there are relatively few results available to lend an agency credibility, but if the agency possesses a good reputation for delivering other services in the past, the disadvantaged may feel sufficiently comfortable to utilize that agency for CETA program services.

Potential clients must also overcome their feelings of failure if they are to fully benefit by a social service such as CETA. Individuals involved in the recruitment process must explain carefully that CETA is not a "handout program" but an employment assistance program within which the potential client is expected to expand effort. The recruitment structure will have to be flexible however, for the information concerning CETA requirements and opportunities must be disseminated to many differing rural communities and thus possibly facing many differing misconceptions. In order to convince the disadvantaged to apply for CETA program services, they need to overcome their fear of embarrassment, which often accompanies accepting such services. To achieve CETA credibility, the recruitment structure will have to carry its message directly to the people in general and to the disadvantaged in specific. The help of local officials and/or community leaders in the recruiting process cannot be expected as a rule because they may not wish to admit that poverty exists in their community. If there are poor people in a community, the officials and/or leaders may want them to feel that their particular situation is their own fault and not that of the immediate cultural and political setting. Whether the recruiting segment of the overall operational

structure is attempting to influence people to apply for CETA program services or simply attempting to make them aware of these services, the informational process must reach many communities. Because of limited funds, CETA may need to rely on local voluntary social service organizations to aid in this recruitment of potential clients. Unfortunately, rural communities usually vary greatly in terms of numbers of, and involvement with these organizations. An example of two communities which are about the same size, but which vary greatly in terms of community involvement are Council Grove and Hillsboro. The city of Council Grove has many volunteer social service organizations which work with the disadvantaged members of the community. For example, it has Council on Aging which has raised money for a recreational center for older citizens, and for a minibus that transports older citizens from the outlying areas and provides transportation to various cultural events. It also has a "foster family program" in which a family with a liveable income works with a poorer family in order to help it alleviate its economic and social situation. Finally, it also has several youth and other special interest group programs. On the other hand, such programs do not exist in Hillsboro. The Hillsboro Chamber of Commerce is attempting to promote these types of programs, but the community is apparently not enthused to create programs such as these. The population in and around Hillsboro is predominantly Mennonite, and it is opposed to anything that resembles "charity." It does believe in helping each other, but is particular as to who is helped, and it resents government involvement. The disadvantaged population of both these two cities deserve the chance to participate in CETA program services. One group of the general population should not be penalized because its community does not wish to become involved in helping the disadvantaged. Thus, in some cases CETA program services may need to be "advertised" without

the help of local officials or leaders or voluntary social service organizations. When these resources can be utilized, however, CETA program services can be delivered much more efficiently and effectively.

Coordination With Local Agencies

The purpose of CETA service programs is not to work in opposition to local agencies, but to coordinate their resources with CETA resources in order to maximize the impact on the local disadvantaged population.⁷ This coordination is important for two reasons. The first is that local agencies may be able to offer resources such as child care, general education services, and other supportive services to CETA clients, and the second is that these agencies can provide information about the local population, especially its environmental and employment characteristics. The development and maintenance of coordination with these agencies can be difficult, however, in part because of professional jealousy and in part because of the reluctance to accept new ideas. CETA, it should be recalled, was created because existing federal, state, and local agencies were not meeting the employment needs of local disadvantaged populations. Local agency personnel may resent new programs often including new personnel who would attempt to improve their past efforts coming into their office.

There are two types of local agencies with which the CETA operational structure needs to cooperate: (1) governmental agencies, and (2) voluntary organizations. Local governmental agencies are continually delivering services planned and administered by federal and state bureaucracies, while local voluntary organizations are generally delivering services planned and administered at the local level. Because CETA program services are designed to be delivered at the regional level, its jurisdiction seldom, if ever, conforms to the activities of either type of local structure. The goals of CETA may

thus conflict with those of the local agencies and/or organizations. For the CETA operational structure to operate constructively, these conflicts must be kept to a minimum and the resources of each agency and or organization must be utilized to the maximum.

Local Governmental Agencies

The two primary local governmental agencies which are related to CETA activities and which usually exist in the rural manpower planning area are vocational schools and employment service agencies; all are concerned with preparation for employment. The vocational schools have received categorical manpower planning grants in the past through the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), but have never really achieved their manpower planning goals.⁸ Like the skill training centers established under MDTA, they have attempted to train people mostly in skills for which they already have classroom openings. They are concerned with placement rates and thus tend to be very selective in their admission procedures. Before the advent of CETA, the percentage of ethnics in vocational schools was very low. The low percentage was not necessarily because the schools were discriminating against ethnics because of their abilities but because they were hard to place in the predominantly White labor market. For example, in the Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School, the percentage of ethnic students was five percent before CETA was established and rose to 10 percent after CETA began operations in 1975.⁹ Because of a lack of identification on the part of the Manhattan Black population with the vocational school, the trend of low participation might have continued had not CETA been instituted. The goals of the vocational schools were to fill the classes with those students most likely to succeed. The majority of instructors were White, and the majority of local employers were also White, and the majority of students were White. Thus, they seemingly

recruited the students they were most comfortable with. They did not attempt to recruit some ethnic students in order to meet federal equal opportunity guidelines, but were met with distrust by the ethnic community because of the 100 percent White faculty. The availability of free training through CETA, however, did encourage some Blacks to enroll. Hopefully the successfullness of CETA labor market planning will reduce the scepticism of school officials and instructors, and the goals of the two programs (vocational education and CETA) can be achieved more or less simultaneously. Nevertheless, the CETA operational structure will have to convince vocational schools to accept CETA clients in ways that are conducive to CETA goals.

The KSES agencies are perhaps the most troublesome governmental agency to deal with in the rural area; and on the other hand, are also the most helpful. KSES offices have traditionally delivered most programs that have dealt with training and employment. However, they have failed to provide for the training and employment of the disadvantaged and their number of placements have decreased each year. The enactment of CETA legislation is an apparent criticism of KSES officials and personnel. The planning of manpower service programs which were authorized to them under MDTA have been taken from them and given to Prime Sponsors. Unless KSES agencies receive funding from Prime Sponsors to deliver CETA program services, they will tend to be unreceptive to the idea of cooperating with other agencies to deliver CETA program services. If these agencies do receive Prime Sponsor funding, they often tend to be reluctant to perform activities which would conflict with the requirements of the Wagner Peyser Act. This Act provided for the original source of funding employment service agencies throughout the nation.¹⁰ The number of placements of individuals by employment service offices in each state determines the amount of funding each employment service system receives

each year. CETA, on the other hand, involves more than just matching people with jobs. As indicated previously, it involves several activities directed toward eliminating barriers to employment for the disadvantaged.

Voluntary Organizations

The problem involved in coordinating CETA service programs with local voluntary organizations is that CETA is a comprehensive program, while the programs of voluntary organizations are usually categorical. While CETA is designed to perform several programs to eliminate barriers to employment for the disadvantaged in an entire rural manpower planning area, voluntary organizations are usually performing a single activity in a single community. An example would be local agency on aging. This type of voluntary organization would be performing activities only for the aged in its own particular local jurisdiction.

Of particular importance are Community Action Agencies (CAA's). These are agencies established in 1964 in order to deliver manpower and other social services to the disadvantaged of local communities. They were designed to be outside the authority of local officials because legislators apparently felt that the local officials were incapable of meeting the needs of the local disadvantaged populations. CAA's are accustomed to setting their own goals and to defining their own activities. If a CETA Prime Sponsor decides that CETA program services should be delivered to them they are by a CAA; the CAA may resent the suggestions of the Prime Sponsor and continue to deliver their manpower program services as usual. If the Prime Sponsor decides not to fund a CAA, it will work hard to criticize the efforts of other CETA service program deliverers in the area. CAA's do not exist in all rural manpower planning areas, but they can represent a major obstacle for the CETA operational structure in those areas in which they do exist. CETA Prime Sponsors must

determine whether to utilize the CAA's and thus risk not having their service programs delivered the way in which they want them delivered or not to utilize the CAA's and thus risk periodical criticisms instigated by local CAA's.

Existing voluntary organizations are usually helpful to new service program administrators because they have already established lines of communication and made contacts that would take years to create otherwise. CAA's and other local voluntary organizations are formed and staffed by individuals from the local community and therefore are essentially part of the local community. They may open the doors of communication to CETA program deliverers who have the capacity to deliver program services on a regional basis, but lack the individual community identity necessary to recruit potential clients and gain the trust and cooperation of local officials and employers.

Program Relevance

There is no comprehensive general statement that can be made concerning the characteristics of the rural manpower planning area except that there exists internal variations from community to community within it. Therefore, any rural manpower planning program will have to be flexible enough to deal with individual situations in individual communities. People and employers will also have to be dealt with on an individual basis. The program services delivered through the CETA operational structure will have to deal with barriers to employment in the rural manpower planning area. These barriers will be different than those in the urban manpower planning area so the program services will also have to be different. The program services available through CETA, however, will be the same in the rural and in the urban area. Such activities as skill training, on the job training, adult work experience, public service employment, and certain supportive services are needed in the rural environment as much as they are in the urban environment, but they must

be delivered differently in the rural manpower planning area to adjust to the different barriers to employment and to the different causes of those barriers. A discussion of how these activities will need to be adjusted for adaptation to the characteristics of the rural environment will necessitate analyzing each program activity separately.

Skill Training

The two most obvious differences between delivering skill training services in the rural as opposed to the urban area are the location of training facilities in relation to clients, and the number and nature of skills needed in each area. There are only four vocational schools and one Junior College scattered throughout Area III. Each school has some training facilities in fields that the others do not have. For instance, the North Central Area Vocational School at Beloit specializes in heavy equipment maintenance and operation; Salina Area Vocational School specializes in diesel mechanics and aircraft fabrication; Manhattan Area Vocational School specializes in licensed practical nursing and has the only electrical lineman course of study in the area; and Flint Hills Area Vocational School of Emporia has dental and laboratory technician as well as ranch management specialties. All the schools have the more popular programs, such as welding, auto mechanics, and secretarial training. The point, however, is that for the client who wants to take advantage of heavy equipment maintenance and operation training in Beloit but who lives in Emporia, the sacrifice necessary to gain such training involves relocating 170 miles from his/her home. To the head of a household with a poverty level income, this moving process involves not only economic, but also emotional hardships. The client will either have to move his/her family to the training location or live away from his/her family during the week. Unlike his/her counterpart in the urban area, the rural client may have to travel over a

hundred miles to take advantage of training instead of simply across town.

Another problem with skill training in the rural manpower planning area is that there are few class openings available in the rural area. Vocational training is popular in the rural environment and the schools are continually filled to capacity. There are occasional openings at private schools but the cost of tuition may be ten times that of public schools. The tuition cost for secretarial training at Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School is \$200 while the tuition for the same training at Brown-Mackie, a private school in Salina, is \$2,000.¹¹ While it is more economical to enroll a person in training at a public vocational school, it is harder and more frustrating because the school not only has few openings but less class starting dates also. Unlike the urban centers, which have skill training centers that have open-entry open-exist classes, the rural areas have mostly the vocational school that only start classes in August and January. Because of the limited starting dates and the present popularity of vocational training in the rural environment, the schools may be already enrolled for two years in advance.

Those employers in the rural manpower planning area who need trained workers usually have very small businesses and thus need only a few new employees at a time. Consequently, job development for clients in training and development of relevant training priorities is a complicated process in the rural environment. Many more employers must be contacted in the rural environment than in the urban environment because of the relative sizes of the average businesses work force. The CETA operational structure must allow for the increased cost of transportation for the client to be able to take advantage of skill training while it must also allow for increased cost of extensive job development for the program operators to insure success in the program.

On the Job Training

On the Job Training (OJT) is difficult in the rural manpower planning area because it involves dealing with employers who are situated in an employers market (i.e., a situation where there are more people looking for jobs than jobs looking for people). They usually do not have to pay a highly competitive wage; they usually do not have to contend with labor unions; and they do not normally need people with specific skills. They are smaller than their urban counterparts and thus hire fewer people at a time. There are usually more employers in the rural manpower planning area but less employees per business. Whereas a large company in the urban sector might agree to hire fifty people at one time through the OJT program, the most a rural employer might agree to hire at one time would be five or six. For example, there has never been more than six persons placed through OJT with one company in Area III.¹² The ability to contact as many employers as possible is often the secret to the success of OJT placement in the rural manpower planning area.

Since the contact with employers is a prime responsibility of the CETA operational structure, especially in the rural areas, formal and informal organizations in which employers exchange information are important starting points for CETA administrators. Through local Chambers of Commerce and businessmen's organizations, CETA must not only "sell" the disadvantaged, but also the CETA service programs. In order to convince local employers successfully that CETA OJT can help them as well as the disadvantaged, the CETA administrators must understand individual employer needs. This task becomes difficult when the employer merely states that he/she wants a "dependable person." The ambiguous "job description" may be simply a cover for the employer's personal biases, but it also may be a general term used by the employer to describe his/her idiosyncrasies in hiring policies. These idiosyncrasies may vary

slightly or even sharply with employers. Since the work forces of individual urban employers are large many times and the work forces of individual rural employers are small most of the time, there will usually be more employer hiring policies to deal with in the rural manpower planning area than in the urban manpower planning area.

After "selling" the CETA service program to rural employers, the most difficult task for CETA OJT is to locate jobs that pay a livable wage. The requirement by CETA regulations that the pay for all OJT jobs begin at least at \$2.50 an hour is hard to meet in the rural environment. Nevertheless, many rural employers not only usually pay less than \$2.50 an hour, but many times allow their employees to work only 32 or 35 hours per week.¹³ These circumstances are in conflict with the CETA goals of placing people in meaningful unsubsidized employment. In order to be meaningful, the job should pay a livable wage and be fulltime (40 hours a week).

In order for OJT to operate successfully in the rural manpower planning area, constant contact must be maintained with local employers. There are so many employers and so few fulltime jobs that pay a livable wage in the rural manpower planning area that constant searching is needed to learn if and when opportunities exist. The needs of employers must be studied carefully so that proper screening of clients can insure that the right client gets the right job. Employers in the rural areas may never be convinced that they have a moral obligation to help the disadvantaged, but they can probably be convinced to some degree by the partial subsidization of wages, if not by the earnestness of CETA administrators.

Adult Work Experience

In order to make Adult Work Experience (AWE) adaptable to the rural area, care must be taken to insure that the client's work is directly related to the

process of eventually getting that person a permanent job. AWE is supposed to be a temporary employment situation in which a client can experience the responsibilities of handling fulltime employment. The work experience can only be gained in a public agency or a non-profit organization. Unlike in the urban environment where many public agency and private non-profit agencies may exist and are involved in a variety of activities, the rural environments contain few such agencies and/or organizations. Most public agency positions are either highly professional or particularly menial, while most private non-profit organizations need applicable manpower, but cannot afford to pay for it. In either case the achievement of CETA goals becomes even more difficult in the rural environment because of the fewer public agency and non-profit organization employment opportunities.

Before a CETA client is placed in a work experience situation, an employment plan should be worked out before hand stating what kind of work experience is needed for that client to prepare a desired employment opportunity. The initial problem in the rural areas is that, all too often, no appropriate work site can be found. If only clerical and maintenance positions are the totality of possibilities, the work experience gained may help the client learn the responsibilities of handling a fulltime job, but it will not necessarily prepare him/her for any one type of decent paying occupation. However AWE may have to settle for this single result in the rural manpower planning area. As noted, employers are constantly stating that they only need "dependable people." Thus, if the client could demonstrate that he/she was dependable at an AWE work site and the work site supervisor is willing to provide a letter of reference, possibly the client may meet an employer's definition of "dependable." Ultimately, the success of AWE in the rural manpower planning area will depend on the CETA operational structure being able to understand the qualities a

client must have to meet the individual employer's definition of "dependable" and to provide AWE work sites that would illustrate those qualities.

Public Service Employment

Public Service Employment (PSE) should be developed in a manner similar to the development of OJT--that is, on a one to one basis. If ever a program was dependent on the cooperation of the employer, it would be PSE. Since PSE involves subsidizing a public (or private non-profit employer) for an employee's entire salary for a given period of time (usually close to a year) with the understanding that the employer will transfer the employee onto its own unsubsidized payroll at the end of the period, it obviously is a very expensive program. Thus, the program is not very justifiable in most instances unless there is a very high possibility of the client being transitioned onto the unsubsidized payroll.

It is the PSE operational structures responsibility to determine those employers which are truly interested in eventually hiring a disadvantaged person in a meaningful position. Because of the limited budgets of governments (and private non-profit organizations) in the rural manpower planning area, many relevant employers may simply hire few PSE as a potential source of free funds and attempt to discover "loopholes" that will serve their immediate purpose rather than those of CETA or the client. For instance, they may intentionally place CETA PSE clients in positions they know will be phased out eventually, but which will exist just long enough to meet CETA guidelines. Also, the public employers may want to hire someone in an unrealistic position. They may want to hire a person in a professional position such as county assessor or assistant city attorney for which a disadvantaged person may never qualify or they may desire to hire a person in a position such as clerk or janitor that may be so menial or low paying that the disadvantaged person

would not be improving his/her status. The public and private non-profit employer generally has few hesitancies about utilizing CETA PSE program funds to satisfy his/her own needs rather than those of the program because the frustrations of past attempts by local governments, especially rural governments to qualify for badly needed federal funds. PSE can work however, if both the CETA operational structure and local governments and private non-profit organizations work together to mutually achieve their goals.

Certain Supportive Services

In order for certain supportive services such as transportation or child care services to be applicable in the rural manpower planning area, they must aid the CETA client in taking advantage of skill training activities. In the rural area, this means providing, among other things, transportation, child care, and general education services that will allow a client to qualify for skill training. The services do not differ much from those needed in the urban manpower planning area, but they must be delivered differently in the rural manpower planning area.

In the urban manpower planning area the transportation systems, child care centers and Adult Basic Education centers of the compactly populated environment may be utilized to provide CETA clients the basic supportive services but in the rural manpower planning area which is more sparsely populated, these facilities are not available. Consequently, CETA supportive services must be delivered in terms of allowances. Specifically, CETA clients are reimbursed at the rate of ten cents per mile for the round trip from their home to the skill training facility, they are reimbursed at a rate of \$3.00 a day per child (limit two children) for child care, and are paid \$2.30 an hour for each hour in class as general living expense. Also, if a person is in need of general education services he/she is provided learning materials

and supplies free of charge. While these reimbursements may not totally meet the needs of the CETA clients they nevertheless represent a very expensive process. For instance, if a client traveled 40 miles round trip to class and had two children in child care, he/she would receive \$35.00 a week for transportation and child care services, in addition to his/her regular living expense allowance of about \$63.00 a week (client is usually in class 32 hours a week).¹⁴ Thus the client would be receiving almost \$100.00 a week. The income is comparable to a person working 40 hours a week and earning \$2.50 an hour which is theoretically the salary all CETA are preparing for but the process of reimbursing clients on a rate basis is much more complicated and expensive than simply utilizing existing service systems and centers.

As the total cost of these supportive services add up, one begins to realize that the cost of training an individual in the rural manpower planning area is much more than that in the urban manpower planning area. Coordination can be achieved in some cases with other agencies and/or organizations, and this reduces the cost, providing that an individual can qualify for more than one program of course. For instance, if an individual can qualify for Aid for Dependent Children (AFDC) he/she can also qualify for Work Incentive (WIN) Service. WIN will pay for child care and for all but \$30.00 of the regular allowance. This coordination among agencies and/or organizations is important because it causes a reduction in the cost for a single agency and/or organization to prepare an individual for employment, but many times CETA clients do not qualify for other programs, and CETA must bear the total financial burden. This relatively high cost per client in the rural environment naturally reduces the number of clients that can be served in the manpower planning area.

Conclusions

For a CETA operational structure to be relevant in the rural manpower

planning area it must have both the capacity to attack employment problems on a regional basis and the ability to relate to the needs of employers and disadvantaged populations in individual communities. Problems such as transportation and communication limitations are regional because they affect several different communities. A CETA operational structure must be able to eliminate these problems in as many communities in the rural manpower planning area as possible. On the other hand, the CETA operational structure must be flexible enough to effectively and efficiently eliminate these problems in individual communities. Each community within a rural manpower planning area may have problems with transportation and communication but these problems may be created by different forces in different communities.

Whether a CETA operational structure is concerned with client recruitment, cooperation with local agencies and organizations, or program relevance, the primary requirement for effective and efficient CETA activities continues to be cooperation of local officials, employers, and community leaders. The important factor in recruiting CETA clients in the rural manpower planning area is obtaining a relevant line of communication with local disadvantaged people. The best sources for this line of communication are local concerned community organizations and leaders. The prime incentive for local agencies and organizations to cooperate with programs is the support of local leaders and employers. Because sometimes local government agencies may simply reflect the attitudes of the community rather than provide a basis for new attitudes, local employment and community leaders may need to provide the incentive for local agency personnel to overcome their jealousy or apprehension of new programs such as CETA and cooperate in a manner that would insure that programs did not overlap but would be conducted as effectively and efficiently as possible. In order for CETA programs to be relevant, local employers must

allow their employment needs to be known and local government officials must include manpower planning in their long range planning procedures. The degree of community involvement will vary from community to community so the CETA operational structure must be flexible enough to adapt to the level of involvement of each community. The more involved a local community is in the needs of the disadvantaged, the easier the task of the CETA operational structure will be.

In the rural area, CETA clients are hard to recruit because of the varying characteristics of communities and the sparseness of the population, coordination with local agencies and organizations is hard because of professional jealousies and conflicting goals, and program relevance is hard to obtain because of the lack of consistency in employer needs and expense of supportive services. These problems involved in designing a CETA operational structure in the rural environment are heightened however by the lack of cooperation from local officials, employers and community leaders. With the complexity of the rural environment the cooperation of rural officials is obviously even more of a need to the designers of CETA operational structures in the rural environment than in the urban environment. The prospect of that increased cooperation is weak however when one considers the attitudes of rural communities to regional and cooperative planning.

CHAPTER V

FOOTNOTES

1. Robert Guttman, Intergovernmental Relations under the Manpower Act, Monthly Labor Review (April, 1975), p. 15.
2. Will Burrnett, Human Relations Commissioner, private interview held in his office, Salina, Kansas, June 16, 1975.
3. Evolution of Manpower Concepts, Monthly Labor Review (October, 1973).
4. Mike Pritchard, Manhattan Employment Office Manager, private interview held in his office, Manhattan, Kansas, July 28, 1975.
5. Jerry Clements, CETA Counselor, private interview held in his office, Salina, Kansas, September 8, 1975.
6. Mike Pritchard, Manhattan Employment Office Manager, private interview held in his office, Manhattan, Kansas, July 28, 1975.
7. U. S. Congress, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, 93rd Congress, 1st Session, 1973.
8. Rodger Davidson, The Politics of Comprehensive Manpower Legislation (Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press, 1972), p. 6.
9. Bill Berry, Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School Director, private interview held in his office, Manhattan, Kansas, July 27, 1975.
10. Lynn Curtis, Regional Department of Labor Representative, private interview held in State Office Building, Topeka, Kansas, January 13, 1976.
11. Bill Berry, Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School Director, private interview held in his office, Manhattan, Kansas, July 27, 1975.
12. Kansas, Department of Labor, Kansas State Employment Service Division, Summary of OJT Characteristics (Topeka: Kansas State Printing Office, 1973).
13. Mike Pritchard, Manhattan Employment Office Manager, private interview held in his office, Manhattan, Kansas, July 28, 1975.
14. Bill Berry, Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School Director, private interview held in his office, Manhattan, Kansas, July 27, 1975.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

Over the past five years the scope and administration of manpower planning has undergone major changes. One of these changes has been the addition of the rural environment to the manpower planning process. In the past urban centers have received all the attention of program designers, analysts, and other professionals as well as legislators who have been concerned about the manpower planning problems of the nation. Most program operational structures are designed consequently for the manpower planning problems of the urban environment.

The focus of this study has been manpower planning problems of the rural environment. Because a majority of the manpower administration articles and resulting handbooks reflect the experiences of urban areas, most rural manpower planners attempt to adapt urban solutions to rural problems. The purpose of this study has been to explore the characteristics of the rural environment which create barriers to employment for the disadvantaged and to examine how these differ from those of the urban environment as well as to analyze different approaches and methods which are needed to alter these characteristics in the rural environment. By studying the characteristics of the rural employers and the rural poor and the general environmental forces affecting the delivery of manpower planning services in the rural area, the need for a certain type of operational structure is illustrated

also the overall difficulty in obtaining manpower planning program success in the rural area is indicated.

Not only is rural manpower planning a relatively new concept, but also the most recent manpower planning legislation, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA), is a completely new approach to manpower planning in general. The primary accomplishment of CETA is that it gives the responsibility for determining what manpower planning programs are needed and how they will be delivered to local elected officials. Formally, the federal government administered these programs through local agencies or organizations, but primarily because it lacked the resources to evaluate thoroughly the programs, the program contractors did their own evaluations and, consequently, prospered every year. As a result, planning was segmented and overlapping, but it eventually caused Congress to pass new legislation that would provide for comprehensive manpower planning and hopefully exclude vested interests from influencing manpower planning to their own advantage. CETA was this legislation, but it entered a hostile atmosphere created by former program contractors angry over their loss of power. The problems involved with implementing CETA in an urban center where former program deliverers are hostile is bad enough, but implementing CETA in the rural area where not only former program deliverers are hostile, but also where local officials and citizens are apathetic concerning new governmental programs is an even more difficult process.

Major Findings

The analysis of employer characteristics should be studied to determine the nature of employment opportunities in the manpower planning area. Such a study can determine the total amount of employment opportunities and the amount of employment opportunities requiring work experience, as well as,

the amount of private versus public employment opportunities for those employment opportunities requiring skills, and what training is necessary to obtain those skills. The only employment opportunities relevant to CETA goals and objectives are those that offer meaningful employment. The purpose of studying rural employer characteristics in comparison to urban employer characteristics is to determine how job development and preparation activities should be adjusted to make them relevant to the rural manpower planning area. However, in order to study the employer characteristics relevant to CETA, the employers must be divided into private and public categories.

Rural private employers usually have fewer employees per businesses, a lower level of involvement in manufacturing, and a lower demand for employees requiring special skills than urban private employers. Fewer employees per businesses means, among other things, that more individual employer contacts must be made to place CETA clients in private employment in the rural sector; further, since each employer may have his/her own particular hiring procedures and policies, the process of job development becomes more complicated in the rural than in the urban environment. Lower level of involvement in manufacturing means, among other things, that the preparation and/or the training of CETA clients must be accomplished for nontraditional work skills, such as those in the medical and repair fields. The skills associated with these services such as these may be more important in terms of meaningful employment in the rural manpower planning area than those associated with manufacturing. Lower demand for employees requiring special skills means, among other things, CETA program activities emphasizing work experience, rather than skill training, are needed in the rural manpower planning area. In general, placing a CETA client with the private rural employer will require different procedures than those required for placing the CETA client with the urban private employer.

Public employers in the rural environment differ from those in the urban environment, essentially only insofar as there are more of them. There are several city, township, county, and regional governments in the rural manpower planning area, and each has its own level of competence. Whereas governments in the urban centers have to be at least sufficiently competent to serve large populations, governments in the rural area may represent small populations and thus perform limited functions. Since urban public employers control large sums of tax dollars and have numerous responsibilities, they plan carefully many of their future activities. Rural public employers, on the other hand, operate on a low budget and usually plan from only one year to the next. Determining public employment possibilities in the rural area is consequently a more complicated process because of the greater number of public employers and the low level of long range planning. The one area of public employment in the rural sector that does offer numerous employment opportunities at present is that of the local non-profit social service organization. These organizations are relatively new in the rural environment, but are becoming increasingly important to the rural public employment opportunity picture.

The population characteristics of the rural manpower planning area are relevant to CETA objectives and goals because they illustrate what types of people are traditionally in the poverty category and how they compare to the remainder of the population. The comparison of rural and urban population characteristics can determine what different barriers to employment exist in the two environments and how the recruiting structure should be adjusted to influence potential clients in the rural sector to take advantage of CETA manpower planning programs. The total population characteristics of the rural manpower planning area are relevant only when they are considered in terms of

the aggregate of the population characteristics of each county within the area. The characteristics of one county can reveal a misconception concerning the entire area or they can reveal a need not visible when analyzing the characteristics of the entire area.

Rural populations are older and poorer, and, despite, or perhaps because of, the fact that fewer ethnics reside in the rural manpower planning area, they are more prejudiced than urban populations. Older populations may mean that more older people are looking for work but, more importantly, it may mean employment opportunities in the aging services field. Populations are poorer mainly because of the comparatively lower wage rates prevalent in the rural environment. Also, rural populations are actually poorer than data indicates since fewer people utilize the social rehabilitation and welfare assistance offices in the rural than in the urban area. As is generally known, the idea of receiving welfare is not as accepted in the rural environment as it is in the urban environment.

A Spencerian attitude affects the philosophies and actions of the rural populations, including especially the rural employers. The rural poor in general are reluctant to apply for any kind of public assistance because they perceive this application as meaning that they are inferior to the rest of the population. Many rural employers, as well as local officials and community leaders, reinforce this attitude by resisting public assistance programs like CETA, seemingly because they want the disadvantaged to continue believing that their situation is their own fault. Residents in the rural environment hold a belief in individualism and self-reliance. This makes it difficult for, for example, on women heads of household and on ethnics, both of whom may be poor because they have been, and are, discriminated against in obtaining meaningful employment. Thus, women and ethnics are

discriminated against not only because they are poor, but also because they are not members of the traditional labor force. In order to adequately compete in the labor market, they may have to possess marketable skills that are superior to those of their White male competitors. While rural employers may assume that a White male is qualified for a position, a woman or an ethnic may need to "prove" his/her qualifications.

The rural area is much different than the urban area in terms of the atmosphere for performing manpower planning activities. For example, the employers, the training facilities, and the potential employees are all more widely dispersed across the rural manpower planning area. Further, governmental planning is segmented, thus providing no overall administrative structure that could assume the responsibility of performing comprehensive manpower planning for the entire region.

The wide disbursement of employers, training facilities, and potential employees requires that the recruitment mechanism for a manpower planning program must be sufficiently large to reach all the communities within the several counties of a rural manpower planning area, but it must also be sufficiently small to relate to the needs of, and opportunities within, each of those communities. It must be able to cooperate with, and gain the support of, local agencies and organizations. The cooperation with both is necessary in order to obtain the maximum result from their activities and in order to insure that manpower planning program services do not overlap. The support of both is necessary to assist CETA in gaining identification and credibility within the local community. The cooperation and support of local agencies and organizations may be difficult to come by in the rural environment because of apathy, and perhaps even hostility, from local governmental officials and community leaders as well as because of goal conflicts with voluntary

organizations. Some agencies or organizations may have been turned down as manpower program deliverers in the past, and therefore may not only be reluctant to cooperate with CETA, but also attempt to discredit the capabilities of CETA.

The changing employment and population characteristics of the rural manpower planning area may also mean that specific program activities must be adjusted to fit the needs of the rural worker. Work experience types of programs need to be conducted on a one to one basis. There will be few occasions where one employer will need more than a few employees at one time. Skill training services need to be negotiated well in advance at appropriate vocational schools to gain access to class openings. More funds need to be targeted for supportive services because of such factors as long distances between skill training facilities, the general lack of child care centers, and the lack of general education centers in the rural manpower planning area.

The ultimate responsibility for solving the problems of identifying employment opportunities for the disadvantaged, of encouraging the disadvantaged to take advantage of CETA, and of implementing an efficient and effective manpower planning program in the rural area falls upon local officials and community leaders. They are the individuals in a position to know the inadequacies and the resources of their communities. Thus, it is up to them to cooperate and provide the Balance of State (BOS) Prime Sponsor with the necessary information to establish an operational manpower planning program structure.

Employers can be encouraged by local officials and community leaders to include manpower planning as a part of their economic growth plans. Local officials and community leaders can encourage the local disadvantaged

population to become involved with CETA, especially by demonstrating that local employers will hire them if they do. They can also provide meaningful linkages that will improve the chances for success for a specific manpower planning program delivery system. However, in order for local officials and community leaders to become involved with local employers, disadvantaged populations, and manpower planning program delivery systems, they must overcome their apathy concerning social service programs in general and decide whether or not efficient and effective manpower planning through cooperation on a regional basis can be a major step in achieving economic growth and stability in the rural environment.

Implications for the Future

The main provision for the implementation of CETA legislation entails the control of the planning and the administering of manpower programs by local elected officials. The primary reason CETA has not yet been especially successful in the rural manpower planning area is a result of the lack of involvement on the part of local elected officials, involvement which seems necessary to provide the insight of constructive manpower planning. This lack of involvement is partially understandable because the state governor is the BOS Prime Sponsor, but the provisions of the legislation are such that local elected officials can participate actively in the CETA manpower planning process.

Therefore, if local community leaders are going to participate constructively in the CETA manpower planning process in the rural area, they are seemingly going to have to do it essentially outside the existing political attitudes. They might consider forming a regional planning body with representation from local community leaders, local business leaders, local ethnics and women, local governmental agencies, and local voluntary organizations.

Cooperation and resulting accomplishments at the regional level may cause local elected officials to re-evaluate seriously their current political attitudes. Specifically, a need for an interrelated network of rural governmental systems which would channel all manpower planning activities through a central regional manpower planning system might be demonstrated. This would constitute a major step for rural local elected officials who staunchly defend their county commission form of government, but the facts that CETA has already produced some beneficial results in the rural manpower planning area and that it is one of the few major social service programs available in rural communities in which those communities have a voice is at least encouraging to local rural leaders.

If local officials and community leaders take the initiative and participate actively in the CETA manpower planning process, then the role of the BOS Prime Sponsor could be as legislatively intended (i.e., one of overall administration). CETA legislation is intended so that BOS and other Prime Sponsors can plan and administer comprehensive manpower planning, but the majority of the input into the process is to come from various representatives, in the form of area task forces, from the manpower planning area. As rural manpower planning area task forces illustrate their ability to prepare their population and labor market analyses, the Prime Sponsor can devote less time to designing operational structures and more time to evaluating the affects of manpower planning on the economic and cultural activities of the rural environment in relation to those of other Prime Sponsor areas. These evaluations can be used to refine further the manpower planning program process and thus aid CETA in becoming an ever more efficient and effective set of activities. Area task forces can become meaningful to the overall manpower operational structure only if the local officials and community leaders cooperate with them. If

the majority of local groups, agencies, and organizations are represented, the area task force can appear as a symbol of the success that can be generated if rural governments participate at a regional level and if local officials and community leaders define local problems and aid in solving them.

If local leaders do not cooperate and if equal participation in area task forces is not achieved, the Prime Sponsors will have to retain both the planning and the administering of manpower programs. Without the support of local leaders, Prime Sponsors may not prepare completely the population and labor market analyses, and thus the Prime Sponsors may not design adequate manpower planning operational structures. The prime rationale for CETA was that local elected officials could define more adequately the needs of the local community. The failure of CETA to realize its goals and objectives may prove that rationale incorrect. Local deliverers of categorical manpower programs have agreed traditionally that, if given the chance, local elected officials would not be able to care or to understand about the needs of the disadvantaged. The failure of local elected officials to assist BOS Prime Sponsors in defining the problems of the local areas may cause federal manpower planning officials to recommend a return to categorical manpower programs. That is to say, the realization may be arrived at, while local program deliverers may be serving their own interests on many occasions, they at least care about and understand the needs of the disadvantaged and are trusted by them, that the local program deliverers at least have some experience in dealing with the disadvantaged and are able to establish workable languages with populations that may be more or less alienated from the local officials and the community leaders.

If CETA does fail as the basis for a workable manpower planning system, the primary reason could be the lack of competency of the Prime Sponsor, but

will probably be the lack of involvement by local officials and community leaders. The failure of CETA would be unfortunate because the legislation represents the first meaningful attempt to provide for both local input and centralized, comprehensive planning in the area of manpower. It represents over a decade of legislative efforts designed to make manpower planning a centralized, comprehensive process with local input that provides for realistic and constructive answers to local manpower problems. However, local governments have only themselves to blame for incomplete and sometimes mistaken manpower planning programs. Perhaps local officials are not appropriate for the administration of manpower planning programs. They certainly would not seem appropriate in the rural manpower planning area if they subscribe to Spencerian attitudes and therefore discourage assistance to the disadvantaged of their community. A return to categorical manpower program deliverers would mean a reversal of manpower planning policy and would not necessarily be accepted with enthusiasm by local officials. It would mean a return to manpower planning programs being delivered for the benefit of program deliverers rather than for the benefit of the disadvantaged. After even brief experience, local officials should realize that the categorical manpower planning program deliverers were not only delivering programs that were in opposition to their basic beliefs, but also delivering them inefficiently and ineffectively.

For CETA to exist in the rural environment, rural governments will have to learn to cooperate and to solve manpower planning problems on a regional basis. The many rural governments do not individually possess the resources to solve their manpower planning problems. Possibly, they may learn to solve their manpower planning problems by first solving other problems. Instead of discovering the utility of regional intragovernmental cooperation by working together, in order to solve manpower planning problems, they may learn to

solve manpower planning problems by working together on a regional basis to solve problems, such as highway construction, police protection, and the construction of medical facilities, which are higher on their priority lists. Once rural governments are working together to identify and to solve their regional problems, they may discover that the employment barriers facing the disadvantaged is truly one of their major problems. In any case, rural manpower planning, as well as other planning activities, will always be more difficult in the rural environment because of the wide disbursement of populations and resources and because of the lack of any strong, centralized political authorities.

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GLOSSARY

Adult Work Experience (AWE) - Manpower program in which a client receives \$2.30 an hour while he/she gains experience by working at a public or a private non-profit organization or agency.

Aged Dependency Ratio (ADR) - Ratio of the number of people over 65 to the total population of a selected area.

Balance of State (BOS) - All planning areas of the state other than those representing jurisdictions of 100,000 or more.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) - First major manpower legislation that authorized states and local Prime Sponsors the power to administer local manpower programs.

Consortium - Agreement between at least two units of local government in which the governments jointly apply as Prime Sponsor of the total Area. At least one of the governments must represent 100,000 people.

Dependency Ratio - Ratio of nonproductive age groups of a population (those under 16 and those over 65) to those productive age groups (those between the ages of 16 and 65).

Disadvantaged - A person whose family income is below the federal Department of Labor's poverty guidelines. The guidelines start at \$2,800 for a single person and increase by \$900 for each member in the family.

Emergency Jobs Program (EJP) - Special program created to provide temporary public service jobs during times of unemployment.

Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (EOA) - Major legislation that provided for various manpower programs to be administered after joint agreements between the Departments of Commerce, Agriculture, Labor and Health, Education and Welfare.

Head of Household - Person that is the primary wage earner for a family.

Labor Market Analysis - The study of employment needs and characteristics of a particular planning area.

Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) - First major Legislature attempt to consolidate manpower planning under one umbrella system. The major provisions were for National, State and local advisory groups that would represent various segments of the particular community.

Manpower Planning Area - Regional geographic area designated by a Prime Sponsor or Prime Sponsors that needs and will attempt to utilize manpower services.

Meaningful Employment - Employment with a starting wage large enough for a head of household to support his/her family and a chance for advancement large enough the employee can set optimistic future goals.

Negative Termination - Situation in which a CETA client quits or graduates from a CETA program without obtaining meaningful employment for at least 30 days within 90 days after leaving the program.

Neutral Termination - Situation in which a CETA client quits or graduates from a CETA program activity and either goes into another CETA program activity, goes to school on his/her own, or enlists in the military service within at least 90 days after he/she leaves the program.

On the Job Training (OJT) - CETA program activity that will reimburse an employer for half of a person's salary for a certain period of time if the employer agrees to hire a CETA client. The employer must agree to transfer the client to unsubsidized employment if he/she performs satisfactorily.

Positive Termination - Situation in which CETA client obtains meaningful employment for at least 30 days within at least 90 days after he/she leaves the program.

Prime Sponsor - Head elected official of a constituency that represents at least 100,000 people and wishes to apply for administration and funding of CETA programs.

Program Contractor - Government agency or private organization that contracts with federal government or local Prime Sponsor to provide manpower services.

Public Service Employment (PSE) - CETA program activity in which a public or private non-profit employer may be subsidized for a clients salary for up to a year if the employer agrees to hire a CETA client and retain him/her on unsubsidized employment given satisfactory performance.

Skill Training (ST) - CETA program activity that pays for a CETA client's tuition and supplies at a Vocational Training facility and provides a living allowance for the client while he/she attends that school.

Spencerian Theory - Theory of Herbert Spencer that the world of economics should be free of any forces that assist one individual or business competing against the other. He felt that only the best and strongest should and would survive and assistance to less competitive elements would only weaken the overall economic system.

Supportive Services - Services provided by CETA that would allow a client to take advantage of a particular CETA program activity or an employment opportunity.

Target Groups - Specified population groups of a manpower planning area that designated as priorities in recruitment for CETA programs.

Underemployed - A person whose employment is less than forty hours a week and who is looking for fulltime employment.

Unemployed - A person who has been out of work for at least 30 days.

Youth Dependency Ratio (YDR) - The ratio of the number of people under 16 to the total population of a selected area.

AN EXPLORATION OF MANPOWER PLANNING
IN THE RURAL ENVIRONMENT

by

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B. B. A., Emporia Kansas State College, 1972

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explain the importance of rural manpower planning and to examine how the barriers to employment in the rural and the urban environments differ. Any manpower planning program that attempts to eliminate barriers to employment must consider the characteristics of the manpower planning that create those barriers. The differences in the employer population and the other key environmental characteristics of the rural and the urban areas illustrate how the manpower planning program operational structure should be organized so that it is relevant to the rural manpower planning area.

In the past most manpower planning operational structures were designed to eliminate the barriers to employment for the disadvantaged populations in the urban environment since national and local and governmental officials focused most of their attention on the urban area. Thus, manpower planning legislation has had a stormy history of evolution to its present stage, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA). The major accomplishment of this legislation has been to transfer authority for the planning and the administration of manpower programs from the federal to the local level.

The primary differences between the rural and the urban manpower planning areas result from characteristics involving socio-economic and other environmental circumstances. For example, the rural employers have fewer employees per company, are less concerned with manufacturing, and require fewer workers with specific skills than the urban employers. Further, the

rural populations are older and poorer than the urban populations and like their urban counterparts, experience stiff, albeit somewhat different, attitudinal barriers in obtaining employment. Finally, the vastness of the rural manpower planning area, the competition among local agencies and organizations, and the apathy of local governmental officials and community leaders make manpower planning a more complicated process in the rural than in the urban area.

The design of a rural manpower planning operational structure must reflect all the above mentioned factors. This structure must be expansive enough to contain information about employment opportunities from all over the rural manpower planning area and relevant enough to understand the labor needs of specific companies within the area. The structure must be identifiable to all segments of the rural disadvantaged, and it must coordinate with and encourage the cooperation of local agencies and organizations.

Manpower planning in the rural atmosphere is a complicated process, but it can be efficient and effective if local governmental officials and community leaders cooperate to define the barriers to employment and to design manpower planning services which will eliminate those barriers. The barriers to employment are created by regional factors such as transportation, communication, and conservative public attitudes. How well rural governments cooperate in an intragovernmental planning process will determine how well they combat these regional factors which create barriers to employment.